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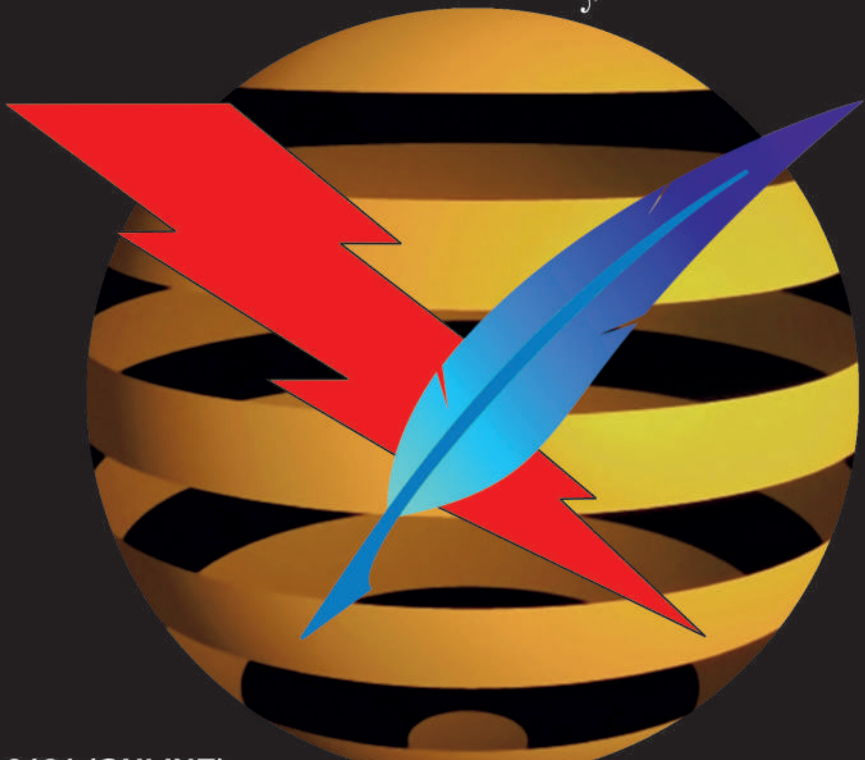

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Contents

Private Capital Flows, Financial Development and Economic Growth in the North African Region

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Abstract. *Today, one of the sources of growth and development of nations is the entry of private international capital flows. The objective of our paper is to study the effects of private capital flows on economic growth in North African countries from 1995 to 2017. The GMM econometric technique shows that the "KAOPEN" index and financial development affect economic growth in North African countries and the entry of capital flows reinforces the financial development effect on economic growth.*

Keywords: *capital flows, financial development, panel data, GMM.*

JEL: O20, O21.

Introduction

The change in the financial macroeconomic sphere, the results of the opening of the capital account and the lack of consensus among economists on the nature of the effect of capital flows on economic growth make it more difficult to confirm that the liberalization of the capital account contributes to improving the well-be.

The phenomenon of the globalization of capital flows is explained by the heavy weight of the economy of emerging countries in the world economy following the adoption of new integration strategies. The change in the destination of private capital flows to emerging and developing countries are mainly explained by international division of labour and the intensification of world trade.

Marc et Bruno (2018) explain that the liberalization of the capital account in emerging countries by the liberalization of banking markets to different categories of investor and domination of foreign shareholders.

The effects of the opening of the capital account on economic growth are of three types; one is the positive effect such as the diversification of risks and capital costs and the increase in investment, the other type denotes the negative effect as the crowding out effect, financial instability and the spread of crises Finally, beneficial effects such as the transfer of new technologies, development and macroeconomic stability.

This paper is organized as follows: The first section presents a brief overview of the literature on the positive and negative effects of private capital flows on economic growth. The second section deals data, econometric specification and results obtained.

1. Literature Review

1.1. Positive effects of capital flows

The entry of capital flows encourages economic growth through the better allocation of resources and jobs, the distribution of risks, the improvement of portfolio efficiency, research and the adoption of new sources of funding, diversification of investment and financing opportunities, reduction of financial intermediary costs and exploitation of foreign savings for domestic needs.

According to Vincent (2015), the commitment in the processes of opening the capital account improves the availability of savings; the financing of the current account deficit reduces the debt in currency and subsequently the elimination of the negative effects of external debt.

Badr (2018) distinguishes two channels of transmission between financial intermediation and economic growth:

- Accumulation of capital increases the rate of accumulation,
- Technological innovation leads to the improvement of production processes.

The development of the banking system increases the savings rate and allocates external resources. The combination of these factors facilitates the creation of profitable new investments. Schumpeter (1912) announces that the development of the banking sector affects economic growth by directing resources towards the most productive projects

Khmekhem (2017) has shown that the liberalization of the capital account affects long-term economic growth and develops the financial system of developing countries.

Louis (2018) justified that remittances from migrants and the inflow of FDI flows are the main factors explaining the improvement of well-being in developing and poor countries.

Fatima and Fethi (2016) measured financial liberalization through the agreement of bank loans to the private sector. They justified the positive relationship between the agreement of bank loans to the private sector and long-term economic growth. It is noted that it is important for developing countries to limit the size of the informal financial sector and to develop the financial sector through the facilitation of private sector credit operations, interest rate liberalization, etc.

Fatimata (2018) showed that human capital development and the high degree of trade openness are two factors of attractiveness of FDI; FDI has a positive effect on economic growth through the transfer of new technologies. But, FDI degrades the environment by the effect of carbon dioxide emissions.

On the accounting side, the cost of capital is defined as the sum of dividends distributed to shareholders and the net actual interest paid and the debt ratio of equities and the debt ratio are two factors that explain the risk.

Florian (2018) has shown that the cost of capital generates the accumulation of productive capital for enterprises; the cost of capital is a consequence of the creation of the new financial performance standards applied to companies and represents the debt engine of some countries over a long period.

Finally, Findlay and Arraw (1978), Nasri (2018), Louis (2018) et Gritli et Rey (2018), Khmekhem (2017), Fatima and Fethi (2016), Fatimata (2018) and Florian (2018) note that the liberalization of the capital account affects economic growth through their own components (FDI, portfolio investment (stock flows) and bank loans (bank loans)). They contribute to increased investment, risk diversification, lower capital costs, innovation, research and development, transfer of new technologies and knowledge, increasing the availability of savings and capital accumulation, efficiency and stability of the financial system and macroeconomic discipline, etc.

1.2. Negative effects of capital flows

On the basis of Kant (2002), the flight of capital is a chronic and growing problem with no finite resolution. It is a problem in some countries. The flight of capital out of the national territory is explained by the idea that savers and investors are looking for higher returns and a safer business environment. It is therefore important for countries with capital flight to improve the business climate and increase the interest rate in order to increase the yield of flows. This explanation is compatible only for portfolio investments and bank debts.

Bensliman and Bakretil (2018) point out that the establishment of foreign banks increases the rate of economic growth and lowers the rate of unemployment. But the latter exerts repression on domestic banks. It found that it is important for poor countries to help domestic banks to compete, to encourage domestic banks to finance investment projects to improve the balance of payments situation.

Pinshi (2017) has shown that retroactive loops between capital flow volatility and financial stability cannot prevent financial instability. It prefers the practice of a prudential policy, insists on the intervention of the central bank to stabilize the financial sphere and mitigate the volatility of capital flows by adopting a macro prudential policy.

The loss of financial stability is not only due to the intensification of the competitive sphere but also to the credit boom effect. In this regard, Rousseau and Wachlel (2017) have shown that episodes of credit expansion to the private sector do not contribute to the short-term but long-term financial crisis, which disrupts the macroeconomic framework by the high availability of liquidity.

Florent et al. (2018) have shown that the transfer of funds has a negative and significant impact on growth. The negative relationship between the transfer of funds and economic growth is explained by the behavior of moral hazard of the residents, the inhabitants of the countries are benefitted from the sending of money as an insurance system facing their daily needs

Azeroual (2016) showed the negative effect of FDI on TFP in the short and long term. She explained the inverse relationship between the two by the small technological gap between home and host countries. This explanation shows that it is important for some countries to attract foreign direct investment from advanced countries in order to benefit more from new technologies.

In conclusion, the opening of the capital account has negative effects on economic growth and welfare, such as the presence of risks associated with the penetration of foreign banks, increased risks and the flight of capital, the loss of macroeconomic stability, the lack of monetary autonomy, and the effects of volatility, short-term flows contagion.

2. Empirical investigation

2.1. Data

Our study analyses data from the 4 North African countries over the period 2000 to 2017. We chose only Tunisia, Egypt, Algeria and Morocco to have a continuous and complete database and to avoid the problem of missing values.

Economic growth (GDP): Economic growth is measured by the rate of growth of real GDP per capita. Indeed, real GDP per capita refers to the total gross domestic product (Gross National Product) divided by the number of the population during a year. In our study, real GDP per capita refers to the independent variable. Real GDP per capita is calculated from World Bank data (2018). Growth data are logarithmic and are calculated as follows:

$$\Delta GDP_t = log \frac{GDP_t}{GDP_{t-1}} = log\ GDP_t - logGDP_{t-1} \quad (1)$$

Financial development: Financial development can be measured by loans provided by the banking sector as a percentage of GDP. The credit index provided by the banking sector measures the degree of intimidation of the banking system in the overall activity of the economy. This includes both private and public sector credits.

Capital flows: Capital flows can be measured by the jure or de facto index, the chin and Ito index, the Quinn index, the decomposition of capital flows, the net inflow of FDI flows as a percentage of GDP. We measured capital flows by the Chinn Index and Ito Index also known as the KAOPEN Index. According to Chinn and Ito (2017) the KAOPEN index includes between -1.86 and 2.44. In our study the KAOPEN index refers to the independent variable. This series is from http://web.pdx.edu/~ito/Chinn-Ito_website.htm.

Institutional Development: In our study, we measured institutional development through the Economic Freedom Index. Indeed, economic freedom is an economic and political concept born by the classics that integrates the arrangement of an economic and political dimension. Economic freedom positively affects economic growth thanks to the ease of the processes of exchange of goods and property and the increase in the degree of confidence of investors. The Economic Freedom Index database is collected from the Fraser Institute (2018).

Gross fixed capital formation: In our study we measure gross fixed capital formation by net acquisitions of valuables according to the World Bank database (2018).

Inflation: The term inflation refers to the general increase in the prices of consumer goods and services. We measure inflation by the Consumer Price Index, which reflects the annual percentage change in the cost to the average consumption of purchasing a basket of goods and services, which can be set or modified at specific intervals. This series is extracted from the World Bank's global indicators (2018).

2.2. Econometric specification

The growth model adopted is part of the theoretical framework of endogenous growth models. According to the theory of endogenous growth, economic growth is determined by human capital (Romer (1986) et Lucas (1988)), public expenditure (Barro (1990)), government policies, international capital flows (Bolsoom (1998)). The complete formulation of our econometric model is inspired by the work of Alfaro et al. (2004, 2010) et Chiang and Birtch (2012) which is written as follows:

$$\log \Delta GDP_{it} = \log GDP_{i_{(t-1)}} + \log INF_{it} + \log FD_{it} + \log CF_{it} + \\ + \log \mathrm{ID}_{\mathrm{it}} + \log \mathrm{GFCF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \varepsilon_{\mathrm{it}} \qquad (2)$$

With: t = 1995…… 2017 and i = 1, 2, 3, 4

When we eliminate the log we get the following equation:

$$\Delta \mathrm{GDP}_{\mathrm{it}} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \mathrm{GDP}_{\mathrm{it}-1} + \alpha_2 \mathrm{CF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_3 \mathrm{FD}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_4 \mathrm{INF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_5 \mathrm{ID}_{\mathrm{it}} + \\ + \alpha_6 \mathrm{GFCF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \varepsilon_{\mathrm{it}} \qquad (3)$$

To identify the role of financial development whose improvement of economic growth through capital flows we have estimated the following model:

$$\Delta \mathrm{GDP}_{\mathrm{it}} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \mathrm{GDP}_{\mathrm{it}-1} + \alpha_2 \mathrm{CF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_3 \mathrm{FD}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_4 \mathrm{INF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_5 \mathrm{ID}_{\mathrm{it}} + \\ + \alpha_6 \mathrm{GFCF}_{\mathrm{it}} + \alpha_7 (\mathrm{FK}_{\mathrm{it}}.\mathrm{DF}_{\mathrm{it}}) + \varepsilon_{\mathrm{it}} \qquad (4)$$

- **Unit root test**

The IPS approach has several advantages over the Levin, Lin and Chu test by taking into account the heterogeneity of the autoregressive root under the alternative. Im, Pesaran and Shin propose a test statistic based on the average of the individual DF and ADF statistic. The Im, Pesaran and Shin (2003) tests are ranked among the first generation stationarity tests.

The table below summarizes the unit root test of the different series.

Table 1. *Stationarity test*

Im, Pesaran and Shin			
variables	Level	1st différence	2nd différence
GDP	0.056 (0.522)	-1.270 (0.101)	-6.801 (0.000)
FD	1.490 (0.931)	-1.447 (0.073)	-6.529 (0.000)
CF	-0.023 (0.490)	-0.738 (0.230)	-4.523 (0.000)
ID	-2.823 (0.002)	-7.968 (0.000)	-10.726 (0.000)
INF	2.682 (0.996	-3.802 (0.000)	-7.405 (0.000)
GFCF	2.439 (0.992)	-2.240 (0.012)	-6.198 (0.000)

Source: Calculated by author using STATA 15.

The table above does not reject the null assumption of a unit root at the level of GDP, gross fixed capital formation, financial development, inflation and the KAOPEN index. That is, GDP, gross fixed capital formation, financial development, inflation and the KAOPEN index are not flat at the level. Still at the level, the development index of institutions is stationary. When we go to 1st difference we notice that all the variables become stationary except the GDP and the KAOPEN index. In the second difference all variables become stationary.

- **Correlation test**

The non diagonal variance-covariance matrix type indicates the presence of an auto-correlation problem. The objective of the multi-colinearity test is to verify the presence of a correlation between the variables in the model. Indeed, the good regression model is which does not hold a correlation between the variables. In our model, if real gross domestic product, KAOPEN, institutional development, inflation and gross fixed capital formation are correlated, then they are not orthogonal. Multi-colinearity is said if the coefficient of correlation between the variables is greater than 0.9.

The following table summarizes the correlation coefficients between the different variables in the model.

Table 2. *Correlation matrix*

	GDP	FD	ID	GFCF	INF
GDP	1				
FD	0.390649	1			
ID	0.034672	0.017481	1		
GFCF	-0.114230	-0.150202	-0.399311	1	
INF	0.081149	0.113932	0.188795	-0.457243	1

Source: Calculated by author using STATA 15.

Table 2 shows that the correlation coefficient between variables does not exceed the Ghozali coefficient (2013). So, we are talking it is not a problem of multi-colinearity between the different variables of the model. According to the correlation table, we say:

The most correlated variable in the growth of North African countries from 1995 to 2017 is financial development. Indeed, the correlation coefficient is equal to 0.990649. The variable least correlated with GDP is gross fixed capital formation. The correlation coefficient between the two equals -0.114230.

- **Serial autocorrelation test**

The serial autocorrelation test is used to test an error autocorrelation greater than the unit. The autocorrelation test, also known as the Breusch-Godfred test (1980). The serial autocorrelation test is based on a search for a significant relationship between the residues and the same shifted residue. The Breusch-Godfred (1980) hypothesis is formulated as:

H0: Absent autocorrelation

H1: Autocorrelation

The decision is taken by the classical Fischer test of nullity of the coefficients or by the distributed LM statistic according to a Khi-two law at p degrees of freedom.

With: LM $= T \times R^2$

If LM $>\chi^2_p$ read, the error independence hypothesis is rejected. The table below displays the error independence test results.

Table 3. *Breusch-Pagan LM serial autocorrelation test*

Test	Breusch-Godfred	
Models	Model 3	Model 4
χ^2	26.093	23.625
P. χ^2	0.000	0.000

Source: Calculated by author using STATA 15.

According to the results of the Breusch-Pagan LM test the null hypothesis of independence of errors is rejected. That is, there is a serial autocorrelation problem for the 2 models.

- **Individual heteroscedasticity test**

In econometric terms, heteroscedasticity is said if the variances of the residuals of the variables are different. homoscedasticity correspond to the case where the residues of the variables are constant. The most commonly used test for heteroscedasticity is the Wald test (2000). The null hypothesis of the Wald test assumes homoscedasticity. So the heteroscedasticity test problem is this:

H0: Homoscedasticity

H1: heteroscedasticity

If the probability associated with the test is less than 5% H0 is rejected. If the probability is greater than 5%, then the null hypothesis is verified. The table below displays the results of the Wald test.

Table 4. *Wald test*

Test	Wald test	
Models	Model 3	Model 4
χ^2	35.78	22.90
P. χ^2	0.000	0.001

Source: Calculated by author using STATA 15.

Based on this table, we reject the homoscedasticity hypothesis and assume the heteroscedasticity hypothesis in most models.

- **Estimate**

After processing the data on STATA 15 the following results are obtained. The table below shows the result of the GMM.

Table 5. *Effect of independent variables on GDP*

Variable	without interaction	with interaction
Constant	3.29 (0.000) ***	3.599 (0.000) ***
FD	0.027 (0.000)***	0.049 (0.086)*
ID	0.006 (0.049)**	0.021 (0.053)*
INF	-0.113 (0.000) ***	-0.096 (0.000)***
CF	0.052 (0.000) ***	0.123 (0.055)*
GFCF	0.093 (0.001)***	0.105 (0.000)***
GDP-1	-0.010 (0.000) ***	-0.005 (0.0043) ***
CF*FD	-	0.244 (0.020) **
Sargan Test	2.12 (0.83)	6.23 (0.94)

*: significance at 10%; ** significance at 5%; *** significance at 1% and n.s: not significant

Source: Calculated by author using STATA 15.

The table above shows that all variables have a positive and statistically significant effect except for inflation and the delayed variable.

According to Sargan test results, we reject H0. That is, the error terms are not correlated with the exogenous variables and therefore the estimation instruments in model 3 and 4 are valid. In order to verify the validation of the estimation instruments, we will therefore proceed to the economic interpretation of the results.

2.3. Results and recommendations

The coefficient associated with financial integration is equal to 0.052 at a probability of 0.000. That is, the effect of financial integration on economic growth is positive and statistically significant at the 1% level. This finding corroborates the results of Samuel et al. (2017) and Fredrick (2019). As an economic lifeline, the positive effect of the opening of the capital account on economic growth in the North African region is explained by the transfer of new technologies following the entry of FDI. In the light of our result, it is noted that it is important for the leaders of the North African countries to open the capital account more through the adaptation of several exchange rate regimes, the removal of restrictions on current account movements (export, import, transfer of income) and capital account (FDI, portfolio investment, foreign bank credit) but on condition of developing the financial system in order to avoid risks related to financial integration.

The coefficient associated with the financial development variable is equal to 0.027 at probability of 0.000. Our result corroborates the results of Khalouki (2016). As an economic point of view, the authorities of the North African countries are urged to liberalize the interest rate completely in order to mobilize savings and to cap the loans granted to the private sector according to the forecast of private investment.

According table 5, the coefficient associated with the quality of institutions variable is equal to 0.006 at probability of 0.049. This relationship can be explained by the openness of the North African region to the outside world, respect for the private property rights of foreign investors, good regulation and lack of corruption. In a low-quality regulatory environment, foreign investors prefer to turn to areas where the likelihood of their gain would be greater and more certain. Our result shows that the North African region is characterized by a good business climate characterized by a low degree of corruption, violence and a high degree of economic openness. Our result corroborates the studies of Komlan (2006), Sobhee (2016), and Mihaela and al. (2018).

In our study the sign associated with the variable public expenditure is positive by 0.093 and statistically significant at the 1% threshold. Our result corroborates Rajesh (2018) study (2018). The positive relationship between gross fixed capital formation and economic growth may explain why the largest share of expenditure is directed towards productive projects in the North African region. In light of our findings, we conclude that it is important for North African countries to reprogram the distribution of public spending. In other words, North African countries are recommended to increase the share of public spending that goes to the financial system.

According table 5, the coefficient relative to the economic growth rate of the previous year is equal to -0.69 with a probability of 0.010. That is to say, the level of economic growth of the previous year had a negative and significant impact at the 1% threshold. Our result corroborates the study by Jlassi (2015). The negative relationship can be explained by the assumption that countries in the North African region are converging towards a steady state of the real GDP growth rate per capita. In this respect, the convergence hypothesis is the case in which the country's most excluded from the steady state of economic growth converges more rapidly than the other countries towards the steady state.

Historically, the general increase in prices threatens purchasing power. This situation can contribute to the decrease in demand, which threatens the pace of production. In our study, inflation has a negative and significant effect on economic growth in North African countries. This relationship is explained by the increase in the prices of energy and cosmetic products in the North African region, which weakens demand. According to our result and explanation, we see that it is important for North African countries to control inflation.

According to the academic work it is noted that financial development is a prerequisite among the prerequisites for successful opening of the capital account. Financial development effectively mobilizes external resources to finance investment projects and subsequent economic growth. In developed financial system bank rationally anticipate the risks accompanied by the inflow of short-term capital flows (equities, bonds and bank loans). This operation avoids financial crises Kyriakas (2019) and Neanidis (2019). The interaction between financial integration and financial development strengthens the economic growth of North African countries. The interaction effect is explained by the implementation of strategies for attracting foreign capital flows. These strategies are based on the removal of barriers to private sector credit, the adoption of a flexible exchange rate regime, and the liberalization of financial services. In other words, the financial system of North African countries allocates and mobile external resources. This operation contributes to increased economic growth.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have guided our empirical work to identify the impact of financial integration on economic growth in the North African region. We tested the econometric model on dynamic panel data from a sample of 4 countries belonging to the North African region over the period 1995 to 2017. After the processing of the database by the econometric technique GMM it is concluded that all the results obtained are consistent with the teaching of our theoretical analysis. It is therefore concluded that financial integration and financial development have a positive and significant effect at the 1% threshold. Institutional development and gross fixed capital formation positively affect economic growth. Conversely, for inflation and the previous year's economic growth rate which have a negative and significant impact on economic growth. The positive and significant effect between financial development and capital flows has justified. This relationship is explained by the complementarily between financial integration and financial development. In other words, the capacity of the financial system to mobilize external resources to the private sector and to forecast risks related to international capital flows.

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Simplification and De-Bureaucratization of the Public Pension Service

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Abstract. *Declining demographic trends and the pandemic-triggered economic recess have put significant pressure on public resources. This is why, numerous debates have been stared in the public space regarding the public pension system in Romania, which have included new regulatory proposals, changing the retirement age, calculating or eliminating special pensions. The discussion of the topics above was brought about by forecasts of an increase in the number of retirees over the next ten years, a decrease in size of the active population and the inability of public budgets to provide for the pension system. Therefore, this paper examines public pension services in four European countries to identify and compare the legislative, institutional and procedural systems in order to identify specific elements that could lead to a mitigation of the expected adverse effects. The analysis is based on data available from public sources: the legal framework and the websites of institutions with responsibilities in the field of retirement and pension payment policies in the four countries analyzed.*

Keywords: *electronic services, retirement, public institutions.*

JEL: H83, H55, D73.

1. Introduction

Romanian Constitution, art. 47 sets forth that "Citizens are entitled to pension payment, to paid maternity leave, to medical assistance in state-owned health units, to unemployment benefits and to other forms of public or private social insurance, provided by law. Citizens also have the right to social assistance measures, according to the law".

Pensions are the main source of income for older people in Europe and come mostly from redistributive public schemes[1]. The aging process affects our lives in all its aspects and throughout its duration. Given that the current pandemic remains a challenge and, while we struggle to protect lives and livelihoods, we should also take note of a remarkable development: an unprecedented number of Europeans are very living longer. This is a major achievement, supported by the EU's social market economy (Green Paper on Ageing Fostering solidarity and responsibility between generations).

According to Eurostat[2], in 2019, over one-fifth (20.3%) of the EU-27 population was 65+ years. Consequently, the percentage of the working age population in the EU-27 is declining, while the relative number of pensioners is rising. The share of older people in the total population will increase significantly in the upcoming decades. This, in turn, will increase the burden on the active people in terms of covering the social costs needed for the elderly population for a range of services associated with it. Against this background, a number of measures were proposed at European level aimed at active aging, efficiency, speed and digitization of public pension services which are important for the pension system.

2. Legislative framework on public pension services

In Austria, pension payments are *benefits* and not a social benefit that maintains a standard of living for the population. In addition to old-age pensions, pension payments are also granted to survivors, orphans, for widowhood or work incapacitation.

[1] https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/file_import/european-semester_thematic-factsheet_adequacy-sustainability-pensions_ro.pdf
[2] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Population_structure_and_ageing/ro&oldid=510214

The legal framework includes a series of norms: *Allgemeines Sozialversicherung-sgesetz, ASVG, Gewerbliches Sozialversicherungsgesetz, GSVG Allgemeines Pensionsgesetzgesetz, APG, Freiberufliches-Sozialversicherungsgesetz, FSVG.*

In Spain, beneficiaries of the regular pensions system are the persons who meet the age requirements and the minimum contribution period set forth by law. The pension is conditioned by age and contributions accumulated: at 67 or 65 years old, with 38 years and 6 months of contribution. The minimum contribution period is 15 years.

The legal framework is outlined by:

- *Decree no. 3158/23 December 1966, approving the general regulation determining the amount of economic benefits of the general social security scheme and the conditions to qualify to receive them; Decree no. 2957/ 16 November 1973 on the mutual calculation of contributions in the social security system;*
- Royal Decree no. 1799/2 October 1985 for the application of Law no. 26/ 31 July 1985 on the rationalization of old-age and permanent disability pensions;
- Royal Decree no. /12 April 1991 on the mutual calculation of quotas between social security systems;
- Royal Decree no. 1647/31 October 1997, which elaborates on certain aspects of Law no. 24/15 July 1997, consolidation and rationalization of the social security system;
- Order of 18 January 1967 laying down the rules for the application and amendment of the old-age pension (retirement) under the general social security system.

Estonia has had a relatively steady legislative framework for more than 17 years: the Pension Fund Act of 2004, the Guarantee Fund Act of 2004, the Law on Social Contributions of 2000, the Law on Old Age Pensions under the Favorable Conditions Act since 1992.

In Romania, pensions setting and payment regulations are laid down in Law no. 263 of 16 December 2010 on the unitary public pension system, amended almost every year since its publication. According to art. 1 the right to social insurance is guaranteed by the state and is exercised, under the conditions of this law, through the public pension system and other social insurance rights, hereinafter referred to as the public pension system.

3. Institutional and procedural framework for public retirement services

There are four pension management institutions in Austria – Pensionsversicherungsanstalt (PVA), employee insurance institution, VAEB – social insurance for railways and mining, SVA for business people and SVB for farmers. As in any European state, there are several categories of pensions: old-age pension, early retirement, Korridorpension, Schwerarbeitspension, disability pension, survivor's pensions.

There is an electronic pension management system that records the contributions of all insurance periods. The online service "View pension account" with a qualified certificate (citizen card, mobile phone signature) can be accessed on the Pensionsversicherungsanstalt website and the situation of the pension account can be queried and/or printed independently. Here you will find all the forms required to submit a retirement application. There is also a computer, which depending on the type of pension and the information entered, can simulate the amount of the future pension.

In Spain, the institution in charge is the National Institute of Social Security (INSS) or the Social Institute of the Navy (ISM). The forms required are available online and can be submitted physically or online at any Official Electronic Register of the Single Access Point of the Spanish Public Administration[3]. The documentation can be submitted at any of the information centers and social security services[4]. On the portal of the Ministry of Labor, Migration and Social Security, in the section "Social Security" information on the contacting options is listed. If those interested want *instructions how to fill in the application form*, they can ask for an online appointment with the Support and Information Center.[5]

Online, one can also check the status of the application for retirement and communicate with the entities in charge. The portal of the Ministry of Labor, Migration and Social Security, provides applicants with an online simulation tool to check the amount of pension depending on age, the data and contributions put in up to the time of the simulation.

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[3] https://administracion.gob.es/
[4] http://www.seg-social.es/wps/portal/wss/internet/Pensionistas/Servicios/34887/40968
[5] https://sede.seg-social.gob.es/wps/portal/sede/sede/Ciudadanos/cita%20previa%20para%20 pensiones%20y %20otras %20prestaciones/13cita%

Once the simulation is complete, a report is generated in PDF format for saving or printing. The resolution of the request will be sent by the National Institute of Social Security (INSS) to the domicile of the applicant interested.

In Estonia, the pension system comprises three pillars: the state pension (old-age pension, survivor's pension and national pension), the compulsory pension (directly dependent on the taxpayer's income) and the supplementary pension.

For pension payment registration, an application must be submitted six months before reaching retirement age or within three months of reaching retirement age. A person can find out information about assets accumulated in pension funds by accessing an account available at: https://public.pensionikeskus.ee/public/login.do?locale=en.

The Social Insurance Council (Sotsiaalkindlustusamet) – a government agency – is the institution that manages the pension system. The application for pension entitlement is submitted directly to the Social Insurance Council, by e-mail with electronic signature or can be submitted by mail and the decision on granting the pension is taken within 15 working days from submitting the last requested document.

4. Procedural framework regarding public retirement services in Romania

The retirement procedure in Romania involves a series of stages, specific to each type of pension. For example, the old-age pension implies:

1. Information regarding the date of fulfilling the retirement conditions.
2. Obtaining the necessary documents for retirement.
3. Preparation of the retirement file.
4. Registration of the file at the competent territorial pension house.
5. Receiving the retirement decision.
6. Exercising the option regarding the way of collecting the pension (bank account/postal order).

The retirement file may include civil status documents, evidence of contributions, the latter being an individual effort on the part of the applicant. It would be desirable for the applicant to submit only the application for pension registration, and the civil status documents (birth certificates, marriage, ID) to be able to be accessed, under certain conditions, from a database, also by the specialized staff of the territorial pension house.

From the perspective of digitalization, on the website of the National House of Public Pensions there are forms (in printable version) and general information on the conditions for pensions granting.

Also, there is the possibility to fill in the on-line format of the applications for registration for different categories of pensions, but at the moment, the completed, printed and handwritten forms must also be submitted in person at the territorial pension house.

The data base registers administered by other institutions necessary for the public pension service are:

1. The register of persons managed by the Directorate of Personnel Records and Database Administration.
2. Register of commercial operators ("Trade Register") managed by the National Office of Trade Register.
3. Register of taxpayers or other databases with tax information managed by the National Agency for Fiscal Administration.
4. Register of Insured Persons in the Public Health Social System, registers of medical and health service providers, other databases administered by the National Health Insurance House.
5. Registers of medical and sanitary service units managed by the Ministry of Health.
6. Records of beneficiaries of social assistance payments managed by the National Agency for Payments and Social Inspection.
7. Databases of companies' tax records managed by the National Agency for Fiscal Administration, the Ministry of Public Finance, and/or the National Office of the Trade Register.
8. The databases administered by the Directorate for Social Assistance and Child Protection.

Conclusions

In order to simplify/de-bureaucratize the mechanism for pensions granting in Romania, the following can be considered, using the experiences of the three European countries as benchmarks:

1. Full information on retirement conditions, procedural framework available on a dedicated website.
2. Availability of online forms and submission with electronic signature.
3. Pension calculation calculator/simulator available on the National House of Public Pensions website.
4. Simplifying the procedural steps by accessing the National House of Public Pensions databases managed by other institutions; Thus, the applicant does not have to produce the evidence of the fulfillment of the retirement conditions.
5. Access of databases belonging to the National Agency for Fiscal Administration, the Territorial Labor Inspectorate, the Directorate for Social Assistance and Child Protection.
6. Development of a functionality within the National House of Public Pensions website that allows the submission of retirement decisions and related calculation bulletins to beneficiaries, in electronic format.
7. Creation of a computer application regarding the calculation of deadlines from the early/partial early retirement pension or from the disability pension to the old-age pension.

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European Climate Pact – Framework for Information and Participation of the Public to the Climate Change Challenge

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Abstract. *The EU's response to the climate challenge was expressed in a comprehensive approach, with medium-term objectives of reducing GHG emissions by at least 55% by 2030 and in the long term, achieving climate neutrality in 2050. It comprises the Green Deal (2019, as a programmatic, strategic document), the European climate law (Regulation) (in the adoption procedure, which forms the legal pillar) and the Climate Pact (2020, which is the procedure for consultation, involvement and ownership of the EU's green transition policy). Included in this strategic triple, the Climate Pact is a public policy instrument, a procedure for consultation and public participation in decision-making and, in so doing, a new formula for affirming environmental democracy. With limited legal significance, it is part of the new political-legal instruments that help to create a climate right with a universal and intergenerational vocation.*

Keywords: *Green Deal, climate pact; climate legislation; climate democracy; climate law; public consultation; citizens' convention; eco-climate justice.*

JEL: Q54, K23.

1. Introduction

As part of its new strategy for sustainable growth, enshrined in the Green deal, launched on 11 December 2019 and complementing the climate framework law (under co-decision), the European Commission presented the European Climate Pact on 9 December 2020. Its idea was first set out in the EU's public policy guidelines set out by EC President Ursula von der Leyen in July 2019, which was taken over and developed among the objectives of the Eco-Pact, which was subject to public consultation between March and June 2020, and the final form of the document was approved in December 2020. This is an initiative where citizens, communities and organizations are called upon to participate in building a green Europe by supporting local initiatives, promoting individual and collective actions to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions and adapt to the effects of climate change.

The Climate Pact was launched in a context where the European Council of 10-11 December 2020 had a heavy and somewhat tense agitation in which the problems of new climate ambitions have occupied an important place. Indeed, it has been debated on the very days it was five years since the conclusion of the Paris Agreement (12 December 2015), when the European Union has set itself in the Green Deal as an objective of climate neutrality at the 2050 horizon, the issue of reducing greenhouse gas emissions has been the subject of an agreement between the Heads of State and Government following the already formally expressed attitude of the Commission and the EU Parliament, the Council expressed its support for a more significant reduction than previously envisaged. In particular, it agreed with a "binding target of a net reduction of greenhouse gas emissions in the EU by at least 55% by 2030 compared to 1990". This would also be made mandatory by incorporating it into a European legislative act. In this general context, the European Commission has launched the Climate Pact as a framework for debate, consultation and acceptance of the new climate objectives of the Green Deal and the planned climate law.

2. A tool to promote the Green Pact and the climate law

In a single-European response to the climate and environmental challenge, the European Commission presented its new strategy in a Communication entitled the Green Climate Pact on 11 December 2019 with the formal objective of establishing a "just and inclusive" transition to make Europe a "just and prosperous society", equipped with a modern, resource-efficient and competitive economy, characterized by the absence of net greenhouse gases by 2050 and where economic growth will be decoupled from resource use".

In order to achieve this objective and to affirm the EU as a global leadership in this area, a European law (Regulation) has also been proposed to legally enshrine climate neutrality and become the defining pillar of the entire regulatory framework to be EU climate law.

As part of the European Commission's initiatives to make the fight against climate change "the cause of all", the Pact was conceived as a "space to share information, debate and action on the climate crisis", aimed at disseminating "scientifically sound information on climate action", to provide practical advice and support local initiatives for the mobilization and participation of all. It aims to make the new growth strategy fully understood, to increase its acceptability and to strengthen its adherence to the climate law objectives. After the launch phase, the Pact will focus on four areas of action which primarily concern the authorities: green spaces and mobility, energy-saving buildings and professional skills related to green jobs. The Pact is based on an open mandate and its scope will evolve in line with the ideas and contributions of individuals and organizations participating in its deployment. Each year an event related to this initiative will bring together various participants to present their knowledge and experience.

Its philosophy is to demonstrate that, in the face of climate crisis and resource depletion, there are solutions everywhere that can inspire and stimulate us in relevant new actions by developing pioneering projects in the eco-climate transition and finding practical solutions.

The EU's vision of the Climate Pact is an opportunity for people, communities and organizations to participate in climate action across Europe to better understand climate change, develop and implement solutions and connect with others and maximize the impact of these solutions.

It wishes to contribute to disseminating information, supporting local initiatives and encouraging individuals and communities to engage in climate action, thereby helping to mobilize responsible support and participation.

3. A way of consultation and democratic involvement

The Climate Pact is part of the public consultation and participation procedures and acts for implementing major environmental and climate projects alongside other competences recently developed in the field of green democracy. The new forms of participatory democracy promoted in different countries, aimed at consulting and involving the public in the decision on tackling the climate issue, which are a so-called "climate democracy", raise questions, trigger reflections and already provide some relevant answers. A relevant experience in this regard is the so-called Climate citizens' Convention initiated and carried out in 2020-2021 in France by President Macron as part of a project to strengthen the role of the Economic Council, Social and environmental (EESC) in order to promote new forms of participatory democracy and thus respond to growing mistrust of public authorities. In this regard, questions arise as to whether the committees of citizens who are left to the table can remedy the democratic crisis that we are experiencing and whether it would not be the very principle of universal suffrage that would lead to a disdain for the voters who are likely to worsen further this crisis. The practical analysis of the phenomenon generates aspects that are both relevant and interesting in the French context. Following the "yellow vests" crisis, the great national debate on so many ideologically neutral issues but sufficiently social stakeholders enjoyed real success, reaching a draft organic law promoted in Parliament, It enshrine "the principle of the citizens who are drawn in order to work with the EESC and to have the voice of civil society, between the Parliament and the Executive". The objective of this new consultative body is visible: To link the civil word to the decision-making process by means of good-quality civic deliberation. Therefore, we would be faced with a "political communication act that covers an institutional problem, that is the poor representation of the electoral body in the national Assembly and the obsolescence of the parliamentary power in a regime that has become "presidential". The absence of a real representative counter-power becomes a central topic; two-round majority voting does not allow for greater representativeness. Can citizens' committees be a solution? The response of specialists seems transhant: Civic participation can feed democratic deliberation, but it cannot, under any circumstances, replace it and replace the role of a power of proposal and control to be exercised by Parliament. If people are directly consulted for decision making, it is a referendum, if elections are called upon, the representative democratic system is involved, and if the aim is to probe opinion then the rules of the relevant sociological investigations come into play. "No one can claim that there is no need to find new ways of expressing citizens, but there is no claim that the drawing of lots gives so much democratic legitimacy, hence authority and the right to decide, such as universal voting".

In addition to being seen as a contribution to improving democratic life in France, the experience of the citizens' Climate Convention has also been a "school case" whose lessons are quickly put to use in this plan. It was first placed in an international perspective as a potentially important step in a more global movement. A future World Civic Assembly on Climate is being prepared to gather 1000 people drawn from all five continents; it would continue the French approach and draw up recommendations in the margins of COP-26 in Glasgow in

November 2021. The idea of the organizers, civil society activists and academics is to make the initiative sustainable and permanent so as to become a pillar of global governance, endorsed by the conferences, and to generate more democratic proposals on climate urgency, independently of the official governance of States that "often remain oligarchic and opaque".

As regards the articulation of the new mechanism within the French internal institutional framework, the stake is considered essential. The follow-up to the proposals made in this context remains to be seen, since the literature and practice of deliberative democratic experiences have not dealt with this issue and citizens' assemblies have so far been most often consultative; This was the case when a group of citizens who were drawn up were asked to make recommendations of great moral value – in Ireland, for example, the penalizing of abortion – or political issues – the lowering of the voting age – then put to the referendum. Quite another thing happened at the citizens' climate Convention in France; for the first time, at national level, citizens were asked to go to the end of the process and to draft laws, which have an impact on the whole economy and thus require institutional arbitration. The president's justification, the promise of "no filter" promotion of the proposals that have been made, and the tensions that have arisen on this occasion, show the need for a better articulation of the institutional approach involved. From a legal point of view, the key issue is the legitimacy of this type of assembly; it is necessary to define the areas of responsibility of the various bodies in order to eliminate ambiguity over the consequences. The significance of the initiative for the lawmaking process has re-activated in France the discussions on the subject of a new division of legislative work between the Senate, the national Assembly and a third chamber of citizens drawn to the trapers to act on environmental issues. However, the new experience adds to the arguments for reforming the remit of the Economic, Social and environmental Council (EESC), making it a truly autonomous citizen's chamber free to consult civil society representatives in order to incorporate their recommendations into their own opinions.

4. The legal nature of the Climate Pact. The Pact as a tool for political and strategic planning, with legal significance

In the general sense of "legal vocabulary", the Pact is presented as a species of Convention, a term used in particular in terms of the designation of operations of certain solemnity, by seriously committing the future such as in international relations, or Larrouse's most common „formal agreement between two times more persons; conventions between two States". In the practice of the European Union, the Pact appears to be a more political instrument, but not lacking the legal significance of expressing the commitment of all the stakeholders leading the public and involving the public in the debate, decision-making and implementation of the initiatives on environmental and climate issues. This is all the more so because innovative policies do not work unless the public is fully involved in the development and setting of their objectives; therefore, particular attention is paid to consultations and social acceptability is a condition for success in implementing eco-climate programs and plans. With this in mind, the European Climate Pact was developed and published in December 2020 in addition to the Green Deal and in order to better customize its climate objectives. The document focuses on three ways of empowering citizens to act in this field: Sharing information and developing public inspiration and awareness of the threat and challenges posed by climate change and environmental degradation; creating real and visual spaces to allow ideas and creativity to be expressed and civil capacity to jointly develop ambitious actions, both individually and collectively; identify opportunities to facilitate grassroots initiatives in the fight against climate change and environmental protection. It is therefore a complex instrument for the perception and expression of strategies and policies in new areas, namely climate and the environment (in an inter-related equation), which involves the major involvement of society as a whole, which is of a political nature, but through the agreement thus used and the content gradually promoted under such conditions contributes to the crystallization of certain legal meanings, which will be taken over and expressed as such in real, effective instruments of law. Both compacts formally took the form of European Commission communications and, in this respect, took the legal nature of these, political acts with legal significance prior to the regulatory process, influencing the course and final content of the act.

5. The participatory dimension

As part of the *Green Deal*, the Climate Pact provides a space for all to exchange information, engage in debate and dialog, and public consultation on measures to address the climate crisis, thus becoming part of a growing European movement. The basic idea is that strategies, plans, Policies and legislation to achieve the EU's targets of reducing greenhouse gas emissions in 2030 by at least 55% below 1990 levels and ensuring carbon neutrality in 2050 can only be implemented when everyone is involved and involved active at this. In addition to the creation of online platforms and dialogs with citizens, an open call has been made for individuals and organizations to become ambassadors of the Climate Pact; they should serve as an example of action on this issue, inform, inspire and support climate protection measures in their communities and networks.

In a first phase, opened online on 13 December 2020 from the EC headquarters in Brussels by Vice-President Timmermans, the focus is on issues related to green spaces, green mobility, energy-efficient buildings and environmental skills (training). Through an annual series of events, citizens and organizations involved can share experiences and examples of good practice in their work.

Speaking of this, Frans Timmermans, Executive Vice-President of the European Commission, responsible for the climate issue, said: "The European Climate Pact will unite all those who want to do something for our planet. Through the Pact, we want to give all people in Europe the opportunity to become active and to act at their respective levels, to participate in environmental change and to inspire each other. When it comes to combating climate change, everyone can make a difference and make a difference." The European Climate Pact provides a space for people from all social groups of the network and jointly develop and implement small and large solutions. If we exchange ideas and inspire each other, we can multiply the collective impact of our actions. The Pact is an open and inclusive initiative for climate protection that will develop over time. Regions, local communities, businesses, schools and civil society are invited to exchange information on climate change and environmental degradation and to explain how they address these existential threats. Through an online platform and citizens' dialogs and meetings, the Pact will promote the link between digital and green change. The Pact will help disseminate sound scientific knowledge on climate protection and provide practical recommendations for daily decisions. It will support local initiatives and encourage both individuals and groups to express their commitments and commitments to climate change by mobilizing support and participation.

Firstly, the Pact will prioritize actions focusing on four areas and will provide direct benefits not only to the climate and the environment, but also to the health and well-being of citizens – green spaces, green mobility, energy-efficient buildings and green skills. The Pact's mandate is open and its scope will continue to be developed on the basis of the ideas and contributions of the individuals and organizations that will participate in the Pact. The participants will exchange experience and knowledge at an annual Climate Pact event.

6. National experiences: Austria, Germany, Luxembourg

By stating that in our country the UEB has signed up as ambassador of the European Climate Pact, it proposes us to outline two national experiences relevant in this field: That of Austria, that of some German Länder and Luxembourg, respectively.

5.1. In the context of the Climate Pact, large companies in Austria are voluntarily committed to implementing the climate and energy objectives of the European Union.

More than ever, the climate crisis is one of the most pressing problems has become a central concern of Austrians, calling for visible efforts from the economy to meet the demands of this challenge.

The Ministry of Climate Protection therefore calls on large national companies to seize this opportunity and become part of the effort to achieve the common objective of climate neutrality by 2040. Austria's 2020 climate plan aimed at:

- reduction of greenhouse gas emissions; increase by 20% of the energy efficiency;
- the 34% share of renewable energy sources in total energy consumption and
- 0 share of energy from renewable sources in transport is 10%.

In addition, through the Climate Pact, the Environment Ministry created an alliance of pioneering companies in 2011 and, with the professional support of Austria's largest climate protection network, released models and pioneers for green business. Together, the Pact partners will demonstrate how the economy and ecology can best be reconciled in operational practice and how climate and business benefit equally.

In the first half of the year campaign partners the active Climate Plan 2020 develops detailed concepts of climate protection (individual objectives and measures) with the support of experts; it covers all relevant areas – from increased energy efficiency and use of renewable energy sources to measures in the building and mobility sectors.

In addition to the use of energy efficient technologies (inter alia production process optimization, LED lighting, information technology optimization, energy efficient devices) and comprehensive energy monitoring systems, the construction of photovoltaic systems is envisaged, as well as conversion to district heating and green electricity. Renovations of thermal buildings in line with the highest energy efficiency standards and conversion of vehicle fleets (e.g. electric mobility and the switch to rail) are specific measures set out in the target agreements of the Pact partners. The Commission therefore considered that the measures at issue were not appropriate to address the issue of state aid. The progress of all the partners of the Pact and the achievement of the minimum targets shall be reviewed every year by the Austrian Energy Agency and the Federal Environment Agency.

As part of the Austrian Climate and Energy Strategy, "Mission 30", the partners of the Climate Action Pact intend to continue their efforts to implement their national climate targets. The Federal Ministry will therefore extend the climate pact until 2030. The acceding companies commit to reducing greenhouse gases by at least 50% compared to 2005. The target goes far beyond the national climate protection target of 36%.

5.2. In Germany there are many examples of integrating specialized education projects under the Climate Pact.

Four pillars for developing education for sustainable development. The 15 educational centers participating in the pact for years have been important partners for the state government in education for sustainable development in Hesse. They support environmental schools in Hessia, coordinate regional education networks for sustainable development and implement climate education projects as part of the climate protection plan. They transform complex issues such as biodiversity, climate protection or resource protection into understandable educational opportunities and offer them in schools, crèches, universities and extracurricular events for children, young people and adults. Every year, around 100.000 people take over the services.

“The purpose of the Pact is to further strengthen this supply. To this end, we agreed on four pillars: Continued and increased offers, strengthened networks at national level, common development of quality”, the minister explained. The environment ministry plans to allocate 1,5 million euros for the implementation of the Pact by 2024. Educational centers can then apply for funding each year for the implementation of specific educational projects and events or for conceptual projects.

Environmental centers are satisfied with the new funding, as they give even greater appreciation to important educational activity.

This year's financing projects under the Education Pact for sustainable Development. This year, the Pact will mainly support the development of concepts, because events can only take place to a very limited extent due to the pandemic. The Weilbacher Kiesgruben natural reservation, for example, will develop a bright language educational unit for young people and adults with disabilities. In four lessons, a short film will be used to teach topics such as climate protection and sustainability in an easy-to-understand way. The short-film will be carried out later this year, so that the module can be implemented in workshops for people with disabilities and schools next year.

The Ministry of Patria, local Administration, construction and Equality and the Ministry of Environment, Agriculture, nature and Consumer Protection of North Rhine-Westphalia, together with a broad alliance of professional associations and institutions, launched a “living” climate pact for North Rhine-Westphalia as the most popular federal state in the Federal Republic of Germany. Under the "Prima. Climate. Housing" the signatories agreed to make a joint contribution to climate protection and to reducing CO_2 emissions in buildings, housing and urban development. The agreed cooperation is intended to create new opportunities for sustainable development for residential and urban neighborhoods in the Land.

During the launch event, the co-operation partners agreed to step up efforts to modernize the housing stock, while allowing a social balance in the accessibility of housing. Measures to be followed include, among other things, an even stronger focus on public housing support toward a problematic use of resources, enhanced and cooperative activities of consultation and public relations, models for follow-up and awareness-raising, Developing a model approach for the "green quarter" and developing a national database for accounting energy consumption and CO_2 emissions data.

The Climate Pact for the Munich economy was launched in 2016 with the common goal of saving at least 40.000 tons of CO_2 by the end of 2017. The sustainable and Green City Advisory team identified potential individual savings and coordinated communication measures. On 1 July 2016, a formal signature of the voluntary commitment took place in the exclusive circle of fifteen companies based in the capital of Bavaria. By the end of the project, at the end of 2017, annual saved emissions planning was based on survey and calculation standards used in companies. Regular workshops provided an opportunity to exchange experiences between companies and with the city administration.

The festive closing event on 9 April 2018 marked the end of the first phase of the Munich Economic Climate Pact. Around 150 participants have again considered a successful project. The joint target of reducing CO_2 emissions by 40.000 tons in the project period (2015-2017) has been significantly exceeded, with a combined reduction of 48.831 tons of CO_2.

Companies have implemented climate protection measures in the areas of decentralized and renewable energy supply, energy efficient buildings and production, low-emission mobility and awareness raising of employees.

In autumn 2018, the City council decided to continue the Urban Climate Protection Program 2019-2021 and therefore continue the Climate Pact.

5.3. Luxembourg is committed, both internationally and at European level, to contributing to climate protection:

- greenhouse gases should be reduced by 20% compared to 2005 by 2030;
- the share of renewable energies in final energy consumption is to be increased to 11% (compared to 2005: 0,9%).

The Luxembourg State launched the Climate Change Pact to achieve this national target together with the municipalities.

The Climate Change Pact is an agreement in the form of a commitment between the state and municipalities. The aim of this pact is to provide technical and financial support to municipalities to reduce their energy consumption and greenhouse gas emissions.

Communities have many possibilities to influence electricity and heat consumption in their buildings in order to use energy as efficiently as possible. Energy-efficient devices are already leading to significant energy and cost savings. Another factor that should not be underestimated in terms of energy consumption is energy use: User behavior can affect consumption by up to 20-30%.

Public administrations are the largest employer in Luxembourg and are therefore of great importance in terms of energy saving. They play an important role in the model and can contribute to the awareness of the whole population.

Through the Climate Pact, energy consumption and climate protection have a central position in municipal policy. All decisions, whether at country or transport planning level, in the context of procurement or supply policy, shall be assessed on the basis of sustainable criteria. The Climate change Pact will bring the following benefits to municipalities:

- saving potential: by means of a sustainable and energy-efficient policy, the community saves a lot of energy and therefore a lot of money;
- local added value: By expanding renewable energies (wood chips, pellets, biogas, wind energy, photovoltaic energy; hydropower), the municipality reduces its dependence on foreign conventional energy suppliers (heating oil, oil, imported electricity). Energy expenditure remains largely in the region and is not in the oil stream;
- when using oil or gas, 15% of energy costs remain in Luxembourg, while 75% are borne by the oil states. With renewable energy on the ground, up to 60% of energy expenditure remains in the region;
- local employment: Renovation of housing and buildings, installation, maintenance and operation of renewable energy plants often means orders for local enterprises such as crafts.

Conclusions

Designed as a means of promoting the EU's strategic objectives for the next three decades, in close connection with the Green Deal and the climate law (Regulation), the European Climate Pact is among the new political and legal instruments that have recently been affirmed in single-European practice. By way of example and on a smaller scale, but in the same context as the pandemic health crisis, let us also mention the multilingual online platform launched by the EU at the conference on the future of Europe on 19 April 2021 (9 May 2021). and conceived as a broad popular consultation on the future of the European project in the next decade. From migration, to the environment and climate through digital, economy and "European values", 9 major challenges are subject to public opinion and evaluation, and the conclusions will be taken into account by decision-makers in adopting the documents thus envisaged. In its classic sense, the Pact is a solemn agreement, concluded at a general level, aimed at pursuing sustainable, major and common goals. In terms of climate change and the EU, it has a number of specific significance from the point of view of its specific content. First, it appears as an innovative form of public consultation on the political and strategic implications of the new data of the Community development strategy, its involvement in the decision-making and implementation of the undertaken objectives. One aspect of "green democracy" is also a particular procedure promoted in the light of the constraints generated by the pandemic, which involves accelerating digitization and intensifying the urgency of the environmental crisis. The tacto-climate approach shows the same search and concern for promoting citizen governance that has intensified in recent decades. Finally, as part of the triple Green Pact – climate law – the climate pact interacts and potentiates the related political and legal significance.

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Creative Philanthropy and Smart Cities

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Abstract. *The "creative philanthropy" is more and more present in recent debates and studies, along with models of "charity/ service", "scientific/ philanthropy" or "new scientific" approaches. Belonging rather to the third model, "creative philanthropy" is a basic characteristic of the new philanthropy at the beginning of the 21st century that offers some of the funds to take a different way to help the society. Anheier & Leat (2006) appreciate that "philanthropy is experiencing a crisis due to a lack of awareness about the potential that foundations could have. The ability to overcome this crisis provides the key to reinventing philanthropy as a central institution of modern society". In this context, creative philanthropy becomes a central issue of today's philanthropic foundations. The progress of smart cities is to be added to the issues researched before. Recent field literature offers a numerous example of cities where "philanthropy is integral to progress". This study is a detailed approach of the conjunction/contiguity between creative philanthropy and smart cities, offering arguments and development support for more extensive studies in the future.*

Keywords: *creative philanthropy, smart cities, innovation.*

JEL: D64.

Introduction

In my talk I present the activity of some creative funds and the problems they choose to solve. I argue that such funds can be integrated into the development of tools that will help smart cities to improve the life quality they provide. The creative grants making foundations have the ability to help in defending and developing new approaches to improve life quality in smart cities.

The discussion today is about the connection between two terms: “philanthropy” and “smart cities”, and is especially about the contribution that “creative philanthropy” needs and can add to the well-being of the residents of these cities. I will first define the two terms- creative philanthropy and smart cities. Then, I will suggest a way in which the two terms can be combined for the benefit of the residents in the smart cities.

Until the end of the 19th century, the world has been dominated by three main methods of helping the needy, each method was developed and molded according to the existed understanding of the needs and what is proper to do at that time, and to the purpose’s donors will be willing to donate. During the last century needs changed new approaches and methods had to be developed to meet the updated needs.

The earliest approach that started during the biblical period and lasted until the 19th Is the charitable approach. (Harrison and Andrews 1946; Andrews 1974; Parochaska 1990; LAGEMANN 1999; Smmith 1989; Scealander 1997; Karl and Karal 1999) According to that approach the once that can donate directly or through an organization gave money to the poor. This approach was developed because at that time governments did not gave any or adequately help to those who are unable to help themselves - the poor, the sick, widows, orphans and so on. This help was given primarily from a religious vision of doing good in the eyes of God, so that the donor would have a better life in the next world. Help was given through various religious organizations, groups of the rich, and various associations. According to this method, they gave food and money to the poor. Those who were lucky enough were included in the beneficiary group, the rest needy once were not affected and the general systems did not change. The hope was that the various bodies would help until the government will take on the role of support (Anheier and Toepler 1999).

In the early 20th century, many opponents arose to this approach of “giving fish and not fishing rods” (Bulmer 1995,1999; Nielsen 1985; Karl 1997; Smitt and Borgmann 2001). The opponents advocated an approach that argued that before giving out money the community should investigate the causes of poverty and solve scientifically the causes, once the cause is resolved the problem will disappear. At that period western world was fascinated by the development of science and engineering and was convinced that all problems could be solved by using engineering and or science. With all due respect to that approach and although many governments have also joined the effort to solve the issue of poverty, it has not been resolved and there are still people who cannot take care of themselves and their families.

Additional approaches to philanthropy have developed - strategic philanthropy, venture philanthropy, social investment (Breiteneicher and Marble 2001; Carrington 2002; Emerson 2004; Porter and Kramer 1999; Reis and Clohesy 2001). It is now common to call all of these methods collectively as “new scientific philanthropy”. Those approaches came to the world as the new doners that usually are business owners are used to think in a certain way and they want to see the philanthropic entities managed as businesses, in which everything including overhead cost control, performance and results are measured and reported. Some times the cost of measurement and reporting was more than the donation.

In addition to the new settings during all the time and, in parallel, various charity organizations continue to donate money to the needy-to education, health care, medical research and various religious needs.

In light of the large amount of money transferred to philanthropy recent years, many new funds and charity organizations starts to operate. On top of the philanthropic funds the governments increased involvement in helping the needy, some funds understood that in order to be attractive to the donors they have to be unique, they have to develop an additional approach to using donors' funds, see “Creative Philanthropy” (Halmut K. Anheier, Diana Leat 2006).

As per the approach in the book the world of philanthropic funds or organizations can be split into two gropes: Group A – the big one that will include entities, Charity organizations and funds that raise money every period and spend the money for pre-defined purposes. Group B will include mainly funds that have money or money's worth that allows them to operate over time regardless current donations. Usually, those funds spend each year only up to the profits they get from the money or property they have. Those entities or funds that are free from the constant need of raising donations and form the constant need to please the donors, can and should develop another model of philanthropy. They can be more creative, take bigger risks, they offered the name – “Creative grants making foundations”. These funds need to add additional capacity to the philanthropic world (Anheier and Leat 2002). The funds need to create for themselves a unique role of developing innovated thinking and tools to implement the innovative solutions to problems. They have to try new things which some of them may fail. The tools and ideas that will prove themselves over time can be given to others for duplication.

On December 2018 "The Chronicle of Philanthropy" published a special addition regarding "Philanthropy and City" in which the philanthropic specialists Drew Lindsy Ben Gose, and Allex Daniels described the contribution that local philanthropy made to help the cities Denver, Chattanooga, Columbus and Tulsa. As we will see: the work that the local citizens and local business was important but that it was mainly contribution of money to develop the local services. The proposition in this paper is to use creative philanthropy funds to develop new tools and ways of thinking that will be incorporated in the developing of smart cities the cities that will be included in the projects and other cities that will adopt the solutions.

The topic of smart cities will be discussed at this conference, and for the purpose of my discussion I adopt the definition that was presented at the 6th conference for smart cities in India: "a smart city is a high-tech city that in fact largely includes the most advanced technologies to enable their citizens a better life quality or alternatively a futuristic city that seeks to alleviate obstacles to rapid urbanization. A city that is runed more efficiently by using real-time systems in order to provide good service. I prefer not to go into the definition of "what is better life' or better life to whom" I will leave that questions to be answered by each city citizens.

There are several examples of a smart city that have been originally established as a smart city: Masdar at Abu Dhabi, Songdo in South Korea, IT valley in Portugal. Unfortunately, none of them is a success (*see report at ICACC 2016 in India)* but there are many cities in the world that have adopted various components of smart city to improve city management of energy, transportation, water, Waste, Health, Security and Communication with Citizens (http://bsigroup.com/LoccalFiles/en-GB/smart-cities/resources/BSI-smart-cities-report).

The Ministry of Urban Development of India announced that up to 2023 they will include 100 cities in the program of smart cities. The US Department of Transportation launched on December 2015 the Smart City Challenge asking mid-size cities to develop ideas for an integrated, first-of -its-kind smart transportation system" 78 cities accepted the challenge and submit idקas and willingness to invest.

There are now accepted standards for examining smart cities and for cities thar want to became smart cities, a very well-known standard system is the BSI of the UK.

Different cities have different reasons to why they want to become smart cities and the common reasons are: to improve efficiency in city management, changing the positioning of the city, improving sustainability (Arbes. R and Bethea, C. (2014), promoting economic development and so on.

The literature presents 6 principles in smart city development (Joshi Sujata, Saxena Sakshan, Godbole Tanvi, Shreya, 2016) Social, managerial, economic, legal, technological and sustainability. Once the city management takes into the considerations these factors the development of smart city will succeed.

The importance of smart cities increases greatly if one takes into account that according to a 2012 UN report; about half of the world's population are moving to cities and the urbanization trend is large. Cities in their current state will probably not be able to afford a reasonable standard of living for the growing population (BORJA, J. Counterpoint 2007; Toppeta, D. 2010.).

Creative grants making foundations

In order to discuss later the possible contribution to the smart cities I will represent some Creative funds and the contribution they give to the community they operate in.

Although these are philanthropic foundations it seems that their contribution is not necessarily in the areas of helping the poor but in improving the quality of life of the community and state in which they operate. I will introduce different approaches of innovative philanthropic funds so that we can use them or similar ones to improve the quality of life in smart cities.

The Wallace Foundation

This is a family fundation that was established at 2003 as a result of merging of some smaller funds that the family had. At 2004 they had 1.3 billion US$ and distributed 61 million US$. The foundation currently has 10 board members.

The Wallace Foundation has three objectives:

- Strengthening education leadership to improve student achievement
- Improving after-school learning opportunities; and
- Expanding participation in arts and culture

President's message, Wallace Foundation 2003 said "A single goal unites our work in each area: to foster fundamental improvements not only in places where we make grants but also in places where we do not. We have a single way of working: we invest in both the development of innovative ideas in specific sites, and in the development and spread of knowledge to inform policy and practice, not only in the sites we fund but also in many others beyond our direct reach. And, the real test of our success is whether practitioners and policy makers are persuaded by the evidence of our work to use it without our financial support.

Sample of a Current program

Education Leadership Initiative: State Action for Education Leadership Project – its aim is to strengthen the ability of principals and superintendents to improve student learning, including a major effort to support innovation in the states' laws and practices.

As a result of the fund efforts the following changes have been made: shift from efforts to expand the labour pool of new school principals to a focus on strengthening the ways principals work (based on three labour market studies that firmly contradicted Case studies of the widespread assumption of a nationwide principal shortage); states had established ways of bringing together key constituencies to promote the importance of school leadership and evaluate possible policy options; five states had changed certification requirements; three had revised alternative licensure rules; and three enacted new leadership preparation standards. These changes are one example of the way in which a foundation-supported learning has had a significant impact both on grantees and more widely.

I will not list all the changes that this foundation has initiated and implemented but we have received a clear example of the contribution that such a foundation together with the community can make in identify a problem and find solutions in order to promoting the community.

The Rosenberg Foundation

Max Rosenberg, a San Francisco businessman and philanthropist, died at 1931 and left the bulk of his estate to establish a foundation with broad charitable purposes.

In the year 2003 they had assists of about 60 million US$ and gave about 3 million US$ as grants.

Max Rosenberg gave a list of purposes the foundation might pursue, mainly oriented towards social justice and the “conditions of the working man”.

The foundation’s early grants were concentrated in the fields of public health, intergroup relations, education and community planning. In each of these fields the foundation had a particular interest in applications to rural California and the wellbeing of children in the state.

The foundation is recognized for its influential policy work on behalf of immigrants and minority communities. “Rosenberg’s work on immigration policy began in the 1980s, when it supported background and public education work leading to the passage of the US Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) of 1986. The act provided opportunities for millions of undocumented immigrants to legalize their status and begin the process of naturalization. Through its networking and grantmaking, Rosenberg helped build a coalition of community groups, churches, employers and unions to help immigrants take advantage of this onetime opportunity” (Siska and Lamb 2003). In the 1990s, Rosenberg supported a successful legal battle to overturn California Proposition 187, which prohibited state public health and education providers from serving undocumented immigrants, and later an effort to prevent withdrawal of welfare benefits. “Through its work, more than 50,000 people were able to obtain US citizenship and protect their welfare benefits” (Siska and Lamb 2003). In 2003, the Rosenberg Foundation was one of three foundations that received the Paul Ylvisaker Award for Public Policy Engagement of the Council on Foundations.

Drivers of a Creative Approach in the fund

In interview, the foundation’s current President attributes its adoption of a creative approach to five key factors:

- “Being the only game in town” when the foundation was started meant that there was no dominant model of how foundations work and, at the same time, lots of proposals and ideas coming through.
- The fact that the foundation began during the Depression, which heightened awareness of the nature and roots of poverty, especially in rural areas.
- Having a diverse board with a few strong personalities willing to take risks.
- Having a board made up of people who had the confidence to act creatively, and who did not feel that their personal positions were threatened by doing so.

- The recruitment of energetic staff who went out to look at projects and conditions, practicing "philanthropy as an interactive art".

The Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust

This creative fund is active in the UK, donates out its profits about 5 million pound every year. Unlike the other funds it is involved in the national politics in promoting: human rights, freedom of information, fighting racism, strengthening underprivileged communities. The fund is also unique by using its investments in stocks to promote ethic "Trustees are advised by the Ethical Investment Research Service (EIRIS) on companies in the portfolio or being considered for it. … If a company in which the trust has investments fails to fulfil its ethical criteria then the trust writes to tell them why it is withdrawing and, in some circumstances, might make that public."

The trust's current aim is 'to show that, with Trustees and staff working together, a foundation like JRCT can stay at the forefront of creativity and innovation, can continue to take risks in tackling difficult and contentious issues, and can be a challenge to the status quo... [and] continue to be a powerhouse for social change to create a fairer and more just world' (Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust 2000–02: p. 5).

The trust describes the policy underlying its racial justice program as follows: "The Racial Justice program supports projects and individuals working to: promote issues of racial justice with policy shapers, decision makers and opinion 110 Case studies of creative philanthropy formers; empower black and ethnic minority people to contribute to policy development; challenge racism and racial injustice and promote communication and co-operation between different racial groups. The Trust seeks to encourage work aimed at furthering its objectives in the European Union (EU) as well as in the UK" (Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust 2000–02: p. 24).

A study regarding the fund concludes that 'by investing a comparatively small sum of money in the right place at the right time, the JRCT influenced policy debate.

This foundation is an interesting example of how a relatively small philanthropic fund has taken up the issue of promoting the quality of life in the underprivileged community of minorities by improving social justice, promoting understanding and recognizing interracial racial issues together with the community creatively in the region, country and beyond.

The Victorian Women's Trust

This is a complete different creative philanthropic fund. This is a fund that is located at Victoria in Australia and its moto is mainly to make a difference in women's lives: the vision is of a "just and humane society in which women enjoy full participation as citizens, free of poverty, discrimination and disadvantage". (www.vwt.org.au).

On top of that different vision the fund was created by the government of Victoria to marked the 150th anniversary of British settlement in the region that later became Victoria, and was a gift to the women of Victoria in recognition of their role in the founding and development of the state. The gift of 1 million AS$ was a nice act but it is not enough to enable them to do the activity they think is there mission. So, on top of the income from that amount they have to raise money, they collect membership fees, get individual donations, and grants from other foundations, and even from the government. Despite the financial pressures the fund is doing many activities and is leading processes that are changing the country. Out of all the projects I will mention only one that was published under the name "The Purple Sage Project".

The project was a response to "a widening gap between rich and poor, continued high unemployment, reduced standards of community service, increased strain on local communities... the loss of public assets, racism and social tension, and a serious erosion of our democratic rights and culture." (Victorian Women's Trust 2000: p. 5).

Using a system that is similar to round tables they set up thousands of groups across the country, groups discussing issues that concern the public. The process made people talk to each other and show them that the problems are not personal, they are general ones. The groups came up with ideas and prepared detailed working papers. The documents were compiled and the conclusions were refined and published publicly. The publication created expectations for change and in the elections that followed the publication, the government fell. There were claims that the post had a part of the fall.

Helped to defined correctly the problems and offered solutions.

Gave hope to improve immigrant's life quality by pushing to change state laws, helped to create community coalition to enable the application of the laws.

Fight national wide and abroad to improve life quality of underprivilege people by using national politicians. Promote women rights.

Fight national wide and abroad to improve life quality of underprivilege people by using national politicians. Promote women rights.

Conclusions

The accelerated process of urbanization as seen in practice and as reflected in UN reports requires city administrators to change the form of city management, by using advanced computing technologies to improve the physical system of cities and to become smart cities. Countries have understood the challenge, different countries are working to promote hundreds of existing cities to smart cities.

As a result of physical location, economic ability, image composition, vision, etc. the challenge is complex, the needs in the different cities are not the same.

Establishing new smart cities from scratch is a very big challenge that requires an investment that does not seem to be possible to raise.

Existing city managers are interested in improving the quality of life in cities by investing in existing technology, the decision on the directions of development is often random depend on the aspirations of the politician's aspirations or depending on the city economic capacity or he quality of the technology salesman.

The physical issues are handled by engineers and economists, they are very similar in the different cities. The issue of treating a weakened population is very different from the issue of dealing with the physical issues.

Questions like which problem solve, how to solve the problems, how to make the solutions accessible by the users, how to convince the residents to use the tools, are questions that have the most complex answers. In most cases the city administrations know how to operate the systems but not necessarily define new systems. The tool that exists today in many countries – Creative grants making foundations is a tool that has the money, knowledge and experience to mobilize the community to define social problems and develop solutions. Those funds have the ability to distill the solutions so that the ideas can be transferred from one city to another while making the necessary adjustments. I suggest to the city managements to turn to collaborations that will give the funds the uniqueness and impact on the quality of life in the future city and improve the quality of life as the city managers want.

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The Effect of Brand Reputation on Emotional Attachment of Public Universities in Nigeria

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Abstract. *This study examined the extent to which brand reputation can affect the emotional attachment of post-graduate students in public federal universities in south-south Nigeria. The population of this study is drawn from postgraduate students from four federal universities in South-south namely; University of Port Harcourt, University of Calabar, University of Benin and University of Uyo. These schools have a population of 34, 984 postgraduate students. The sample size was determined through the use of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table. For a finite population of 34,984, a sample of 379 was derived. Simple regression was used in testing the stated null hypotheses. The results from the test of hypotheses revealed that brand reputation significantly has effect on the affection, satisfaction and passion of post graduate students. The study further recommended conscious actions towards ensuring that marketing department in these schools are carried along in brand policy development.*

Keywords: *brand reputation, affection, satisfaction, passion, universities, south-south.*

JEL: L14.

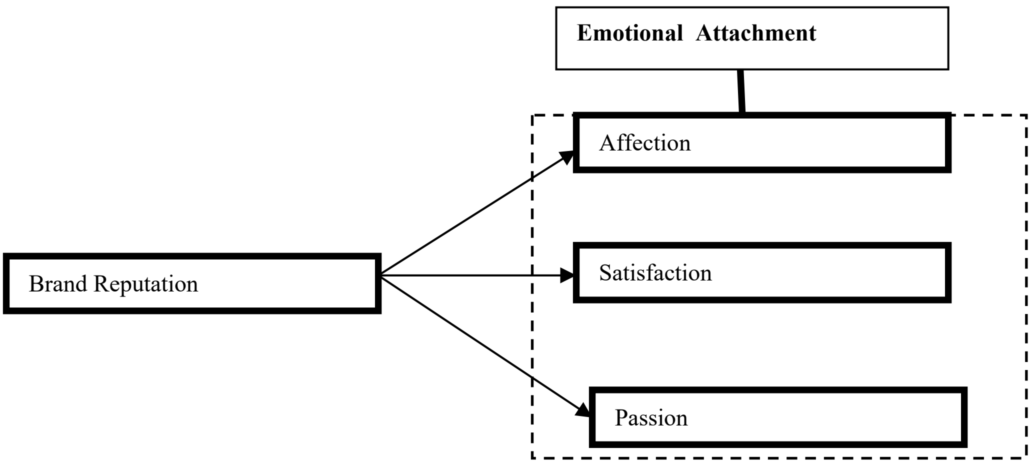
Introduction

All over the world, tertiary education has become a major concern for government, citizens and other stakeholders (Akunyili, 2010). According to Schiffman (2005), tertiary education influences economic well-being in three ways which are; influence from direct expenditures by the institutions, their employees and their students which impact the local economy. The second influence is that higher education provides financial and non-financial benefits to the individual who pursues an advanced education and to society in general. Lastly, institutions of higher education are increasingly focused on knowledge creation. With such knowledge, competition is intensified all over the globe as every institution wants to be ranked highly by several corporate ranking bodies. These bodies such as Quacquarelli Symonds (QS), Times Higher Education (THE), and a host of others presents statistics each year to show the global position of institutions of higher learning.

In a recent publication by Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) world university ranking, a list of some of the top ranking universities were published and these top universities were located in countries like United States, United Kingdom, Switzerland, Singapore, China, Japan, Australia and Hong Kong (QS, 2019). The result further showed that the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) topped the list for the seventh time. Some of the indicators used in this judgment include academic reputation, employer reputation, faculty/student ratio, citations per faculty, e-learning facilities, exchange and linkage programs, international faculty ratio as well as international student ratio.

Furthermore, Times Higher Education (THE) have ranked five (5) best universities in Africa 2019 and they include; University of Cape town, the second is University of Witwatersrand, third is Stellenbosch University, fourth is University of Kwazulu-Natal (all in South Africa) while the fifth is Makerere University in Uganda (THE, 2019). However, according to world ranking, these universities were ranked between 156th to 600th positions (THE, 2019). The Nigerian Universities that made the sixth position in Africa were Covenant University which happens to be a private university and University of Ibadan (THE, 2019). However, these Universities had world ranking of 601st to 800th position respectively. The university of Nigeria which was ranked one of the 30th University in Africa was ranked the 1001st in the world (THE, 2019). This shows the extent to which our higher education is undervalued in the committee of universities worldwide. The question often arises such as "what possible strategy have these universities adopted that has made them so renown and have taken top rank in the world?" Universities and other higher education institutions are increasingly using their distinctiveness to compete for the brightest students, academic and professional staff at local and international levels. At the same time, they adopt a business-like competitive model to meet with the demands of future generations.

Figure 1. *Conceptual Framework*



Research Hypotheses

H0$_1$ Brand reputation does not bring about affection in public tertiary institutions in South-South, Nigeria.

H0$_2$ Brand reputation does not bring about satisfaction in public tertiary institutions in South-South, Nigeria.

H0$_3$ Brand reputation does not bring about passion in public tertiary institutions in South-South, Nigeria.

Theoretical Framework

Brand Equity Theory

Brand equity theory postulates that a firm can generate premium value from a product/service with a recognizable name when compared to a generic equivalent (Davcik, 2013). Companies can create brand equity for their products and services by making them memorable, easily recognizable, and superior in quality and reliability. A brand is not a mere name for a product. Rather, a brand is a supplier's guarantee that it will continuously and consistently deliver on its promises, including promises explicitly or implicitly made on tangible features, specific quality thresholds, and benefits and convenience to the consumer (Choi and Coughlan, 2006). A brand signals to the consumer the source of the product and should act in a manner that protects consumers and producers from competitors who attempt to provide identical products (Davcik, 2013). In other words, a brand has to help in product differentiation when stakeholders have asymmetric information about its quality and performance as well as in providing product loyalty mechanisms against new entrants in the market (Schiffman, 2005). A modern approach to branding includes a comprehensive list of elements that overlap traditional understandings of the brand concept and includes not only distinguishable tangible product-related features, differentiation by name, color, or any other visible characteristics, but also intangibles, such as utility expectations or consumer subjectivism. Contemporary paradigms on branding issues and scholarly thought have focused mostly on consumer attitudes, loyalty, perceptions, etc., as well as on organizational marketing investments in a brand.

Authors like Quiston (2004) have thoroughly disagreed with the revenue premium concept and have suggested that there may be a potentially positive outcome for pioneering brands if they are to establish a new brand category. They later demonstrated that customer equity is a measure of brand value, and should therefore not be misinterpreted as an independent equity measure, but say nothing about how this is related to firm performance. Souiden, Kassim, & Hong, (2006) also suggest new avenues for future research that focus on brand value formation and separation from the brand equity construct. Brand value represents the sale or replacement price of a brand and depending on whoever owns the brand this value differs. Customer equity is also a partial measure of brand value, and thus should not be considered as an independent equity construct (in comparison to other equity approaches). All of these themes are open questions that deserve careful scrutiny in future research programs, which will certainly contribute to their much needed clarification.

The implication is that a company with a high brand equity will drive higher emotional attachment for the brand including, emotional attachment of investors to the brand. Hence, corporate brand strategy development should consider the brand equity valuation of the company or product and service brands (Kotler, 1991). In developing and executing corporate brand strategy, the value of the brand from the customer experience and all other stakeholders is important. Organizations should build better brand value to drive stakeholder positive experience. In development of corporate brand strategy for better customer emotional connection, building strong brand equity is imperative, the business community is always connected to brands with high value.

Brand Reputation

Brand reputation is the aggregate perception of outsiders on the salient characteristics of organizations (Fombrun and Rindova, 2000). The development of brand reputation means more than keeping consumers satisfied, it is something a company earns over time and refers to how various audiences evaluate the brand. Companies and brands with a good reputation are likely to attract more customers and a brand will lose its positive reputation – and eventually develop a negative reputation – if it repeatedly fails to fulfill its stated intentions or marketing signals (Milewicz and Herbig, 1994).

The various audiences recognize brands as independent market organisms. Consumers perceive them as characters, while both managers and the environment sustain them. For example, research indicates that consumers can think of brands as if they are celebrities, or as if they have a character of their own (Bird, Channon & Ehrenberg, 1970). In this respect, it is an output of the brand identity that the company proposes, the promises the company makes and the extent that consumers experience the offer that the company promises. The management of the brand reputation is continual. The brand name and the brand image, and as a consequence its reputation will be managed over the brand’s life, via the selection of a brand expression, its introduction in the market and its further expansion, defense and enforcement over time (Park et al., 2006).

Reputation is one of the primary contributors to perceived quality of the products carrying the brand name. Consumers expect that products manufactured today have a similar quality as products manufactured in the past, since the brand is adding credibility (Milewicz and Herbig,1994). Individuals form positive views only for the brands they perceive credible. They assess the incomplete brand information collected overtime and companies in order to secure the development of a sound reputation have to tried to project consistent messages. It is not easy to drastically alter a brand's reputation over a short period of time. People tend to classify brands in categories and have a specific opinion on these categories. In addition, there is always a time lag effect, which is expected to influence the future opinion that consumers form on the brand. The brand's current reputation will influence the prediction for its actions. Customers anticipate a brand will meet their expectations, formed by its existing reputation. In this respect, the market expects consistency from the brand, both in terms of its projected identity and the support of this identity. Mixed signaling (saying one thing and doing another) damages reputation. Customers will not perceive a brand as reliable and credible when it does not deliver what it promises (Herbig and Milewicz, 1995).

Concept of Emotional Attachment

The pioneering work on emotional attachment was conducted by Bowlby (1951) in the realm of parent-infant relationships. Bowlby (1979) proposed that human infants are born with a repertoire of (attachment) behaviors designed by evolution to assure proximity to supportive others (attachment figures). This proximity provides a means of securing protection from physical and psychological threats. It also promotes affect regulation and healthy exploration. According to Ball& Tasaki (1992), the desire to make strong emotional attachments to particular others serves a basic human need, beginning from a child's attachment to his/her mother (Bowlby 1979) and continuing through the adult stage with romantic relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), kinships, and friendships (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000).

Defining attachment as an emotion-laden, target-specific bond between a person and a specific object that varies in strength, Bowlby (1979) sought to understand the adverse influences of inadequate maternal care during early childhood on personality development (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). A primary conclusion from Bowlby's (1951 & 1979) pioneering work was that early patterns of interaction between a child and his/her primary caregiver result in the development of different attachment styles (secure, anxious-ambivalent, avoidant). These styles, once developed, impact future relationships. To illustrate, Zamanou, et al (1994) found that adults with a secure attachment style had more balanced, complex, and coherent self-structures compared with those with insecure attachment style.

Methodology

In this study, the research design adopted was quasi-experimental research design. The population of this study is drawn from postgraduate students from four federal universities in South-south namely; University of Port Harcourt, University of Calabar, University of Benin and University of Uyo. These schools have a population of 34, 984 postgraduate students. The choice of these institutions is firstly because they are federal universities with higher allocation unlike state universities secondly, because these universities are the only federal universities that offer postgraduate programs. This data was gotten from school website and direct interaction with post graduate admission office of these universities. For this study, the sample size was determined through the use of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table. For a finite population of 34,984, a sample of 379 was derived. Simple regression was used in testing the stated null hypotheses.

Data Analyes and Findings

$H0_1$ Brand reputation does not bring about affection in public tertiary institutions in South-South, Nigeria.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.615[a]	.378	.376	2.205

a. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND_REPUTATION

In testing for the cause effect relationship amongst our study variable in hypothesis seven, we realized a regression coefficient of 0.615 which is significant, we also realized a coefficient of determinant of 0.378 which implies that the outcome of our predictor variable "brand reputation" affects the outcome "affection" by 37.8%.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	897.138	1	897.138	184.582	.000[b]
	Residual	1477.555	304	4.860		
	Total	2374.693	305			

a. Dependent Variable: AFFECTION

b. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND_REPUTATION

Our ANOVA table also reveals a p-value of 0.000 which is less than alpha of 0.05 along side an f-value of 184.582. This indicates that our predictor variable can significantly bring about the outcome of our criterion variable.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	8.550	.630		13.575	.000
	BRAND_REPUTATION	.500	.037	.615	13.586	.000

a. Dependent Variable: AFFECTION

From of coefficient table, we also confirm the regression coefficient of 0.615 as seen in the model summary as well as a p-value of 0.000 which is less than alpha of 0.05. we therefore reject the stated null hypothesis and accept the alternate.

$H0_2$ Brand reputation does not bring about satisfaction in public tertiary institutions in South-South, Nigeria.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.518[a]	.268	.266	2.290

a. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND_REPUTATION

In testing for the cause effect relationship amongst our study variable in hypothesis eight, we realized a regression coefficient of 0.518 which is significant, we also realized a coefficient of determinant of 0.268 which implies that the outcome of our predictor variable "brand reputation" affects the outcome "satisfaction" by 26.8%.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	583.381	1	583.381	111.256	.000[b]
	Residual	1594.057	304	5.244		
	Total	2177.438	305			

a. Dependent Variable: SATISFACTION

b. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND_REPUTATION

Our ANOVA table also reveals a p-value of 0.000 which is less than alpha of 0.05 alongside an f-value of 111.256 this indicates that our predictor variable can significantly bring about the outcome of our criterion variable.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.442	.654		15.960	.000
	BRAND_REPUTATION	.403	.038	.518	10.548	.000

a. Dependent Variable: SATISFACTION

From of coefficient table, we also confirm the regression coefficient of 0.518 as seen in the model summary as well as a p-value of 0.000 which is less than alpha of 0.05. We therefore reject the stated null hypothesis and accept the alternate.

$H0_3$ Brand reputation does not bring about passion in public tertiary institutions in South-South, Nigeria.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.654[a]	.428	.426	3.556

a. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND_REPUTATION

In testing for the cause effect relationship amongst our study variable in hypothesis nine, we realized a regression coefficient of 0.654 which is significant, we also realized a coefficient of determinant of 0.428 which implies that the outcome of our predictor variable "brand reputation" affects the outcome "passion" by 42.8%.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2877.438	1	2877.438	227.499	.000[b]
	Residual	3845.032	304	12.648		
	Total	6722.471	305			

a. Dependent Variable: PASSSION

b. Predictors: (Constant), BRAND_REPUTATION

Our ANOVA table also reveals a p-value of 0.000 which is less than alpha of 0.05 alongside an f-value of 227.499 this indicates that our predictor variable can significantly bring about the outcome of our criterion variable.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15.828	1.016		15.577	.000
	BRAND_REPUTATION	.896	.059	.654	15.083	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PASSSION

From of coefficient table, we also confirm the regression coefficient of 0.654 as seen in the model summary as well as a p-value of 0.000 which is less than alpha of 0.05. We therefore reject the stated null hypothesis and accept the alternate.

Discussion of Findings

The findings indicates that Brand reputation have a significant effect on both affection, satisfaction and passion of customers of these universities. These test of hypotheses revealed regression coefficients of 0.615, 0.518 and 0.654 respectively. It also revealed a coefficient of determinant (r square) of 0.378, 0.268 and 0.428 respectively. All these tested hypotheses had p-values less than alpha (α) of 0.05. This made us reject the stated null hypotheses revealing that brand reputation has significant effect on both affection, satisfaction and passion of post graduate students.

Conclusion

In conclusion the study had revealed that brand reputation by universities can be a catalyst for achieveing affection, satisfaction and passion from its post graduate students. Moreover, customers view on these branding strategies as they are implied in universities were awesome. An unprecedented majority of the respondents had adequate knowledge of these resultant effects of brand reputation. Although some respondents acknowledged that branding is about logo, service quality, pricing, coverage image, signage and slogan. A whopping majority seem this as combination of all the above. In conclusion the present study was conducted to determine the effect of corporate brand strategies on customer emotional attachment of universities in South-South Nigeria. The study had discovered that universities deploy brand reputation to create awareness of their products and services as well as gain customers emotional attachment.

Recommendations

- University management should ensure that the marketing department is effectively utilized. There is no way one would talk about branding without mentioning the custodians of branding domiciled within marketing department. The school administration should also make a conscious effort in visiting the department of marketing to obtain more ideas on several areas that corporate branding can bring about the emotional attachment of customers.
- In setting up committees within the university, at least a representative member from the department of marketing should be nominated because while other members are making suggestions along the line of operation, the marketer present would raise concerns and contributions on customers reception to committee outcomes.

- University management should ensure that its reputation is protected in all their activities ranging from academic to non-academic. They should understand that whatever is being done within the university signals information to people far and wide and this can make or destroy the institution.

In setting up committees, competent people should be appointed so that whatever be the outcome of their decision would add value to the university.

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Service Delivery and Accountable Governance in Urban Zimbabwe: the Issue of Policy Implementation

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Abstract. *The role of urban local government in Zimbabwe in producing public goods and services such as water supply, solid waste management, primary health care, road construction and maintenance and others is beyond contest. In generating these services that ordinary urbanites cannot do without, urban local government has become not only a frontline service provider but an indispensable subnational government playing a crucial role in improving the quality of human life. Yet, service delivery is seemingly characterised by chronic backlog that appears to suggest that urban councils are not dispensing their duties as well as they should but that they are also failing to meet the expectations of communities in their jurisdictions. The explanations for the policy failures include the inability to collect revenue due a municipality, notable legislative weaknesses, and possibly inter and intra political friction impacting urban service delivery. With the assistance of a hypothetical process model, the article focuses on the lack of implementation capacity or the inability to implement policy as one of the major reasons that is often overlooked or ignored when explaining policy failure at the local sphere of urban government.*

Keywords: *Service Delivery, Accountable Governance, Policy Implementation, National Development Strategy 1, Vision 2030, Urban Zimbabwe.*

JEL: Z18, D73.

1. Introduction

Extending service delivery to communities is the most important measure of assessing the contribution of urban local government to creating a better life for all residing in urban areas. As the government closest to citizens, the expectation is that a core function of urban local government (along with rural local government) is the facilitation of basic services to the community. In that vantage position, local government works with groups and citizens within communities to meet their material, economic and social needs and improve the quality of their lives. The other two spheres of government, national government and provincial and metropolitan councils are not comparatively in physical proximity to the people. Using information about local public goods and services in their voting decisions, the electorate can either punish or reward aspiring councillors and those who wish to be retained as ward councillors. Some countries with three-tier models of governmental arrangements have begun to question whether it is still optimal for achieving responsiveness, public participation and efficiency.

In this regard, for example, South Africa's ruling African National Congress (ANC) has begun to review the cooperative mode of government comprised of national government, provincial government and local government that has been in operation in South Africa since 1994 (Mokoena, 2011). In its summit on Provincial and Local Government held between 2-4 December 2010 at Gallagher Estate in Midrand (South Africa), the ANC spent three days reviewing South Africa's provincial and local government policy. The summit initiated public debate on the changes required to government structures to enhance service delivery. In particular, the Summit extensively discussed the proposition to abolish provinces and only have a two-tier system of government comprising national government and local government (ANC 2010:2). The discussion hinged on the argument that the more layers of government there are, coupled with an unclear division of functional responsibilities, the greater the complexity that must be coordinated, is likely to have a retarding effect on service delivery. Although a decision on the fate of provinces was deferred, eleven years after the Midrand Summit, the debate about how government should be organised in South Africa rages on with majority indications seemingly suggesting a skew towards greater public acceptance of capacitating local government to be more involved in local service delivery.

The 2013 Constitution of Zimbabwe accepted a three tier system of government comprising national government, provincial and metropolitan councils and local government (divided into rural and urban councils). Provincial and metropolitan councils are still to be established, with the governing Zimbabwe African National

Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) party appearing to be questioning the contribution of provincial councils and metropolitan councils to local service delivery. Before all three systems of government were constitutionalised, the performance of provincial social delivery was chequered at best and very limited in some instances (Marumahoko & Fessha, 2011). Besides the developmental role of provinces was unclear if not contested, it was also intimated that many provincial functions could be better performed at national or local levels. A two-tier system of government, releases massive public resources for reallocation to local government.

Even as its relationship with the lower sphere of government is characterised by animosity, national government in Zimbabwe is seemingly supporting the goals of improved urban service delivery through investment in service infrastructure, law reform, assignment of functional responsibilities and support of administrative systems and processes. However, the interventions do not appear to be facilitating much desired progress and breakthrough given that for the most part, urban municipalities are not functioning in accordance with their original founding objectives, resulting in rampant inefficiencies. The rate of basic service delivery has not proceeded at the desired accelerated pace. This is concerning, coming as it does against the announcement by national government on 16 November 2020 of a new five-year medium term policy, the National Development Strategy 1 (NDS1) whose success seemingly depends on the efficacy, ability and capability of decentralised local government to meet its targets. The NDS1 replaces the Transitional Stabilisation Programme which ran from 2018 to end of 2020.

Essentially, the NDS1 tasks local government the objective of realising goals set by government to make Zimbabwe an upper-middle income country by 2030. In this regard, NDS1 contributes to the realisation of Vision 2030. Improved service delivery is at the centre of the fulfilment of governmental targets (Marumahoko, 2020a). Importantly, owing to unpresented rural-to-urban migration, urban local government has the unenviable task of facilitating increased access to services such as tap water, educational schools, health care centres, navigable roads and other social amenities associated with improved quality of life. The question remains whether government will be able to realise its goals against the backdrop of urban local government that is seemingly unable to provide the necessary infrastructure within which people can find a good life as well as an environment conducive to individual growth and development.

The article engages the ability or inability of urban local government to provide public services of a local nature. In this regard, therefore, it assesses the structures to determine whether inefficiencies have only resulted due to deviations and anomalies in the implementations process or whether they are actually due to structural problems. Importantly, the article situates urban local service delivery within the framework of a hypothetical process model for the implementation of policies and programmes for service delivery. In doing so, the article, without diminishing the role of other factors, attributes dearth of service delivery to the lack of implementation capacity or the inability to implement policy.

2. Theoretical framework and organisation of the article

Drawing from goal setting theory, the article argues that there is a link between clearly identified goals, implementation and performance. The theory is associated with Locke who derived his inspiration from Aristotle. Goal setting theory stipulates that specific and challenging goals lead to higher level of performance than do the generalized goals (Ajulor, 2018; Swann, 2021). Encapsulated in the development of policy is the issue of translating decisions on service delivery into services that are consumed by urbanites. Policy implementation is an important factor in the equation of policy execution. In addressing issues such as how implementation will be facilitated, the level of public involvement and participation by other key stakeholders, consideration of resources required to translate decisions into tangible benefits and the level of intergovernmental coordination and synchronisation required, the context of goals will give direction and focus to urban local government on the one hand and the local bureaucrats who constitute the policy implementers on the other.

The article is organised as follows. After the introduction, it briefly engages on the subject of urban service delivery in 2021, the idea being to gauge the proficiency of urban government. Furthermore, it is the intention of the article to provide insight into the pressing challenges urban local government has to surmount in its quest to be efficient and effective in the generation and distribution of local public services. Thereafter, the article engages on the options for urban service delivery. The essence of this is to encourage debate on additional strategies to those already in place to facilitate and realise urban service delivery. Following this, the article discusses the role of implementation in urban service delivery.

The assessment of the role of urban local government in service delivery is facilitated in the context of national government's newly introduced policy called National Development Strategy 1 (NDS1) in which urban local government is anticipated to play a major role towards the realisation of Vision 2030. Following this, the article applies a hypothetical model associated with Roux (2005) and others to shed light on the basic characteristics of a well-designed programme on the practice of implementation in ensuring that essential services are generated and distributed in line with initially stated objectives. The article then presents its concluding remarks.

3. Snippets of urban service delivery in 2021

The most recent events in Zimbabwe have highlighted a number of critical challenges facing urban municipalities. With the World Health Organisation announcing the first case of Covid 19 in Zimbabwe towards the end of March 2020, and the Zimbabwe government immediately decreeing a national lockdown to mitigate the impact of the respiratory disease, the knock on effect on urban service delivery was instantly felt. With much of the economy shut down and movement of people severely limited, very few service consumers came forward to settle what they owed urban municipalities for services rendered (Bulawayo 24 News, 2021). The little revenue being collected was channelled towards efforts to contain the deadly respiratory disease. Without a steady stream of revenue, the quality and frequency of service delivery noticeably plummeted. The decline expressed itself through infrequent water supply, inadequate solid waste management, dilapidated road network and failing health care infrastructure, among other issues (Marumahoko, 2020a; Marumahoko, 2020b). Zimbabwe is currently grappling with the second wave of the pandemic which is characterised by a deadly new strand that is proving difficult to contain (Centre for Innovation and Technology, 2021). It is now over a year since urban government has been enduring the burden of generating services against limited financial resources (Marumahoko et al., 2020).

Aggravating the already fragile state of service delivery is that on 1 January 2021, most urban councils experienced a reversal of progress in service delivery when Cyclone Chalane, a severe tropical storm that made landfall in Madagascar and Mozambique before it entered Zimbabwe as a tropical depression, brought heavy rains and bursts of strong winds to Zimbabwe (Munengwa, 2021). It destroyed infrastructure such as clinics, schools and houses, especially in urban centres along the Eastern Highlands of Zimbabwe. Even towns and cities not in the eye of the cyclone were considerably impacted owing to the huge amounts of rainwater dumped. Noticeably, it inflicted considerable damage on the road infrastructure within cities and towns, making them untrafficable and amplifying the crisis of so-called pot-holed roads.

Even though the degeneration of the urban road system was in this case largely associated with a weather phenomenon, this crucial element of failing urban service delivery was immediately politicised, with national government which is dominated by the ruling Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) blaming the opposition Movement for Democratic Change- Alliance (MDC-A) dominated urban councils for service delivery slippages. On 10 February 2021, national government, ostensibly seeking to benefit from the crisis, declared the state of the country's roads a natural disaster paving the way for it to take over rehabilitation of urban roads (Zimeye, 2021).

In the first quarter of 2021, the national spotlight was shown on yet another aspect of failing urban government policy-the proliferation of dysfunctional and irregular settlements built without following spatial planning protocols, rules and regulations. Within the Harare Metropolitan area which comprise the City of Harare, Chitungwiza Municipality, Epworth Local Board, Ruwa Local Board and Norton Town Council, thousands of houses built illegally on State land, municipal land, wet lands, river banks and other undesignated places, often without environmental impact assessment were identified for demolition. In Budiriro 5, a suburb within Harare, 196 houses built without proper planning and approval were demolished (Matsengarwodzi, 2021).

Not only did the challenge of the mushrooming of dysfunctional and irregular settlements expose lack of synchronisation in spatial planning and management of settlements but it also exposed the ease with which so-called land barons were fleecing people out of their money by illegally selling them land they had no title to. Land baron is the term used in Zimbabwe to refer to powerful business people who make a profit from illegally selling land to unsuspecting people who want to build houses. The land barons are people who reportedly wield a lot of influence in governmental affairs-something that the government often dismisses as rumour mongering even when its officials are prosecuted and go on to implicate the governing party as they try to cover up their tracks. The illegal settlements are not connected to council services such as water, sewer lines, and road network (Matsengarwodzi, 2021). They also lack social amenities such as clinics, schools, and shopping centres. In the worst of cases, they are associated with vices such as crime, prostitution and water-borne diseases.

The degeneration in urban service delivery in 2021 is accentuated by the way in which intergovernmental fiscal support is facilitated, managed and allocated. Even as national treasury claims to be supporting devolution by dispensing financial support, it is not clear how financial support is arrived at in the absence of a formula to ascertain transparency and accountability. In addition, the disbursements are seemingly not aligned with the Constitution which directs that not less than five percent of nationally collected revenue in the budget be allocated to local authorities in pursuit of improved service delivery. Concerning is that intergovernmental fiscal system is not re-engineered to ensure that urban councils that are fragile and poorly resourced receive a lion's share of the funds from the national fiscus to meet their constitutional and developmental mandates.

In 2021, as has been the case before, the issue of urban local government (along with rural district councils) being saddled with unfunded mandates is seemingly not tackled or given due consideration to lessen the burden on urban government and relief in an environment characterised by a decline in own source revenue owing to a lockdown induced by Covid 19. Without any form of compensation or support from national government, urban councils continue to perform certain functions such as library services and primary health care without being compensated for it (Marumahoko 2020a: 7). In the case of municipal clinics, urban local government continues to attend to patients including those with symptoms associated with Covid 19 without charging much. Essentially, this is a function that is not self-funding and urban councils (along with rural district councils) use their own revenue to fund such functions. In this regard, during the period under brief review, it seems that national government is not working with urban local government in a cooperative, interactive and facilitatory way to realise meaningful service delivery.

4. Options for service delivery

Although urban local government in Zimbabwe explicitly rely on its own departments to deliver services, it can also make use of alternative approaches to service delivery. Alternative models to service delivery are seemingly not fully tapped. They include the use of shared services, between multiple local authorities and also between local authorities and other public bodies; outsourcing aspects of service delivery to private or voluntary providers, and its opposite, insourcing and commercialisation.

4.1. Shared services

Shared services refers to two or more authorities providing a service to their electorates on a joint basis. In Zimbabwe, sharing may take place between neighbouring municipalities or non-neighbouring municipalities. It may take place between different levels of local authorities (e.g. city and municipal councils). Shared services may be facilitated through a joint in-house department or they may be jointly outsourced (Sandford, 2019). The arrangements for governance of shared services can take place through a joint committee between the participating urban councils, or simply through agreements between the executives of the participating urban local authorities. Critical features of successful sharing initiatives include political leadership; trust, honesty and openness; adaptability; councillor involvement; staff engagement; and communication. Success may be hindered owing to lack of a clear and shared vision of the reasons for shared management, concerns around the loss of sovereignty of a council, a fundamental difference in the organisational culture of the councils and fears of a 'takeover' by one council.

4.2. Outsourcing

Outsourcing is when government chooses a private company to provide particular services on its behalf. Local authorities may decide to outsource services as providing that quality and value for money are maintained. Even when they outsource, urban local councils are still responsible for maintaining the standards of service delivery and are accountable for the success or failure of such initiatives. Outsourcing is associated with the notion of competition as the driver of efficiency, quality improvement and innovation. In addition, it is overlaid with considerations around cost-cutting and the need to tackle failings in public services (Sandford, 2019). Counter-arguments highlight the risk of market failure in the realm of public services, the absence of tangible evidence about the impacts of outsourcing, concerns that the general level of transparency over contractors' costs and profits is limited, fear that government is, to a certain degree, dependent upon its major providers and concerns that some outsourcing deals have attracted media attention due to delays and accusations of overspending and failure.

4.3. Insourcing

Insourcing is another option for service delivery. Its emergence is associated with criticisms of outsourcing in local government, including poor performance by contractors. Insourcing may also be a way of expanding a council's capacity as part of a broader service restructuring, or where a contract has come to an end and the council does not wish to extend or retender it (Sandford, 2019). Some local authorities may lack the internal capacity to take control of a service at short notice, including harmonising pay and conditions, alongside any aspirations to join up service provision. Insourcing may involve up-front costs to pay for the transition to direct employment itself. There were cases where public sector monopoly provision was of poor quality and poor value for money and the forces to make it better seemed to be lacking.

4.4. Commercialisation

Regarding local government, the term commercialisation assumes several different meanings. These include referring to a change in emphasis within a municipality's internal operations, with the objective of ascertaining opportunities to generate income in response to a decline in own-revenue or decreasing levels of intergovernmental financial support. Other forms it can take are joint ventures with other public and private organisations, seeking to bring in external commercial expertise to increase efficiency and profit (Sandford, 2019). It can also take the form of local authorities offering services in a competitive market, either directly or through a wholly-owned company. In any of these options, urban councils are subject to the same fundamental laws as private companies. They are endowed the power to create companies and joint ventures and to fund them.

5. The case for policy implementation

Policy implementation is a succession of activities carried out by government and others to achieve the goals and objectives expressed in policy statements (Bullock & Lavis, 2019). Policy implementation is as important as policy development. Many countries excel at policy development and are convincing about the direction they would like their countries to take. However, they are less successful at implementing policy (Fourie & Poggenpoel, 2017). Responding to this challenge at the joint annual discussion held in Tokyo in 2012, then World Bank President Jim Yong Kim told Boards of Governors of the World Bank Group that there was an "urgent need for a science of delivery in development" (World Bank, 2012).

The quality of implementation plays a significant part in facilitating policy outcomes and producing positive results. If a policy is poorly or even moderately implemented, its goals are unlikely to be achieved or the results will be less significant. With effectively implemented policies, success is likely.

Numerous factors may fail policy implementation. These may include the commitment and political will to implement policies, unhealthy inter-agency rivalry and coordination, inadequate understanding of the issues to be addressed, institutional weaknesses and resistance to change (Twahirwa, 2018). In the same vein, it is also said that challenges of policy implementation in Africa may be linked to improper planning, political instability, and bureaucratic bottleneck, the deliberate imposition of policy, complete alteration to the plan if it is not favourable to the implementers or civil servants saddled with the responsibility to implement it (Ajulor, 2016).

The picture is clear: the public administration in Africa, despite the level at which it is operating (be it national, provincial or local government) has seemingly not been very successful at addressing challenges associated with successful policy implementation and execution.

6. Critical factors that impact policy implementation

Policy implementation does not occur in a vacuum. It is the outcome of various variables that shape the direction that policy implementation takes. According to Brynard (2000) there are five variables that impact policy execution. They are also known as causal factors. They are to be borne in mind when implementing policy. Roux (2005) refers to them as the 5-C protocols. They are content, context, commitment, capacity and clients and coalitions.

6.1. Content

Regarding policy analysis, content is what the policy is mainly about. According to Walt and Gilson (1994), content is one of the four elements comprising the policy analysis triangle, the other being: context (why need this policy), content (what is the policy mainly about), process (how was the policy brought forward and implemented) and actors (who participates in and influences formulation and implementation of the policy) (Ma et al., 2015). The content of policy is important in how it intends to achieve its ends and in how it chooses the ways to attain those outcomes (Roux 2005: 74).

6.2. Context

According to Echt (2017), context is the "complex environment that influences how policy decisions take place as the result of simultaneous interactions between various stakeholders". The context in which policies are implemented matters. It is important to have appreciation of the environment and the situation where the policy initiative is to be put into practice. Essentially this entails understanding the political dynamics in which policy implementation is facilitated, appreciation of the policy makers' intentions, goals to be achieved and the means for achieving the goals. An appreciation of governmental institutions matters given that they are the direct environment where decisions about policies are discussed and, most importantly, where they are implemented. Beyond understanding the role of institutions in enabling systemic change, it is also important to appreciate the socio-economic framework in which policy implementation is taking place. Consideration of issues such as poverty, discrimination, climate change and the state of the economy is also important.

6.3. Commitment

Commitment may be understood of as the determination of governments and those in positions of authority to do and say things that will produce desired outcomes. When the success or failure of policies is engaged, we frequently hear it said that political commitment – or the lack of it – affected the outcome. This suggests that the actions of governmental actors have a bearing on the success or failure of policy implementation. Indicators of commitment often include speeches and other public declarations in favour of certain policies. Thus, commitment is important in designing, developing and implementing policies. As authorities implement local government policies on service delivery, it is important that they consult, engage and mobilise stakeholders as well as facilitate acceptance of partnership with local communities (Roux, 2005).

6.4. Capacity

The capacity of government to develop and implement policy matters a great deal to the success of a policy. The effectiveness of policy is mediated by the quality of implementation. Having better knowledge of the capacity of those implementing policies is important. It gives crucial information on the likely success of an initiative in a specific policy context (Rand Europe 2020: 2). Organisations with strong capacity are, among other things characterised by robust coordination between units, clarity of institutional mandates, recruitment of the right people, rewards good performance, applies rules consistently and facilitates development of organisational culture that emphasise shared values, practices and beliefs. In the opposite direction, organizations with weak capacity are characterised by a lack of resources, knowledge, funds, motivation, commitment and leadership for the successful implementation of policies (Andrews, Pritchett & Woolcock, 2017).

6.5. Clients and coalitions

Before creating new policy, authorities may need to be clear about a number of things, including the nature of interest groups advocating certain policy, their objectives, power dynamics, organisation and how to reach them as well as incorporate them in the policy making process. Interest groups are formal or informal association of people seeking to influence governmental policy in favour of their interests. They may represent social causes, economic and corporate interests, or religious and ideological interests. Through advocacy, lobbying, mobilising and shaping public opinion, they may influence public behaviour by making people more or less supportive of policy development and implementation (Dur, 2019). Thus, it is perhaps important that greater acceptance of a policy is facilitated through involving interest groups in the policy making process, facilitating collaborative consultation and continuously appealing for public support of a certain policy in the course of its implementation.

7. A process model for the implementation of policies and programmes

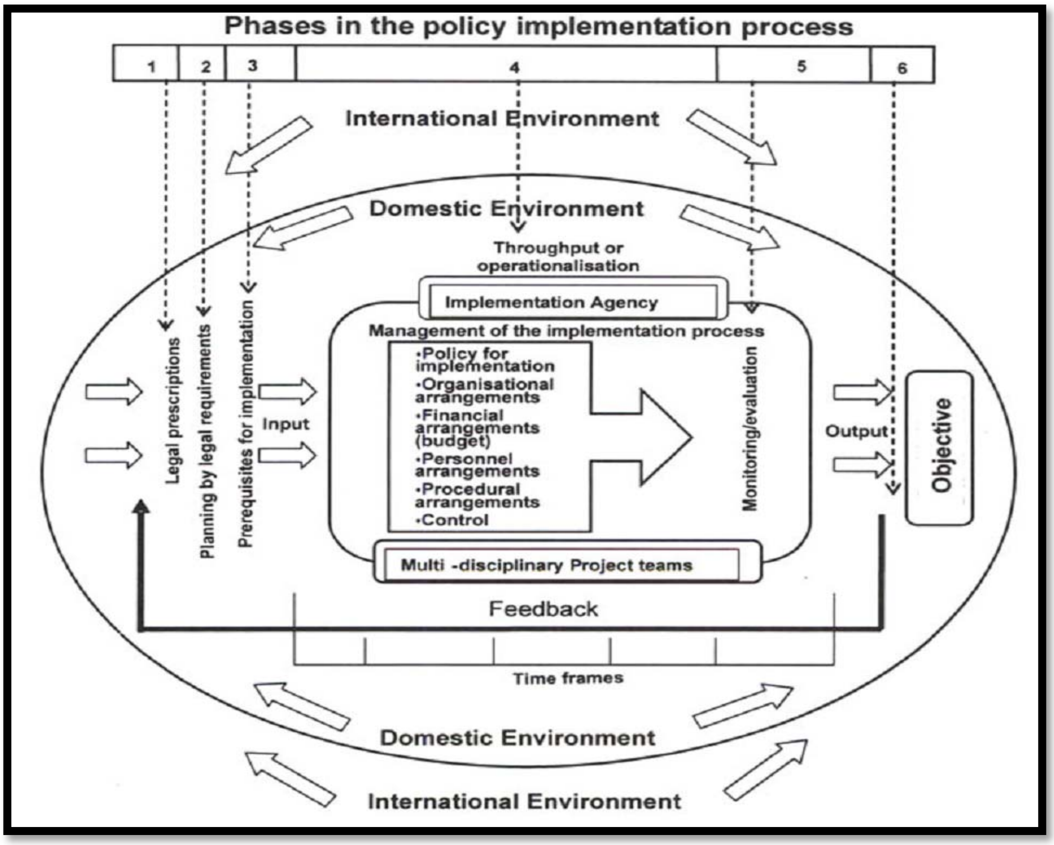
As a pictorial or graphic representation of key concepts, a model in research shows, (with the aid of arrows and other diagrams), the relationship between various types of variables such as independent, dependent, moderating and mediating variables. It is an imitation of reality or a symbolic representation of a particular phenomenon. In this regard, a model can be used by urban local government officials to facilitate efficient and effective policy implementation.

As indicated earlier, Zimbabwe is seemingly at the cusp of transformation following adoption and announcement by President Emmerson Dambudzo Mnangagwa of a five-year medium development plan, the so-called National Development Strategy 1. The success of the plan which runs from 2021 to 2025 rests on the ability of urban local government (along with rural district councils) to provide much needed services to improve the quality of human life. In addition, it is anticipated that urban service delivery will considerably contribute towards attainment of so-called Vision 2030-another ambitious government policy that seeks to achieve Zimbabwe the status of middle-upper income country.

Basic essential services expected to be rendered by urban local government include water, sanitation, housing, street-lighting and primary health care. Already, some urban dwellers are dissatisfied with local government service delivery, raising profound doubts about implementation capacity. An additional concern is that NDS1 was seemingly not accompanied by a robust and well-designed programme on the practice of implementation by urban local government. In response to this gap, the article presents the hypothetical process model for the implementation of policies and programmes for service delivery associated with Roux (2005) and other researchers before him. At the centre of the discussion is the question of how best can a programme on the practice of implementation be facilitated to aid urban local government attain greater efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery.

There are six phases to the model facilitating efficient and effective policy implementation (see Figure 1 below). These are (1) legal prescription, (2) planning by legal requirements, (3) prerequisites for implementation, (4) throughput or operationalisation, (5) monitoring/evaluation and (6), feedback. All six phases are in the domestic environment although they are impacted by the international environment. Environment is the context in which service delivery and policy implementation are facilitated. In the ensuing discussion, the article engages the various aspects of the hypothetical model that both the executive authority and political authority in urban local government can take advantage of to improve not only policy implementation but service delivery as well.

Figure 1. *A process for local government policy implementation*



Source: The model was created with the aim to present an understandable and more practical representation of the policy implementation process, and is an integrated conceptualisation of various views of exponents such as Easton (1957 and 1965); Smith (1973) in Quade (1989); Hanekom (1987); Cloete J.J.N. (1981); Cloete F. & Wisink (2000) and Roux 2005, amongst others.

7.1. Legal prescription

The role of urban local government as a service provider is protected in Zimbabwe's 2013 Constitution and articulated in various subsidiary laws (Marumahoko, 2020c). As urban local government implements its policies, programmes and projects on service delivery, there is need to operate within the enabling framework. Service delivery is devolved through a three-tier system of government comprising (1) national government, (2) provincial and metropolitan councils and (3) local government (divided into urban councils and rural councils). Urban councils represent and manage the affairs of people in urban areas while rural councils do the same for people residing in rural areas (Moyo & Ncube, 2014). Even as the most basic of functions are placed in the hands of local government, the Constitution imagines a cooperative framework in which the three-tier system of government harmonise, consult and co-ordinate to facilitate achievement of improved urban service delivery. Other pieces of legislation that facilitate urban service delivery include, the Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29:15) and the Regional, Town and Country Planning Act (Chapter 29:12).

7.2. Planning by legal requirements

A good understanding of how urban local government functions is key to efficient and effective urban service planning and delivery. The vast majority of the work of urban local authority is facilitated through committees and full council. The committee system is provided for in sections 96 and 97 of the Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29:15). Through the committee system, elected councillors as representatives of the wards are allowed to participate in the decisions of urban councils. The standing committees of urban councils are: Finance Committee, Health and Housing Committee and Environmental Management Committee. Other committees provided for in the Act are the Audit Committee and Municipal Procurement Board. In addition, the Act allows urban councils to create as many committees as are necessary for the facilitation of its work. Decisions of committees of a council are referred to as recommendations and they are submitted to the full council for adoption. All councillors are members of the full council. The decisions of the full council are known as resolutions and they are the basis upon which service delivery initiatives are developed and implemented.

7.3. Prerequisites for implementation

Understanding the prerequisites for implementation is a key component of the policy cycle. One of the issues that determine successful policy implementation is availability of sufficient resources for service delivery (Marumahoko, 2010). Resources are the means required to carry out the project tasks. These can be people, equipment, facilities, funding, or anything else capable of definition required for the completion of a project activity. Vital to the planning process and eventual success of implementation is ensuring that stakeholders or role players are committed to the implementation of the policy and have pledged their support for it. In the same vein, it is recommended that there is widespread appreciation, understanding and agreement on not only the objectives of the policy and the allocation of tasks but also on the arrangements for communication and coordination. Last but not least, a proper leadership and management structure needs to be in place to facilitate policy implementation.

7.4. Operationalisation

Operationalization can be defined as turning abstract concepts into measurable observations or putting a concept into operation or use (Bhandari, 2020). According to Dann, Johnson and Gregoire (2021), there are four elements to the operationalisation of a policy or plan. The first element involves taking ownership of the policy. Besides making the policy or plan a project management system in the organization, those assigned implementation authority schedule the work needed to accomplish the tasks on the policy. The second element involves rolling the plan out to the front line. Among other things, this involves tying the work of every person employed by a particular local authority to the plan. In the same vein, departmental tasks are rolled up to support the master plan. In the third element, the operationalized plan becomes the lens through which subnational government views new opportunities, risks and decisions. In this regard, the policy sets the direction, and all activities should be measured against, aligned with, and driven by the policy. The fourth element underscores that to fully operationalise a policy or strategic plan you need to make it to be easily revised, updated and adjusted throughout the year (Dann, Johnson & Gregoire, 2021).

7.5. Monitoring and Evaluation

A crucial process by which stakeholders follow and assess policies to ensure they are developed, endorsed, enacted, and implemented as intended, policy monitoring is a crucial element of policy implementation. Essentially policy monitoring involves (1) appraising the policy environment, (2) gauging the level and quality of stakeholder engagement, (3) documenting the progress of policy development and the legislative endorsement of policy, (4) putting policies into practice through financing and implementation planning, and (5) evaluating outcomes of implementation (USAID, 2014). Among other factors, effective policy monitoring requires analytical skills, such as being able to identify, develop, and apply assessment tools and analyse findings; and the ability to mobilize communities to participate in the policy process.

A key component of the policy process, policy evaluation applies evaluation principles and methods to examine the content, implementation or impact of a policy. Through evaluation, urban local government can develop understanding of the merit, worth, and utility of a policy. In applying policy evaluation, users need to be appraised of its uses which include documenting policy development, documenting and informing implementation, assessing support and compliance with existing policies, demonstrating impacts and value of a policy, informing an evidence base, informing future policies and providing accountability for resources invested (Centre for Disease Control, 2020). Some of the tools used to facilitate monitoring and evaluation of policies in democratic local government include, stakeholder surveys, community score cards, citizen report cards, community based monitoring and evaluation, participatory outputs tracking and social audits.

7.6. Continuous feedback

An integral component of policy process, continuous feedback enables managers and teams to recognize achievements of policy implementation right away. It is a modern, human-centered approach to promoting, evaluating, and improving policy performance. Continuous feedback denotes the potential for policies to facilitate municipal service delivery and, as a result, influence future courses of policy development. Through continuous feedback, urban local government can ensure that objectives are met as initially set and identified or altered if necessitated by circumstances (Roux, 2005). As a component of realising this objective, it may be necessary and desirable that subnational government creates a model for facilitating continuous feedback.

7.7. Other actors and stakeholders

When implementing policy, it is important that cognisance is made of the other players and stakeholders involved in service delivery. In Zimbabwe urban local government is not the only actor involved in urban service delivery (Marumahoko et al., 2020). National government has been known to encroach on the role of the local sphere in service delivery. Encroachment takes many forms, some subtle, others not so subtle. It includes national government taking over the functions of urban councils, disrupting decisions based on local participatory consultation, establishing parallel local government structures, replacing elected political authority with commissions, rescinding decisions made in council chambers, and introducing regulations, protocols and rules that erode the authority of urban local government. Residents and ratepayers' associations are emerging as important actors in urban service delivery. Not only are they testing the boundaries of urban local politics, they are now increasingly monitoring policy implementation.

The Urban Councils Association of Zimbabwe (UCAZ) is another important actor. A body that purports to represent the interests of its members across the country, UCAZ often mediates facilitation of service delivery with national government through the Ministry of Local Government. The two dominant political parties in the country, ZANU-PF and MDC-A also have a bearing on successful policy implementation or policy failure. They have often made urban service delivery a point of intense political contestation.

Although policy implementation also needs to consider actors in the international environment such as the United Nations, World Bank and the European Union, the weight of their bearing on local policy implementation has somewhat diminished over the past two decades owing to disagreements over the broader issues of governance. In the past, they influenced both policy development and policy implementation through strengthening the capacity of urban local government (along with rural councils) to facilitate improved service delivery. Those implementing local government policy have to work within these limitations.

8. Conclusions

As one of the three systems of government in Zimbabwe, urban local government is at the frontline of urban service delivery. Its role involves producing public goods and services such as water supply, solid waste management, primary health care, road construction and maintenance and others. Its position relative to that of the other two systems of government makes it the most ideal subnational government body for realising not only policy implementation but also basic service delivery. For its physical proximity however, the task has proven to be daunting. Among the reasons given for its poor performance include chronic shortages of resources, allegations of central interference, and in 2021, reversal of service delivery owing to the devastating effects of Cyclone Chalane, the Covid 19 pandemic and the inconvenience of unfunded mandates. Service delivery continues to tumble with no relief or respite in insight. Even as national government supports urban local government through intergovernmental fiscal policy, the level, magnitude and quality of urban service delivery continues to decline.

It is often the case that the shortage of adequate resources is flagged as the paramount reason leading to policy failure in urban local government. Whilst it accepts the veracity of this claim, the article examines the ability or inability of urban government to implement policy as a major contributory factor that appears to be conveniently overlooked and glossed over. The centre of the challenge appears to be characterised by an absence of an implementation plan or policy. Yet local government policies do not implement themselves. Unless there was a plan to turn ideas into practical outcomes, chances for policy failure would amplify. This is a problem in Zimbabwe where policy development is often not matched with robust policy implementation, leading to a situation in which the country continues to generate many policies in succession that are not translated into practical outcomes.

The article began by discussing in general terms the role of urban government in service delivery. Following this was brief discussion of the goal setting theory, the objective being to set the parameters around the discussion. Following this, the article did a brief overview of urban service delivery in Zimbabwe in the context of devastation on service infrastructure caused by Cyclone Chalane, the Covid 19 pandemic, spiralling of unfunded mandate, declining intergovernmental financial support and general public dissatisfaction with both the quality and thresholds of service delivery. The idea was to facilitate a background as well as introduce discussion on the lack of emphasis placed on the issue of implementation.

The article then explored other options for service delivery open to urban government that are currently not receiving as much attention as service delivery through departments of urban councils. Following this was discussion on why implementation matters. The article then engaged the critical factors that impact service delivery. After this, the article introduced a hypothetical process model associated with Roux (2005) and others that underscores the need for implementation planning.

With the assistance of the model, the article focused on how implementation in the policy process may be successfully facilitated and enhanced. The discussion is facilitated against the assumption that urban government has a crucial role to play in the realisation of National Development Strategy 1 (NDS1) and Vision 2030, both of which are major government policies currently under implementation in Zimbabwe. Success or failure appears to hinge on the ability or inability of urban local government to implement service delivery policies, programmes and projects in the three-tier system of government in Zimbabwe.

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