

**THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL
DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030: A CASE OF VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, **Emmanuel Maemu of (student Number: 14014756)**, declare that the thesis entitled “The impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030: A case of Vhembe District Municipality” hereby submitted by me for the degree of Doctor of Administration at the University of Venda has not been previously submitted for a degree in this institution or any other university, and that it is my own work, designed and executed by me, and all references material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.



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DEDICATION

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to evaluate the impact of COVID-19 also known as corona virus disease on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 at the Vhembe District Municipality. The National Development Plan (NDP) is a plan for South Africa to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030 through uniting South Africans, unleashing the energies of its citizens, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capability of the state and leaders working together to solve complex problems. The approach of the Plan revolves around citizens being active in development, a capable and developmental state able to intervene to correct the historical inequities, and strong leadership throughout society by working together to solve the problems. The Plan addresses the need to enhance the capabilities of the people so that they can live the lives that they desire; and to develop the capabilities of the state so that it can grow faster, draw more people into work and raise living standards for all, particularly the poor. COVID-19 pandemic has done significant harm to an already bruised economy which affected the implementation of the NDP 2030. This study used a mixed research methodology in which both quantitative and qualitative research approaches were used. The reason for using the mixed method was that it can be combined in such a way that quantitative and qualitative methods retain their original structures and procedures. To achieve the objective of the study, non-probability sampling and its sub-type, purposive sampling method were used to get an appropriate sample. The researcher used two data collection methods namely, questionnaires and interviews. The data collected through the questionnaires were analysed using statistical analysis through the computer software called: International Business Machinery (IBM): Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 28.0 and the information was presented using graphical tabular form, frequencies, and percentages. The data collected through interviews were analysed through thematic analysis and presented in narrative form.

The major findings of the study are:

- COVID-19 has a major impact on South African economy.
- Municipal financial budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic.
- There is no proper implementation of the NDP due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality.
- There is an increase in unemployment rate due to employment reduction and retrenchment in many businesses which affect the aim of full employment rate by 2030 which is the priority of the NDP.
- There is high level of dropouts from school due to rotational polices and online classes to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.

The following recommendations are therefore made based on the findings of the study:

- The study recommended that Economic Recovery Plan should be fostered to address the impact of COVID-19 on the South African economy.
- It is further recommended that maximum time should be on the implementation of the NDP 2030 and the deadlines of achieving the plan should be adjusted to achieve the goals by 2030.
- The Municipality should focus more in low and middle-income areas as they are more vulnerable to the effects of COVID-19 pandemic.
- The Municipality should also strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030.

Key words: Impact, COVID-19, Implementation, National, Development, Plan, National Development Plan.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	Page No.:
DECLARATION	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	II
DEDICATION	III
ABSTRACT	IV
TABLE OF CONTENTS	II
LIST OF TABLES	V
ABBREVIATIONS	VIII
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	1
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT	4
1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY	6
1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	6
1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	6
1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	7
1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY	7
1.9 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS	8
1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY	9
CHAPTER 2	ERROR! BOOKMARK NOT DEFINED.
LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE CHALLENGES OF THE NDP 2030	11
2.1 INTRODUCTION	11
2.2 FORMULATION AND INTRODUCTION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (NDP)2030	11
2.3 VISION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	13
2.4 THE DETAILS OF THE NDP 2030 PLAN	15
2.5 CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS FOR THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	19
2.6 EXTERNAL DRIVERS OF THE NDP	22
2.7 PHASES OF THE NDP 2030	26
2.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	28
2.9 THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN LEADERSHIP AND RESPONSIBILITY THROUGHOUT SOCIETY	52
2.10 INTEGRATED AND INCLUSIVE RURAL ECONOMY	54
2.11 CHALLENGES OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	55
2.12 CRITICISMS OF THE NDP 2030	57
2.13 NDP PROPOSALS TO ACHIEVE FULL EMPLOYMENT, POVERTY ERADICATION AND GREATER EQUITY	61

2.14	MEASURES TO ACHIEVE THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030.....	65
2.15	CONCLUSION	68
CHAPTER 3.....		69
COVID-19 AND THE IMPLICATIONS ON THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN, 2030: A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE		
3.1	INTRODUCTION	69
3.2	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	69
3.3	THE STATUS OF COVID-19 IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	72
3.4	THE IMPLICATION OF COVID-19 IN THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	74
3.5	COVID-19 AND ITS EFFECT ON THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	76
3.6	THE IMPACT OF THE COVID-19 ON THE OBJECTIVES OF THE NDP 2030	78
3.7	ECONOMIC RECOVERY PLAN FOR SOUTH AFRICA	98
3.8	THE NDP REVIEW AS A GREEN RECOVERY PLAN.....	104
3.9	POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	105
3.10	POLITICAL INTERFERENCE IN THE COVID-19 AND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NDP 2030.....	112
3.11	THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 IN OTHER COUNTRIES.....	113
3.12	LESSONS FOR THE FUTURE.....	120
3.13	LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK ON THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NDP 2030.....	121
3.14	PROGRESS MADE TOWARDS THE NDP'S VISION 2030: FULL EMPLOYMENT, POVERTY ERADICATION AND EQUITY	123
3.15	APPLICATION OF GOVERNANCE PRINCIPLES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE CORONAVIRUS DISEASE 2019 IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	133
3.16	EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE ON THE EFFECT OF COVID-19 ON THE NDP 2030 ...	139
3.17	CONCLUSION	142
CHAPTER 4.....		143
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		143
4.1	INTRODUCTION	143
4.2	RESEARCH PARADIGM	143
4.3	RESEARCH DESIGN	144
4.4	RESEARCH METHOD	145
4.5	STUDY AREA	146
4.6	POPULATION OF THE STUDY	147
4.7	SAMPLING.....	147
4.8	DATA COLLECTION	148
4.9	DATA ANALYSIS.....	149
4.10	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	150
4.11	CONCLUSION	151
CHAPTER 5.....		152
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION		152
5.1	INTRODUCTION	152

5.2	PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA COLLECTED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRES.....	152
5.3	AN ANALYSIS OF THE DATA COLLECTED THROUGH THE INTERVIEWS....	182
	CHAPTER 6.....	200
	FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	200
6.1	INTRODUCTION	200
6.2	OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	201
6.3	MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	202
6.4	SYNTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS	209
6.5	RECOMMENDATION OF THE STUDY.....	211
6.6	RECOMMENDATION ON THE PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION..	215
6.7	ESTABLISHMENT OF FRAMEWORK TO IMPROVE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030	217
6.8	RECOMMENDATIONS OF FUTURE STUDIES	218
6.9	CONCLUSION	219
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	221
	Annexure A UHDC Letter	273
	Annexure B Ethics Letter	274
	Annexure C Letter to the respondents	275
	Annexure D Informed Consent	276
	Annexure E INSTRUMENT – QUESTIONNAIRE	277
	Annexure F INSTRUMENT - INTERVIEW SCHEDULE	281
	Annexure G Proof of editing letter	285
	Annexure H Letter from the Municipality	286
	Annexure I Turnitin report	287

LIST OF TABLES

Table 5:1	Gender of the respondents.....	107
Table 5.2:	Age of the respondents.....	107
Table 5.3:	Category of the respondents.....	108
Table 5.4:	Educational Qualification of the respondents.....	109
Table 5.5	Employment status.....	110
Table 5.6:	COVID-19 has a major impact on South Africa’s economy.....	111
Table 5.7:	Workers with low education levels are much more affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19.....	112
Table 5.8:	Most permanent workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19.....	113
Table 5.9	Inequalities within Vhembe District Municipality are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID 19, as poor and vulnerable are unable to protect them-selves.....	114
Table 5.10	Vhembe District Municipality is one of the municipalities with the high number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province.....	115
Table 5.11	Capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer.....	116
Table 5.12	Municipal budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19....	117
	pandemic	
Table 5.13	The COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations.....	118
Table 5.14	Municipal revenue influence the implementation of the NDP.....	119
Table 5.15	COVID-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated.....	120

Table 5.16	The NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic.....	121
Table 5.17	There has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before COVID-19 pandemic.....	122
Table 5.18	There is no proper implementation of the NDP due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality.....	123
Table 5.19	Many people lost their jobs and economic declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed down in the jurisdiction of the Municipality.....	124
Table 5.20	Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources are used to find solutions in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic.....	125
Table 5.21	The Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic.....	126
Table 5.22	Innovation is essential for effective response to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income areas within the Municipality.....	127
Table 5.23	The Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic.....	128
Table 5.24	Infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic.....	129
Table 5.25	Employment creation through public employment programs should be promoted by the Municipality.....	130
Table 5.26	The Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities.....	131

Table 5.27	The Vhembe District Municipality must strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP.....	132
Table 5.28	Theme and sub-theme of the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.....	133

ABBREVIATIONS

AFU	: Asset Forfeiture Unit
ANC	: African National Congress
ART	: Antiretroviral Treatment
BEE	: Black Economic Empowerment
CBR	: Community Based Rehabilitation
CCC	: COVID-19 Coordinating Committee
CDG	: Care Dependency Grant
CDW	: Community Development Worker
COGTA	: Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
CPO	: Chief Procurement Officer
CSG	: Child Support Grant
CSG	: Child Support Grant
CTT	: Coronavirus Task Team
CWP	: Community Works Programme
DA	: Democratic Alliance
DESA	: Department of Economic and Social Affairs
DG	: Disability Grant
DHET	: Department of Higher Education and Training
EFF	: Economic Freedom Fighters
EPWP	: Expanded Public Works Programmes
ERP	: Economic Recovery Plan
FCG	: Foster Care Grants
FDI	: Foreign Direct Investment
GA	: Grants-in- Aid
GDP	: Gross Domestic Product
GHS	: General Household Survey

HIV/AIDS	: Human Immune Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICTs	: Information Communication Technologies
IDC	: Industrial Development Corporation
IDP	: Integrated Development Plan
INR	: Ireland's National Recovery
IRP	: Integrated Resource Plan
IUDF	: Integrated Urban Development Framework
J&J	: Johnsson & Johnsson
KICD	: Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
LDCs	: Less Developing Countries
LED	: Local Economic Development
LMICs	: Low- and Middle-Income Countries
LS	: Learner Support
MDG	: Millennium Development Goals
MERS	: Middle East respiratory syndrome
MPAC	: Municipal Public Accounts Committees
MPAC	: Municipal Public Accounts Committee
NACS	: National Anti-Corruption Strategy
NCCC	: National Coronavirus Command Council
NDP	: National Development Plan
NHI	: National Health Insurance
NICD	: National Institute for Communicable Diseases
NIDS-CRAM	: National Income Dynamics Study – Coronavirus Rapid Mobile Survey
NPA	: National Prosecution Authority

NPC	: National Planning Commission
NSD	: National State of Disaster
NSF	: National Skills Fund
NSF	: National Spatial Fund
NSFAS	: National Students Financial Aid Scheme
NSNP	: National Schools Nutrition Programme
NYDA	: National Youth Development Agency
PAYE	: Pay As You Earn
PEP	: Public Employment Programmes
PES	: Presidential Employment Stimulus
PhD	: Doctor of Philosophy
PMTCT	: Prevention of Mother-To-Child Transmission
PPE	: Personal Protective Equipment
PPE	: Personal Protective Equipment
PSC	: Public Service Commission
RPCC	: Rotavirus and Pneumococcal Conjugate Vaccine
SAA	: South African Airways
SAPS	: South African Police Service
SARB	: South African Reserve Bank
SARS	: Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
SC	: Save the Children
SDF	: Spatial Development Frameworks
SDG	: Sustainable Development Goals
SEDA	: Small Enterprise Development Agency
SETAs	: Skills Education Training Authorities
SGB	: School Governing Bodies
SIC	: Special Investigations Unit

SOE	: State Owned Enterprises
SOEs	: State-Owned Enterprises
SOEs	: State-Owned Enterprises
SPLUMA	: Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act
SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STI	: Sexually Transmitted Infections
TB	: Tuberculosis
TERS	: Temporary Employee/Employer Relief Scheme
UBPL	: Upper-Bound Poverty Line
UHC	: Universal Health Coverage
UIF	: Unemployment Insurance Fund
UN	: United Nation
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	: United Nations Children's Fund
URT	: United Republic of Tanzania
USA	: United State of America
VAT	: Value Added Tax
VCS	: Victims of Crime Survey
VDM	: Vhembe District Municipality
WHO	: World Health Organisation
WVG	: War Veterans Grant

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study focuses on the impact of corona virus disease otherwise commonly referred to as COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP) with specific reference to the Vhembe District Municipality in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. The NDP aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030. According to the National Planning Commission (NPC) (2012:18), South Africa can realise these goals by drawing on the energies of its people, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capacity of the state, and promoting leadership and partnerships throughout society. According to National Planning Commission (2013:12), the NDP 2030 is about transformation and contains recommendations to achieve a virtuous cycle of confidence and trust, a growing economy and broadening of opportunities. NDP deals with implementing redress, promoting economic and social inclusion, social cohesion, active citizenry and broad-based leadership and, the crafting of a social compact (Van der Waldt & Prinsloo, 2019:82).

This section presents the introduction and background to the study, problem statement, aim of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, definition of operational concepts, research methodology, ethical considerations, and organisation of the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

South Africa's transition from apartheid to a democratic state has been a success. In the past 27 years between 1995 and 1996, South Africa has built democratic institutions, transformed the public service, extended basic services, stabilised the economy and taken its rightful place in the family of nations (Ogbeidi, 2012:32). Ogbeidi (2012:32) claims that in nearly every facet of life, advances are being made in building an inclusive society, rolling back the shadow of history and broadening opportunities for all. South Africa has been able to build the institutions such as civil service and the judiciary which are necessary for a democratic and transformative state. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 enshrines a rights-based approach and envisions a prosperous, non-racial, non-sexist democracy that belongs to its entire people. Despite these successes, Adato *et al.* (2015:226) reveal that too many people are trapped in poverty and remain a highly unequal society. In addition, Adato *et al.* (2015:227) further mention that too few South Africans work, the quality of school education for the majority is of poor quality and our state lacks capacity in critical areas.

Horton (2016:45) is of the view that healing the wounds of the past and redressing the inequities caused by centuries of racial exclusion are constitutional imperatives. Access to services has been broadened, the economy has been stabilised and a non-racial society has begun to emerge (Beall *et al.* 2016:681). Millions who were previously excluded have access to education, water, electricity, health care, housing and social security (Meth, & Dias, 2004:59). There are about three million more people who are not working today than in 1994, the poverty rate has declined and average incomes has grown steadily in real terms (May, 2010:61). However, twenty-seven years into democracy, South Africa remains a highly unequal society where too many people live in poverty and too few job opportunities (Ndinga-Kanga *et al.* 2020:22). The quality of school education for most black learners is poor in terms of infrastructure, quality of teaching and learning. The apartheid spatial divide continues to dominate the landscape. Ndinga-Kanga *et al.* (2020:22) reveal that a large proportion of young people feel that the odds are stacked against them and the legacy of apartheid continues to determine the life opportunities for the vast majority. These immense challenges can only be addressed through a step change in the country's performance.

Sing and Maringe (2020:5) are of the opinion that to accelerate progress, deepen democracy and build a more inclusive society, South Africa must translate political emancipation into economic wellbeing for all. The NDP envisions a South Africa where everyone feels free yet bounded to others; where everyone embraces their full potential, a country where opportunity is determined not by birth, but by ability, education and hard work. Sing and Maringe (2020:5) further state that realising such a society will require transformation of the economy and focused efforts to build the country's capabilities. Wade (2019:381) is of the view that to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality, the economy must grow faster and in ways that benefit all South Africans. Wagner (2010:213) stresses that young people deserve better educational and economic opportunities, and focused efforts are required to eliminate gender inequality. Promoting gender equality and greater opportunities for young people are integrated themes that run throughout the NDP (Maringe, 2020:7).

Despite significant progress, Brown (2015:97) discloses that South Africa remains divided, with opportunities still shaped by the legacy of apartheid. Morell (2016:69) emphasises that young people and women are denied the opportunities to lead the lives that they desire. Khambule (2018:287) indicates that the approach of the NDP revolves around citizens being active in development, a capable and developmental state able to intervene to correct South Africa's historical inequities, and strong leadership throughout society working together to solve the problems. The NDP addresses the need to enhance the capabilities of the people so that they can live the lives that they desire; and to develop the capabilities of the country

so that they can grow faster, draw more people into work and raise living standards for all, but particularly the poor (Cohen, 2017:163).

Zarenda (2013:35) indicates that in May 2010, former President Jacob Zuma appointed the National Planning Commission, an advisory body made up of 26 experts drawn largely from outside the government, to draft a vision and NDP 2030. Nevondwe and Odeku (2014:2722) show that the Commission's Diagnostic Report, released in June 2011, set out South Africa's achievements and shortcomings since 1994. It identified a failure to implement policies and an absence of broad partnerships as the main reasons for slow progress, and set out nine primary challenges such as, lack of employment, the quality of school education for black people is poor; infrastructure is poorly located, inadequate and under-maintained.

According to the National Planning Commission (2012:23), South Africans from all walks of life welcomed the diagnostic as a frank, constructive assessment. This led to the development of the draft national plan, released in November 2011. Building on the diagnostic, Zarenda (2016:47) points that the Plan added four thematic areas: rural economy, social protection, regional and world affairs, and community safety. The National Planning Commission (2013:45) indicates that South Africans broadly supported the draft plan, proposing modifications and making suggestions to implement it effectively. Their input informed the final NDP 2030.

Chilenga (2017:87) stipulates that national development has never been a linear process, nor can a development plan proceed in a straight line. Arthurson (2018:134) is of the opinion that raising living standards to the minimum level proposed in the plan will involve a combination of increasing employment, higher incomes through productivity growth, a social wage and good-quality public services. Arthurson (2018:134) further maintains that improved education, for example, will lead to higher employment and earnings, while more rapid economic growth will broaden opportunities for all and generate the resources required to improve education. In addition, Arthurson (2018:134) adds that the Plan focuses on the critical capabilities needed to transform the economy and society. Achieving these capabilities is not automatic, nor will they emerge if the country continues its present trajectory.

Despite the slow pace of the implementation of the NDP 2030, Shingare and Kanoi (2020:1503) indicate that COVID-19 has caused many problems and slow down the pace of the mission and vision of the Plan. Lenoël and Young (2020:10) stress that the implementation of the NDP was expected to slow down by at least 5.1 to 7.9 percent in 2020 and recover slowly through 2024. This led to major setbacks in addressing poverty, unemployment and inequality. The number of households below the poverty line increases as households falls

from the lower middle class (Dartanto *et al.* 2020). Mahore (2020:97) points that 54% of households that have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for business affected by COVID-19, are likely to fall into poverty after the stimulus package is over, whereas 34% of households are likely to exit the middle class into vulnerability.

Parsons (2020:139) stresses that inequality within and among nations are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID-19, as the poor and vulnerable are unable to protect themselves. While government social protection grants tend to target the poorest, care and support is also given to those who are unemployed and the vulnerable middle class, to reduce their likelihood of spilling into poverty (Devereux & Cuesta, 2021:341). The COVID-19 has had far-reaching economic consequences beyond the spread of the disease itself and efforts quarantine it. During the earlier stage of the pandemic, the implementation of the NDP was expected to slow down as funds were to be used to find solutions in fighting against the pandemic (Van de Pas, 2020:123).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Section 56 of the Local Government: Municipal System Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) makes provision for the core principles, mechanisms and processes that are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of local communities, and ensure universal access to essential services that are affordable to all. The *Public Finance Management Act (Act No. of 1999)* intends to ensure that all revenue, expenditure, assets and liabilities of that government are managed efficiently and effectively. *Sections 21 to 23 of the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act No. 56 of 2003)* makes provision for community participation processes, regarding the municipal budget, integrated development plan, performance management processes, and policy development. *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005 (Act No. 13 of 2005)* has established a framework for the national government, provincial governments and local governments to promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations. *National Development Agency Act, 1998 (Act No. 108 of 1998)* aimed at promoting an appropriate and sustainable partnership between the government and civil society organisations to eradicate poverty and its causes; to determine the objects and functions of the Agency; to determine the way it is to be managed and governed; to regulate its staff matters and financial affairs; and to provide for connected matters. *White Paper for Social Welfare Service (1997)* sets out the principles, guidelines, proposed policies and programmes for developmental social welfare in South Africa. *White Paper on Population for South Africa (1998)* aims to promote the integration of

population issues in development planning with the view to achieving sustainable human development.

Despite the provision of the legislations above, there are challenges that are slowing down the mission and vision of the NDP which are caused by the COVID-19 such as; economic loss, lack of time for service delivery, increased unemployment rate, and utilisation of funds only to health care facilities (Kanjere, 2021:5; Annan, 2021:3; Jones & Carstairs, 2021:12). Due to the lockdown regulations across South Africa, many people lost their jobs in 2020 as companies reduced staff or closed (Ozili & Arun, 2020:4). Ozili and Arun (2020:4) further stress that the COVID-19 pandemic has done significant harm to an already bruised economy. Safely returning to work and actively promoting employment must be a top priority for economic policymakers and stakeholders over the coming few years. *Regulations of the Disaster Management Act, 2002 (Act No. 57 of 2002)* declares that schools were closed for a considerable period and visiting other places including churches and places of entertainment were also forbidden as a measure to contain the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.

According to the state report made by former South Africa's Statistician-General Dr Pali Lehohla (2020), it was stressed that since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, the NDP implementation has been slowed down and South Africa faces a spike in unemployment rise to 44.4%, deep-set corruption, and an overwhelmed educational and health system that has struggled to dust-off apartheid legacy problems. As indicated by the economist Miriam Altman (2020), COVID-19 and corruption are some of the reasons the NDP's targets have not been met in South Africa. Miriam Altman (2020) further indicates that the government aimed to reduce unemployment in South Africa by 25.4% in 2010 to 20% in 2015 and to 14% in 2020 and then to 6.0% in 2030, COVID-19 has caused serious problems which may limit these goals.

According to South Africa Stats (2021), South Africa recorded unemployment rate grew to 44.4% in the third quarter of 2021 which is the highest unemployment rate recorded in the Quarterly Labour Force Survey since 2008 (Garekae & Shackleton, 2020). According to the National Planning Commission (2012:34), South African society remains divided. Many schools, suburbs and places of worship are integrated, but many more are not. South Africa remains one of the most unequal economies in the world (Mosomi, 2020:42). Deep inequalities and the associated low levels of trust have a highly negative impact on economic development and make it harder to forge a social compact that could move South Africa onto a higher developmental trajectory. Armstrong, Lekezwa and Siebrits (2008:34) point that 28.4% of the population in SA lived below the poverty line in 2006. Chen and Ravallion (2013:22) mention that fewer people were regarded as poor by 2011 when the level of poverty fell to 21.4%.

However, this regressed in 2015 when poverty rose to 25.2%. According to the World Bank and the United Nations Development programme (2018), South Africa has the highest rate of inequality wherein the gap between the rich and the poor remains large. This study is conducted to come with the strategies that can be used by the Municipality to regain the pace of the mission and vision of the NDP by 2030.

1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to investigate the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030, and recommend the mechanisms that can be used to regain the pace of the National Development Plan 2030. The study intends to empirically establish the framework that can assist towards the development of all-inclusive strategies to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030 in the post-COVID-19 era.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following specific objectives of the study were used to realise the aim of the study:

- To determine the state of COVID-19 in the Vhembe District Municipality.
- To assess the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030.
- To describe COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality.
- To recommend the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following are the research questions that the researcher tried to answer during the research.

- How is the state of COVID-19 in the Vhembe District Municipality?
- What is the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030?
- What are the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?
- Which strategies could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030?

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings will assist the national government, provincial government, and the municipalities to put in place mechanisms to regain the previous pace of the NDP. The study will also assist in the implementation of the NDP to be in line with the generic functions of Public Administration and recommend strategies for the successful policy implementation. The study is expected to benefit the role-players in the NDP, such as traditional leaders, Integrated Development Plan (IDP) officials, Local Economic Development (LED) officials, Ward councillors and Community Development Workers (CDWs) to regain the momentum of the NDP and recommend improvements needed to ensure successful implementation of the NDP by 2030. The study findings will also benefit the communities within the Vhembe District Municipality by ensuring the successful implementation of the NDP which will eliminate poverty; reduce inequality and unemployment through inclusive economic growth; building human capabilities; enhancing the capacity of the communities; and promoting leadership and active citizenship throughout the Municipality. The study will promote the use of democratic and people-centred theories which encourage communities to take part in the development within their community areas. The NDP serves as an action plan for securing the future of South Africans as charted in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. The study will also serve as an entry point for further research in Corona Virus (COVID-19) and the NDP.

1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on the impact of COVID-19 in the implementation of the NDP 2030. The focus area is the Vhembe District Municipality. The study was therefore, conducted at the Vhembe District Municipality which comprised of the four local municipalities, namely Thulamela Local Municipality, Collins Chabane Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality and Makhado Local Municipality. Vhembe District Municipality is one of the district municipalities where there is a backlog in the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

1.9 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

This section provides definition of the operational concepts used in the study. The concepts are defined in logical order.

1.9.1 Corona Virus (COVID-19)

Coronavirus is a kind of common virus that causes an infection in nose, sinuses, or upper throat (Jean, 2020:5). Lombardi (2020:7) defines Coronaviruses as a family of viruses that can cause illnesses such as the common cold, severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS). Based on the above definitions, it can be deduced that COVID-19 is the pandemic that has gravely wounded the world economy with serious consequences impacting the development in all communities and individuals.

1.9.2 Implementation

Moed (2006:36) defines implementation as the series of activities undertaken by government and private institutions to achieve the goals and objectives articulated in policy statements. On the other hand, Mitchel (2013:324) defines implementation as the process of translating a policy into actions and presumptions into results through various projects and programmes. With the regard to the above definitions, the study defines implementation as the process that turns strategies and plans into actions to accomplish strategic objectives and goals.

1.9.3 Impact

Edel (2017:23) defines impact as a measure of the tangible and intangible effects (consequences) of one things or entity's action or influence upon another. Impact is one thing crashing into or influencing another. McNeill (2001:34) defines impact as a powerful effect that something, especially something new, has on someone or a thing. Impact in the context of this study refers to a powerful effect that Covid-19 has on the implementation of the NDP 2030.

1.9.4 National Development Plan

The National Development Plan 2030 is an important policy document of the South African government drafted in August 2012 by the National Planning Commission, a special ministerial body first constituted in 2009 by President Jacob Zuma (Landsberg, 2012:17). Naidoo and Maré (2015:407) define the National Development Plan as a long-term South African development plan, developed by the National Planning Commission in collaboration and consultation with South Africans from all walks of life. Referring to the above definitions, the study defines the National Development Plan as a plan to unite South Africans, unleash the energies of its citizens, grow an inclusive economy, build capabilities, and enhance the capability of the state and leaders working together to solve complex problems.

1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This research is divided into five chapters which are as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and background of the study- This chapter discusses the introduction and background to the study, problem statement, aim of the study, specific objectives of the study, critical research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, preliminary literature review, definition of operational concepts, and organisation of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review- this chapter presents formulation and introduction of the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030, vision of the NDP 2030, the details of the ndp 2030, critical success factors for the NDP 2030, external drivers of the NDP, phases of the ndp 2030, objectives of the NDP 2030, the NDP leadership and responsibility throughout society, integrated and inclusive rural economy, challenges of the NDP 2030, criticisms of the ndp 2030, NDP proposals to achieve full employment, poverty eradication and greater equity, measures to achieve the NDP 2030.

Chapter 3: COVID-19 and the implications on the National Development Plan, 2030: a theoretical perspective- This chapter outlines theoretical framework on the national development plan 2030, the status of covid-19 in south Africa, the implication of COVID-19 in the National Development Plan 2030, COVID-19 and its effect on the National Development Plan 2030, the impact of the COVID-19 on the objectives of the NDP 2030, economic recovery plan for South Africa, the NDP review as a green recovery plan, policy implications and recommendations, political interference in the COVID-19 and the implementation of the NDP 2030, the impact of COVID-19 in other countries, lessons for the future, legislative framework on the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation if the NDP 2030, progress towards achieving NDP, and empirical evidence on the effect of COVID-19 on the NDP 2030.

Chapter 4: Research methodology- This chapter presents the research design and methodology that the researcher followed when conducting research, research methodologies, study area, population of the study, sampling, sampling method, sampling size, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5: Data presentation, analysis and interpretation- This Chapter presents the data collected through questionnaires and interview. The chapter also discuss the analysis and interpretation of the collected data by discussing the sampled population's respondents as a

way of providing an understanding of the nature of the research findings on the impact of corona virus on the National Development Plan 2030.

Chapter 6: Findings, recommendations and conclusions- This Chapter discusses the findings, recommendations and conclusions. In this chapter, synthesised discussion of findings, recommendations on the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030, as well as the synthesis of the study, recommendations based on the principles of administration, future research study on a related subject and limitations of the study were discussed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE CHALLENGES OF THE NDP 2030

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter of this study provides an introduction and background as well as problem statement. This chapter provides relevant literature review on the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP 2030) and its provisions. This is done by studying the conceptual background and provisions within which an investigation and analysis on the NDP can be located. The focus of this chapter is to overview the objectives and aims of the NDP 2030.

This chapter discusses the formulation and introduction of the NDP 2030 together with the vision of the National Development Plan 2030 to overview the challenges of the National Development Plan 2030 and recommend the measures to achieve the National Development Plan by 2030.

2.2 FORMULATION AND INTRODUCTION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (NDP) 2030

The former President of South Africa Jacob Zuma appointed 26 experts, mostly outside government, to form part of a National Planning Commission to draft a vision and NDP 2030 for the country (Naidoo & Maré, 2015:407). In 2011, the National Planning Commission released a diagnostic report, which identified the South African government's achievements and failures between the periods of 1994 to 2010. Naidoo and Maré (2015:407) indicate that one of the key challenges the report addressed was a failure to implement policies and extended absence of partnerships with civil society and the private sector as the main reason for slow progress. As prostrated by Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:371), the media as well as civil society, the private sector and the general population welcomed the report as a critical and constructive assessment of the progress made in South Africa. National Planning Commission (2013) shows that the commissioners met with parliament, judiciary, national departments, provincial governments, private sector, unions and religious leaders to alert the aims and the objectives of the NDP by 2030.

Hendriks (2013:6) posits that the NDP was introduced in 2013 as a long-term strategic plan. Moreover, Hendriks (2013:6) shows that the plan serves four broad objectives such as providing overarching goals for what the South African government want to achieve by 2030; building consensus on the key obstacles to South Africa achieving these goals and what needs to be done to overcome those obstacles; providing a shared long-term strategic framework within which more detailed planning can take place to advance the long-term goals set out in

the NDP; and creating a basis for making choices about how best to use limited resources. Struckmann (2018:12) concurs that the NDP aims to ensure all South Africans attain a decent standard of living through the elimination of poverty and reduction of inequality by 2030. According to the NDP (2012:260), ten core elements of a decent standard of living identified in the plan were housing, water, electricity and sanitation; safe and reliable public transport; quality education and skills development; safety and security; social protection; quality health care; employment; recreation and leisure; clean environment; and adequate nutrition.

The NDP's vision is that, by 2030, human settlements in South Africa would have been transformed into equitable and efficient spaces with citizens living close to work with access to social facilities and necessary infrastructure (NDP, 2012:260). The plan further states that, despite reforms to the planning system, colonial and apartheid legacies still structure space across different scales. Harrison and Todes (2017:32) stress that many South Africans still live in poverty traps, including in the former homelands, where less than 30% of adults are employed compared to 55% in the cities. Harrison and Todes (2017:32) stress that 16 million South Africans had access to social grants by 2017. Over two decades into democracy, towns and cities remain fragmented, imposing high costs on households and the economy (NDP, 2012:262). Chudacoff *et al.* (2016:421) point that the housing markets enormous price cliffs also continue to act as an obstruction for the majority of black South Africans to progress up the property ladder.

Turok (2013:168) is of the view that apartheid spatial patterns should be urgently broken and replaced with a more coherent and inclusive approach to development and urban planning. Turok (2013:168) proposes the spatial patterns as to develop a strategy for densification of cities and resource allocation to promote better-located housing and human settlements; substantial investments to ensure safe, reliable and affordable public transport; introduce spatial development framework and norms, including improving the balance between location of jobs and people; conduct a comprehensive review of the grant and subsidy regime for housing to ensure diversity in product and finance options that would allow for more household choice and greater spatial mix and flexibility; the national spatial restructuring fund; introduce mechanisms that would make land markets work more effectively for the poor and support rural and urban livelihoods; provide incentives for citizen activity for local planning and development of spatial compacts; and establish a national observatory for spatial data and analysis.

2.3 VISION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

Goga (2013:88) is of the view that in 2030, South Africans will be more conscious of the things they have in common than their differences. Goga (2013:88) further view that South Africans lived experiences will progressively undermine and cut across the divisions of race, gender, space and class. The nation will be more accepting of peoples' multiple identities. In this South Africa there will be:

- Broad-based knowledge about and support for a set of values shared by all South Africans including the values contained in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.
- An inclusive society and economy. This means tackling the factors that sustain inequality of opportunity and outcomes by building capabilities and redressing the wrongs of the past.
- Increased interaction between South Africans from different social and racial groups.
- Strong leadership across society and a mobilised, active and responsible citizenry.

The NDP aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030. According to the NDP, South Africa can realise these goals by drawing on the energies of its people, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capacity of the state, and promoting leadership and partnerships throughout society.

2.3.1 Fostering constitutional values

Bellia and Clark (2017:106) posit that the Constitution is the supreme law of the land, and it aims at transforming South Africa into a more equitable, integrated and just society. The Constitution has embedded in it, values of human dignity, non-sexism, non-racialism and the rule of law. These values:

- Provide the basis for a new South African identity
- Set out a vision for how South Africa can overcome its history and build a society based on equality, freedom and dignity
- Enable South Africans to have a common bond and provides normative principles that ensure ease of life, lived side by side.
- Afford broad standards by which actions are judged to be desirable and right.

In addition, Bellia and Clark (2017:106) indicate that the Constitution is also a national compact. The essence of this compact can be found in Chapter two of the Constitution, which declares that everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit from the law. It also states that the country may pass laws that protects, or advance people disadvantaged under apartheid. These two clauses form the nub of the agreement that brought democracy and freedom in 1994. The Constitution declares that:

- South Africa belongs to all who live in it and seeks to build a society where opportunity is not defined by race, gender, class or religion.
- Redress is essential. Interventions include affirmative action, Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), preferential procurement, land reform and redistributive patterns of public spending.
- Removing the shadow of apartheid by developing the capabilities of the historically disadvantaged is necessary. This means that good quality education, basic services such as health, water, sanitation, public transport, safety and social security are all vital to address deprivation. The values in the Constitution cannot be achieved through legislation alone. Laws are unlikely to be adhered to unless people's attitudes also change. It is unsurprising, therefore, that legislation designed to prevent discrimination and address historical inequalities is often observed either cynically or not at all. This will not be resolved by passing more laws. Families, communities and schools all have a role to play in bringing up children who respect the rule of law and understand the values in the Constitution.

The NDP aims to inspire South Africans to be proud citizens and to live the non-racial values in the Constitution. The NDP will constantly guard against narrow nationalism, dislike of others or the development of a superiority complex in relation to people from other countries or continents. Nationalism, taken to an extreme, engenders new forms of racism, discrimination and chauvinism.

2.4 THE DETAILS OF THE NDP 2030 PLAN

The National Development Plan is a broad strategic framework. It sets out a coherent and holistic approach to confronting poverty and inequality based on the six focused, interlinked priorities summarised below:

2.4.1 Uniting South Africans around a common programme

Kotze (2012:89) states that the Constitution provides a vision of a united, prosperous, non-racial, and non-sexist society; a country that belongs to all who live in it, united in its diversity. Kotze (2012:89) adds that the Constitution also obliges the country to heal the divisions of the past, recognising that South Africa emerged from a system where most of its citizens were robbed of opportunity. These dual imperatives are prerequisites for successful national development. Davidson and Sahli (2015:169) indicate that uniting South Africa is both an essential input into the process of reducing poverty and inequality and a direct outcome of successful poverty reduction. To build a socially cohesive society, Sayed and Badroodien (2016:3) suggest that South Africa needs to reduce poverty and inequality by broadening opportunity and employment through economic inclusion, education and skills, and specific redress measures; promote mutual respect and inclusiveness by acting on the constitutional imperative that South Africa belongs to all who live in it, and that all are equal before the law; and deepen the appreciation of citizens' responsibilities and obligations towards one another.

Zondi (2014) states that the struggle against apartheid was first and foremost about the construction of a non-racial and nonsexist democratic society, in which all people have equal rights. Despite consistent progress since 1994, Bollens (2021) indicates that South Africa remains a divided society, with race still forming the main divide. Midtbøen (2014:1657) states that Individual stereotyping of race and ethnicity is widespread, and discrimination persists. National Planning Commission (2013) shows that the country's institutional framework and its broad economic and social trends have contributed to gradual deracialisation, but progress is not sufficient or deep enough. National Planning Commission (2013) shows that the NDP deals with these factors holistically, recognising that key priorities such as education or rural development will have the biggest impact on poor women.

Sayed *et al.* (2016:54) point that South Africa's own history and the experiences of other countries show that unity and social cohesion are necessary to meet social and economic objectives. Sayed *et al.* (2016:54) adds that it recognises the obligation of the state to reverse the effects of apartheid, in a context where all citizens feel part of the country and its programmes. Achieving and maintaining this balance requires the confluence of several factors, not all of which are under government's control (Sayed *et al.*, 2016:54). A growing economy, rising employment and incomes, falling inequality, an improving education system,

fertile conditions for entrepreneurship and career mobility will contribute significantly to uniting South Africa's people (National Planning Commission, 2013:78).

Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:121) points that programmes such as affirmative action, black economic empowerment and land reform are most effective when the economy is growing, and the education system is improving. Without such an environment, these measures can raise the level of social tension. Shava (2016) shows that the NDP makes several proposals to improve the efficacy of redress programmes, especially those relating to broadening economic opportunities for the historically disadvantaged. Bendix and Bendix (2017:32) state that nation building effort has been more difficult in periods of slower economic growth. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:255) emphasis that strong leadership is needed to promote the vision of the Constitution. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:255) add that a formal social compact may help to strengthen the alignment between growth, development, and nation building, generating a virtuous circle.

2.4.3 Citizens active in their own development

Kotze (2012:92) attests that in many respects, South Africa has an active and vocal citizenry, but an unintended outcome of government actions has been to reduce the incentive for citizens to be direct participants in their own development. Grant (2012:910) views that active citizenry and social activism is necessary for democracy and development to flourish. Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:438) accede that the state cannot merely act on behalf of the people – it must act with the people, working together with other institutions to provide opportunities for the advancement of all communities. Zondi (2014:120) is of the view that all sectors of society, including the legislatures and judiciary, must ensure that the fruits of development accrue to the poorest and most marginalised, offsetting possible attempts by elites to protect their own interests at the expense of less-powerful communities.

Plessing (2020:57) reveals that Legislation provides numerous avenues for citizens to participate in governance beyond elections. Bénit-Gbaffou (2012:178) states that forums such as school governing bodies, ward committees, community policing forums and clinic committees provide voice to citizens and opportunities to shape the institutions closest to them. Communities can also participate in drafting local government plans. Despite these avenues, Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:125) indicate that there is growing distance between citizens and the government. Grant (2012:321) points that outbreaks of violence in some community protests reflect frustration not only over the pace of service delivery, but also concerns that communities are not being listened to sincerely. As suggested by Bendix and Bendix (2017:243), better communication, more honesty, and a greater degree of humility by those in power would go a long way towards building a society that can solve problems

collectively and peacefully. Plessing (2020:172) shows that citizens have a responsibility to dissuade leaders from taking narrow, short-sighted, and populist positions. Shava (2016:162) is of the view that robust public discourse and a culture of peaceful protest will contribute to a deeper understanding of the challenges facing communities and reinforce accountability among elected officials. For example, Shava (2016:162) states that if learning outcomes in a school are below their legitimate expectations, a community can help to remedy the situation by strengthening school governance, ensuring that learners and teachers are punctual, and that the support structures from public officials are effective.

2.4.3 A capable and Developmental state

Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:128) state that NDP 2030 is only as credible as its delivery mechanism is viable. Davidson and Sahli (2015:170) point that there is a real risk that South Africa's developmental agenda could fail because the state is incapable of implementing it. Erlingsson *et al.* (2015:195) indicate that the commission makes far-reaching institutional reform proposals to remedy the uneven and often poor performance of the public service and local government. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012) reveal that a developmental state tackles the root causes of poverty and inequality. Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:127) attest that South African developmental state will intervene to support and guide development so that benefits accrue across society (especially to the poor) and build consensus so that long-term national interest trumps short-term, sectional concerns.

Sayed *et al.* (2016:55) view that a developmental state needs to be capable, but a capable state does not materialise by decree, nor can it be legislated or waved into existence by declarations. Sayed and Badroodien (2016:14) state that it requires leadership, sound policies, skilled managers and workers, clear lines of accountability, appropriate systems, and consistent and fair application of rules. While there are cases where policy must change, Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:257) maintain that government often underestimates the disruptive effect of major policy adjustments on service delivery. Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:130) indicate that to achieve the aspiration of a capable and developmental state, the country needs to enhance parliament's oversight role, stabilise the political administrative interface, professionalise the public service, upgrade skills and improve coordination. It also needs a more pragmatic and proactive approach to managing the intergovernmental system to ensure a better fit between responsibility and capacity (Ntim & Soobaroyen, 2013:130). Equally, Davidson and Sahli (2015:12) mention that the state needs to be prepared to experiment, to learn from experience and to adopt diverse approaches to reach common objectives.

Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:240) state that there are critical shortages of good-quality doctors, engineers, information technology professionals, forensic specialists, detectives, planners, accountants, prosecutors, curriculum advisors and so on. In addition, Erlingsson *et al.* (2015:198) indicate that management ability of senior staff operating in a complex organisational, political, and social context requires greater attention. To solve both the technical and managerial skills shortages, Midtbøen (2014:1657) states that government must take a long-term perspective on developing the skills it needs through career pathing, mentoring, and closer partnerships with universities and schools of management. Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:131) reveal that accountability is essential to democracy, although there are several weaknesses in the accountability chain, with a general culture of blame-shifting. Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:131) add that the accountability chain must be strengthened from top to bottom. To begin with, Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:450) state that parliamentary accountability is weak, with Parliament failing to fulfil its most basic oversight role.

Bénit-Gbaffou (2012:180) stresses that education outcomes cannot improve unless accountability is reinforced throughout the system, from learner results to the delivery of textbooks. Bollens (2021:1660) states that the rising number of service delivery protests indicates that the state also needs to make it easier for citizens to raise concerns. When entering a public building, Shava (2016) views that citizens should be able to see what service they can expect, and where to go and who to talk to if they are not satisfied. Zondi (2014:105) indicates that accountability in state-owned enterprises has been blurred through a complex, unclear appointment process and, at times, undue political interference. Davidson and Sahli (2015:175) recommend clarifying lines of accountability by developing public-interest mandates that set out how each state-owned enterprise serves the public interest, ensuring appointment processes are meritocratic and transparent, and improving coordination between the policy and shareholder departments. Kotze (2012:90) states that improvements have been achieved in the efficiency of service delivery in pockets of government, notably the South African Revenue Service and pilot projects in the Departments of Home Affairs, Health, and Justice. Kotze (2012:90) adds that operations management and system improvements have been at the heart of these reforms, and these successes need to be replicated in more areas of government. Moreover, Kotze (2012:90) is of the view that these experiences show what can be achieved when leaders and staff are committed to working together to improve performance.

Bollens (2021:23) states that the efficacy of the intergovernmental system is a hotly debated subject. The different spheres of government are interdependent, and we need to find ways of ensuring they work together more effectively. The NDP 2030 proposes a change of approach away from trying to find new structural arrangements, which is destabilising, towards

identifying and resolving specific weaknesses in coordination and capacity (Ntim & Soobaroyen, 2013:129). Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:261) articulate that the state needs to improve its management of the system, including mediating agreements between district and local municipalities where there is duplication or conflict over the allocation of responsibilities and resources. Zondi (2014:109) is of the view that provinces should focus on their core functions and develop their capacity to support and oversee local government. Zondi (2014:109) adds that the constitutional framework allows for more differentiation in the allocation of powers and functions, and this should be used to ensure a better fit between the capacity and responsibilities of provinces and municipalities. Shava (2016:165) indicates that the existing system can be improved, with clarification of responsibilities in the areas of housing, water, sanitation, electricity, and public transport. National Planning Commission (2013) indicates that large cities should be given greater fiscal and political powers to coordinate human settlement upgrading, transport and spatial planning. In other areas, regional utilities could provide services on behalf of less well-resourced municipalities, but this must be led by municipalities to avoid undermining democratic accountability for service delivery (National Planning Commission, 2013).

2.5 CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS FOR THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

The role of the National Planning Commission is to advise government and the country on issues affecting the country's long-term development. The NDP is for the entire country, and all sections of society need to take responsibility for making it a reality. To successfully implement the NDP, the Commission identifies a series of critical success factors.

2.5.1 Focused leadership

Because the plan is designed to bring about fundamental change over a period of nearly two decades, Hoppe *et al.* (2013:283) indicate that it requires a degree of policy consistency that straddles changes in leadership in government, business, and labour. Many aspects of the plan will require years of effort to deliver results. For example, Hoppe *et al.* (2013:283) show that the transition to a low-carbon economy will need long-term policies and spatial planning regulations will take decades to overcome the geographic divisions of apartheid. Policy changes should be approached cautiously based on experience and evidence so that the country does not lose sight of its long-term objectives.

2.5.2 A plan for all

National Planning Commission (2013) shows that a broad support across society is needed for the successful implementation of the NDP 2030. In a vibrant democracy this support will

not be uncritical. Moyo and Mamobolo (2014:13) state that vigorous debate is essential for building consensus and broad-based ownership of the NDP. Moyo and Mamobolo (2014:13) add that constructive debate also contributes to nation building by enabling South Africans to develop a better understanding and to take ownership of priorities. National Planning Commission (2013) indicates that different parts of the NDP require buy-in and sacrifice from different sectors. Bendix and Bendix (2017) attest that when differences occur, it is important that the reasons for disagreement are debated and clearly explained, so that there can be broad consensus on the way forward. Bendix and Bendix (2017) further attest that National Planning Commission can use its convening power to bring stakeholders together to facilitate dialogue and develop solutions.

2.5.3 Institutional capability

Plessing (2020:213) articulates that much of the NDP deals with the institutional reforms required overcoming weaknesses in the public sector, particularly where public agencies are unable to meet their responsibilities to poor communities. Plessing (2020:213) adds that these proposals are about developing the attributes necessary to support the plan. Medvedev (2016:327) shows that institutions improve through continuous learning and incremental steps; tackling the most serious problem, resolving it and moving to the next priority. This requires good management, a commitment to high performance, an uncompromising focus on ethics and a willingness to learn from experience (Medvedev, 2016:327). National Planning Commission (2013) shows that several challenges require attention, including a critical shortage of skills, a complex intergovernmental system, high levels of corruption, weak lines of accountability, inadequate legislative oversight, and a long history of blurring the lines between party and state. These are difficult issues, requiring honest reflection, careful planning and decisive leadership.

2.5.4 Resource mobilisation and agreement on trade-offs

Ampaire *et al.* (2020:43) attest that National Development Plan will shape resource allocations over the next two decades, but it will not determine annual budgets. Hoppe *et al.* (2013:287) indicate that the best way to generate resources to implement the NDP is to grow the economy faster. Erlingsson *et al.* (2015:199) state that if the economy grows by more than 5% a year, government revenue and the profits of private firms will be more than double over the next years. Todes and Turok (2018:6) accede that the NDP supports government's intention to gradually shift state resources towards investments that reshape the economy, broaden opportunities, and enhance capabilities. Moyo and Mamobolo (2014:951) reveal that South Africa must improve the quality of spending through better planning, sound procurement systems and greater competition in the economy.

Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:441) show that there is a need for greater efficiency in all areas of government expenditure because the overall envelope is likely to grow relatively slowly over the medium term. Bénit-Gbaffou (2012:179) views that attention needs to be given to managing the government wage bill, making resources available for other priorities. Bénit-Gbaffou (2012:179) adds that this will involve balancing competing pressures such as increasing staff numbers, adequately remunerating skilled professionals, and improving benefit coverage. The National Planning Commission (2013) states that NDP proposes a three-pronged human resources strategy involving a long-term training strategy, better outputs from the higher-education sector and strategic allocation of scarce resources.

2.5.5 Clarity on responsibility

Vanoli (2014:38) articulate that a recurring theme in the NDP is that the accountability chain needs to be tightened. Vanoli (2014:38) adds that the public needs a clearer sense of who is accountable for what. Moyo and Mamobolo (2014) is of the view that there need to be systems to hold all leaders in society accountable for their conduct. Hoppe *et al.* (2013:287) show that weak, poorly performing systems make it hard to attribute responsibility, with the frequent result that no one is accountable. The National Planning Commission (2013:34) indicate that NDP cites the example of what happens when the water in a town is found to be undrinkable. Stranieri *et al.* (2019:481) show that the establishment of the Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation is a positive step to tighten the accountability chain. The National Planning Commission (2013) calls for shareholder compacts with state-owned enterprises and performance agreements with Cabinet ministers to be made public. Todes and Turok (2018:12) state that it needs to be clear when parties outside government are responsible for implementing parts of the NDP 2030.

Haywood *et al.* (2019:555) state that business, labour and civil society are diverse groupings and rarely speak with a common voice. Nevertheless, Medvedev (2016:333) indicate that clear

responsibilities and accountability chains, including with social partners, are essential for the success of the NDP. Vanoli (2014:12) mentions that working together to realise objectives in the NDP will help to build trust both within and between sectors. Critically, National Planning Commission (2013:45) shows that NDP emphasises the urgent need to make faster progress on several fronts to sustainably reduce poverty and inequality. The National Development Plan is based on extensive research, consultation, and engagement (National Planning Commission, 2013:45). While it is neither perfect nor complete, Haywood *et al.* (2019:557) show that NDP sets out firm proposals to solve the country's problems, and to deepen the engagement of South Africans from all walks of life in building our future. Haywood *et al.* (2019:557) add that South Africa seek to build by 2030 is just, fair, prosperous, and equitable.

2.6 EXTERNAL DRIVERS OF THE NDP

South Africa's development is affected by what happens in the region and the world. Success will depend on the country's understanding and response to such developments. The NDP discusses five notable trends: global economic shifts, technology, globalisation, climate change and African economic growth.

2.6.1 A changing global economy

Ikenberry (2018:) reviews that long-term shifts in global trade and investment are reshaping the world economy and international politics. Thompson (2016:127) adds that example of these developments is the emergence of rapidly growing economies, particularly China, India and Brazil. Hoppe *et al.* (2013:292) view that after nearly three centuries of divergence, inequality between nations is decreasing while, urbanisation and industrialisation in China and India are likely to keep demand for natural resources relatively high for a decade or more. Plessing (2020:143) states that the emergence of more consumers in developing countries will broaden opportunities for all economies.

Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:258) is of the view that in decades to come, as emerging economies increase their share of world trade and investment, the relative decline in the economic weight of the United States, Europe and Japan will have concomitant effects on their political and military influence. This could lead to a reorganisation of the international diplomatic and governance architecture, reflecting new centres of influence. Bénit-Gbaffou (2012) states that South Africa can benefit from rapid growth in developing countries that leads to increased demand for commodities and expanding consumer markets. At the same time, Grant (2012:181) adds that these trends pose challenges for middle-income countries because of greater competition in manufacturing and certain information technology-enabled

services. Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:125) point that the rise of emerging markets also increases international competition, placing downward pressure on the wages of low-skilled workers in tradable sectors.

Over the past years, Sayed and Badroodien (2016:9) show that South Africa's exports to advanced economies have slowed in response to lower demand. Badroodien (2016:9) adds that this decline has been offset by increased demand from Asia and higher prices for commodities. While South Africa has maintained a reasonably sound trade balance, Kotze (2012:92) stresses that owing largely to high commodity prices, it is of concern that high value-added and labour-intensive exports are slowing. In the medium term, Davidson and Sahli (2015:169) view that South Africa must respond to this trend by bolstering competitiveness and investment in high value-added industries and increasing the volume of mineral exports. Over the longer term, Shava (2016:166) states that South Africa must do more to enhance competitiveness in areas of comparative advantage that can draw more people into work. By improving the skills base and increasing competitiveness, Midtbøen (2014:1660) states that the economy can diversify, offsetting the distorting effects of elevated commodity prices on the rand. Zondi (2014:120) emphasises that it is likely that world economic growth over the next decade will be lower than it was during the previous one. This will require greater policy focus, effective implementation of industrial policies and improved skills development.

2.6.2 Globalisation

Verbeke *et al.* (2018:1101) state that globalisation broadly refers to rising global trade and increased flows of people, capital, ideas, and technologies across borders in recent decades. Verbeke *et al.* (2018:1101) adds that these trends have generally supported the development of poor and middle-income countries, enabling them to access markets, goods, services, capital, technology, and skills. Khambule (2019:134) indicates that globalisation has also contributed to a growing interconnectedness that has lowered barriers to entry and expanded the reach of knowledge. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:160) attest that the current economic slowdown in developed countries poses a significant risk to developing countries.

Bantwini and Letseka (2016:329) state that South Africa's experience of globalisation includes tangible benefits and increased complexity. Bantwini and Letseka (2016:329) add that the challenge is to take advantage of opportunities while protecting South Africans especially the poor from the risks associated with new trade and investment patterns. For example, Haywood *et al.* (2019:568) show that South Africa has a low level of savings and relies on foreign capital to finance its investments. Stranieri *et al.* (2019:481) point that dependence on external capital flows increases the risk of volatility in the domestic economy. Welfle (2017:83) shows that

slower growth in developed countries has been accompanied by strong demand from developing countries, contributing to a welcome rebalancing of the country's exports. Welfle (2017:83) adds that this trend poses a challenge for policy makers and manufacturers because present demand from emerging markets is weighted towards commodities and raw materials, rather than a more diversified basket of products required by developed countries.

2.6.3 Africa's development

Thompson (2016:130) indicates that economies of many African countries have grown more rapidly over the past decade, significantly reducing extreme poverty for the first time in about half a century, and the continent has carved out a greater voice in global institutions. On the political front, Haywood *et al.* (2019:656) state that democracy has made uneven headway. Moyo and Mamobolo (2014:950) articulate that the recent uprisings in North Africa are a stark reminder of the risks of poor governance and weak institutions that allow elites to accumulate wealth at the expense of the people. Todes and Turok (2018:122) state that strong African growth also provides opportunities for South African firms and industries, which have contributed to development by investing in telecommunications, banking, mining, construction, and retail.

Medvedev (2016:330) attests that closer partnership between countries, firms and people would deepen economic and social integration, contributing to higher rates of growth and development. Davidson and Sahli (2015:172) are of the view that several structural weaknesses can be solved if Africa is to translate rapid growth and higher demand for commodities into rising employment and living standards. Crucially, Bollens (2021:436) states that poor transport links and infrastructure networks, as well as tariff and non-tariff barriers, raise the cost of doing business and hobble both investment and internal trade. Bollens (2021:436) adds that weak legal institutions and, in some cases, poor governance heighten the risks of investing. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:265) state that the picture is improving steadily, but challenges remain, including in the Southern African Development Community (SADC), which faces hurdles related to infrastructure, trade barriers and governance.

Bénit-Gbaffou (2012:181) is of the view that while South Africa will find it difficult to compete in low-skills manufacturing because of its high-cost structure, many countries on the continent can compete as production costs rise in East Asia. Erlingsson *et al.* (2015) articulate that several of South Africa's challenges can only be addressed through regional cooperation. Grant (2012:915) shows that there are other areas in which complementary national endowments offer opportunities for mutually beneficial cooperation. For example, states that South Africa should invest in and help exploit the wide range of opportunities for low-carbon

energy from hydroelectric and other clean energy sources in Southern Africa (Grant, 2012:915).

2.6.4 Climate change

Shava (2016:166) states that emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases are changing the earth's climate, potentially imposing a significant global cost that will fall disproportionately on the poor. Erlingsson *et al.* (2015:202) is of the view that rising temperatures, more erratic rainfall and extreme weather events are likely to take a heavy toll on Africa, with an increased spread of tropical diseases and growing losses (human and financial) from droughts and flooding. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:261) show that climate change has the potential to reduce food production and the availability of potable water, with consequences for migration patterns and levels of conflict. Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:450) state that South Africa is not only a contributor to greenhouse gas emissions but also particularly vulnerable to the effects of climate change on health, livelihoods, water and food, with a disproportionate impact on the poor, especially women and children. While adapting to these changes, Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:450) indicate that industries and households must reduce their negative impact on the environment. This will require far-reaching changes to the way people live and work. Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:125) mention that the impact of climate change is global in scope and global solutions must be found, with due consideration to regional and national conditions.

2.6.5 Technological changes

Plessing (2020) indicates that science and technology continue to revolutionise the way goods and services are produced and traded. As a middle-income country, Rostow (2017:154) points that South Africa needs to use its knowledge and innovative products to compete. On its own, Wallerstien (2015:143) views that a more competitive cost of production will not be sufficient to expand the global presence of South African industry. This applies to both new industries and traditional sectors, such as mining. Shava (2016:170) views that innovation is necessary for a middle-income country to develop. Additionally, Shava (2016:170) states that science and technology can also be leveraged to solve some of the biggest challenges in education and health. Pakstaitis (2019:231) reveals that many parts of Africa that have never enjoyed fixed-line telephony are widely served by efficient cellular phone networks that provide a range of services.

Today, Parsons (2020:145) shows that about 17% of South Africa's population can access internet with the rising number of 20% a year. Medvedev (2016:327) attests that the use of

digital communications has changed society in the ways that are not yet fully understood. It is clear, however, that young people have embraced the new media, and this represents a potentially powerful means of fostering social inclusion (Stranieri, 2019:490). Aluko (2021:245) views that South Africa needs to sharpen its innovative edge and continue contributing to global scientific and technological advancement. This requires greater investment in research and development, better use of existing resources, and more nimble institutions that facilitate innovation and enhanced cooperation between public science and technology institutions and the private sector. To this end, Haywood *et al.* (2019:557) is of the view that the institutional arrangements to manage the information, communications and technology (ICT) environment need to be better structured to ensure that South Africa does not fall victim to a digital divide.

2.7 PHASES OF THE NDP 2030

These phases are divided into three

2.7.1 The first phase (2012–2017)

National Planning Commission (2013:485) shows that movement towards an inclusive and dynamic economy requires that the country should urgently launch the virtuous cycle that allows it to move to a new growth trajectory. In the early years, Moyo and Mamobolo (2014:951) state that emphasis was on absorbing the unemployed, especially young people, into economic activity. Humphreys (2013:341) conveys by indicating that higher mining export during this period of high commodity prices helped to pay for the development of capabilities and endowments to forge a new path in the economy of the future. Ray and Ing (2016:3) are of the view that the country needs urgent investments in rail, water and energy infrastructure, alongside regulatory reforms that provide policy certainty. At the same time, Bantwini and Letseka (2016:331) state that private sector should commit more investments to supplier industries for the infrastructure programme and in general economic capacity while capital costs are low, and imported equipment is cheaper. Swanepoel (2012:256) indicates that opportunities for large exports to sub-Saharan Africa and other destinations in the developing world should be creatively pursued.

National Planning Commission (2013:174) indicates that NDP identifies several steps required to move towards successful implementation of the vision 2030. These include prioritising actions that lift key constraints to economic expansion, even though the government's responsibility is necessarily broader (National Planning Commission, 2013:174). In the first five years, National Planning Commission (2013:312) states that government will commit to doubling the annual expansion in high-skills supply and improving education in primary and secondary levels; improving the labour relations environment Interventions to improve labour-

market matching; ensuring the supply of energy and water is reliable and sufficient for a growing economy and ensure that responsibilities of municipal maintenance of distribution systems are appropriately allocated and funded Intensifying research and development spending; and changing the approach to land tenure systems in ways that stimulate production and economic opportunity, thereby reducing uncertainty and expanding public employment programmes rapidly.

2.7.2 The second phase (2018–2023)

Khambule (2019:186) emphasises that South Africa should focus on diversifying the economic base. This should include building the capacities required to produce capital and intermediary goods for the infrastructure programme and sub-Saharan Africa. It should include resource-cluster development for the mining industry, combining production of capital goods, provision of engineering services, and beneficiation that targets identified opportunities (Verbeke *et al*, 2018:1111). In this phase, Plessing (2020:145) shows that South Africa should lay the foundations for more intensive improvements in productivity. Stranieri (2019:488) points that innovation across state, business and social sectors should start to become pervasive. Ampaire *et al.* (2020:50) view that centres of learning should be aligned to industrial clusters with potential for domestic and global linkages. Ampaire *et al.* (2020:50) indicates that Innovation should also focus on improved public services and on goods and services aimed at low-income sectors.

2.7.3 Approaching 2030

As South Africa approaches 2030, Bollens (2021:103) states that the emphasis should be on consolidating the gains of the second phase, with greater emphasis on innovation, improved productivity, more intensive pursuit of a knowledge economy and better exploitation of comparative and competitive advantages in an integrated continent. Closer to 2030, Ampaire *et al.* (2020:51) argue that South Africa should be approaching developed world status, with the quality of life greatly improved, with skilled labour becoming the predominant feature of the labour force and with levels of inequality greatly reduced. After nearly 10 years of consistent poverty reduction, Valensisi (2020:1540) is of the view that the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to reverse the vision of the NDP 2030, as the toll is expected to be worse for the poor and vulnerable groups. Pan and Zhang (2020:157) indicate that the pandemic will set the economy back by several years, but the pre-COVID economy was far below the expectations of the NDP.

2.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

The following discussion focuses on the objectives on the National Development Plan 2030.

2.8.1 An economy that will create more jobs

Roberts (2014:1167) reveals that the NDP charts a course towards a decent life for all South Africans by 2030, with full employment, greater equality, and the elimination of poverty. Horn and Grugel (2018:73) accede that the NDP offers a set of values, aligned to the Constitution, and gives guidance to policymakers and civil society about what needs to be done to achieve that ambitious goal. Du Toit and Neves (2014:833) note that the NDP proposes a development path that enables broader access to livelihood opportunities, either through employment or self-employment, on the back of a growing and more inclusive economy. World Bank Group (2016:231) advises that sustainable employment creation and shared prosperity substantially rely on creating an enabling structural environment for broader economic participation and strengthening investments in human resource development. Denhardt (2015:412) shows that given the prominence of the public service in government budgets, it is essential that it contributes to greater state productivity and improved service delivery. Brockway *et al.* (2021:110) argue that even small performance improvements could have a significant impact on economy-wide performance and productivity, and therefore on growth and employment.

Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:377) contend that the NDP sets a target of reducing unemployment from 25.4% in 2010 to 20% by 2015, 14% by 2020 and 6.0% by 2030. Scheyvens, Banks and Hughes (2016:377) further view that achieving these goals would have entailed the creation of 2.2 million jobs between 2010 and 2015 at an annual average of 436 000, on the back of an average GDP growth rate of about 4.6% per annum. Moreover, Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:377) also view that between 2015 and 2020, the average rate of job creation should have risen to 505 000 per annum creating an additional 2.5 million jobs. In addition, Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:377) point that between 2020 and 2030, an acceleration of the average GDP growth rate to 5.3% per annum should have given rise to a further 6.3 million jobs.

Falebita and Koul (2018:130) reveal that while the target for total employment growth by 2015 was almost reached, the gap between what the NDP wanted to achieve, and actual performance has widened since then. Falebita and Koul (2018:130) further indicate that by 2019, total employment was 1.5 million below what was required to be on-track in meeting the NDP Vision 2030 target. Dorrington *et al.* (2020:512) argue that the average annual growth in employment between 2010 and 2019 was 256 000 compared with an NDP target of almost 400 000 a year. This translates into achieving only 64% of the additional employment targeted by the NDP. Dr Pali Lehohla (2019) stresses that since the beginning of the COVID-19

pandemic, the NDP implementation has been slowed down and South Africa has faced a spike in unemployment rise to 44.4%.

Ghaznavi *et al.* (2019:8) argue that between 2015 and 2019, people in the 15 to 24 and 25 to 34 age groups were the only ones to experience a decline in total employment, with a combined fall of 355 000. Over the same period, the working age population falling within these age groups increased by 600 000 (Ghaznavi *et al.*, 2019:8). Dohm and Shniper (2007:86) reveal that over the 2008–2016 period, almost 1.3 million jobs were created and those aged 15 to 24 lost 335 000 jobs between 2008 and 2012, with no subsequent recovery. Dohm and Shniper (2007:86) further stress that those between the ages of 25 and 34 lost 187 000 jobs in the first period, and just barely recovered by 2016. Moreover, Dohm and Shniper (2007:86) shows that the labour force of 15- to 34-year-old employment expanded by 1.2 million. Lambrecht and Tucker (2019:2966) stress that in 2019, 57% of people in the 15 to 24 age group and 35% of those in the 25 to 34 age group who actively looked for employment were unable to find work. Lambrecht and Tucker (2019:2966) further indicate that job creation went to those over the age of 35, with about 1.57 million jobs created, compared to labour force growth of 2.9 million for 35- to 64-year-olds.

Quillian *et al.* (2019:467) shows that by 2019, 89% of all unemployed were black African, which was higher than their share of the labour force which is 79%. The official unemployment rates across different races ranged from only 7% for Whites to 12% for Indians, 23% for Coloureds, and 40% for black Africans (Quillian *et al.*, 2019:467). Quillian, Heath, Pager, Midtbøen, Fleischmann and Hexel (2019:467) further agree that while this situation has its origins in the 1960s and 1970s when unemployment accelerated for the black workforce, and already exceeded 20% by 1978 (Bell, 1984), it has continued to deteriorate since then. Mabunda (2018:142) claims that volatility in employment has almost completely been felt by black African workers, who accounted for 84% (668 000) of the jobs lost between 2008 and 2010, and for more than 100% (2.6 million) of the jobs gained between 2010 and 2019.

2.8.2 An inclusive and integrated rural economy

Hart *et al.* (2020:23) are of the view that South Africa's rural communities should have greater opportunities to participate fully in the economic, social and political life of the country, supported by good-quality education, health care, and transport. Binswanger-Mkhize (2014:253) asserts that successful land reform, job creation and rising agricultural production will contribute to the development of an inclusive rural economy. South Africa's hinterland is marked by high levels of poverty and joblessness, with limited employment in agriculture (Akinola, 2021:235). In addition, Akinola (2021:235) stresses that apartheid system forced much of the African population into barren rural reserves. The result was an advanced and

diversified commercial farming sector relying on poorly paid farm labour, and impoverished, densely populated communities with limited economic opportunities and minimal government services (Akinola, 2021:237). Mabunda (2018:52) indicates that NDP serves as a plan that will provide basic services that enable people to develop capabilities to take advantage of opportunities around the country; enabling them to contribute to their communities through remittances and skills transfer.

2.8.3 Improving the quality of education, training and innovation

As indicated by Natrass (2014:87), the NDP recognises that education is an important tool that can see the country out of its present challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequality. Natrass (2014:87) further reveals that one of the opening statements of the NDP document highlight education, training and innovation as being central to South Africa's long-term development. Nair and Sagarán (2015:95) support that the latter are core elements in the process of eliminating poverty and reducing inequality, and the foundation of an equal society. Education empowers people to define their identity, take control of their lives, raise healthy families, take part confidently in developing a just society, and play an effective role in the politics and governance of their communities" (National Planning Commission, 2012:30). With that basic importance of education in mind, the NDP also wished to see South Africa and its people equally and meaningfully engaging in the economy (National Planning Commission, 2012:30). The goals of the NDP on higher education are as follows; Increase university science and mathematics entrants to 450 000, increase graduation rates to more than twenty-five per cent (25%) by 2030, increase participation rates to more than thirty per cent (30%), and produce more than one hundred (100) doctoral graduates per million per year by 2030.

2.8.3.1 Increase university science and mathematics entrants to 450 000

Buys (2018:135) mentions that by 2030, science and mathematics should be revitalised through the increased number of school leavers who are eligible to study science and mathematics-based subjects at university. The number of people embarking on careers in science and technology should be at least three times the current levels (National Planning Commission 2012:72). Wang (2013:1081) argues that increasing the number of entrants into institutions of higher learning is not the sole focus; these entrants should play a part in increasing the number of those students' doing science and mathematics. Moreover, Wang (2013:1081) posits that the higher the number of students in these fields, the likelier it will become to have a powerful strategic force.

2.8.3.2 Increase graduation rates to more than twenty-five per cent (25%) by 2030

Buys (2018:165) is of the view that achieving a 25 per cent graduation rate will require an increase in the number of graduates from the combined total of 167 469 for private and public higher education institutions to a combined total of 425 000 by 2030. As part of this target, the number of science, technology, engineering and mathematics graduates should increase significantly (Buys, 2018:165). Buys (2018:165) further reveals that out of all entrants that get into higher education, not all of them are able to complete their studies for various reasons such as a lack of funds, inability to meet the pass requirements, and pregnancy. Wang (2013:1089) posits that the increase in mathematics and science entrants is the core focus for any country with the vision to meet developmental goals.

2.8.3.3 Increase participation rates to more than thirty per cent (30%)

Matukane and Bronkhorst (2017:5) are of the view that enrolments in the higher education sector including private higher education will need to increase to 1 620 000, from 950 000 in 2010. New universities in Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape and the new medical school in Limpopo contributed to the expansion of capacity in the higher education sector (National Planning Commission, 2012:102). Buys (2018:166) shows that as the government increase the budget for higher education every year, and the NDP call for strong involvement of the public sector in helping to steer the country towards a greener pasture, there is a larger number of learners who can be given bursaries after completing basic education.

2.8.3.4 Produce more than one- hundred (100) doctoral graduates per million per year by 2030

Mouton (2011:13) states that in 2010, South Africa produced 28 PhD graduates per million per year. This is very low by international standards. In comparison, Cardoso, Ong, Jacob-Filho, Jaluul, Freitas, and Cozzolino (2010:803) show that university of Sao Paulo has 90 000 students and produces 2 400 PhD graduates per year. Nkomo (2015:242) points that to achieve the target of 100 PhD graduates per million per year, South Africa needs more than 5 000 PhD graduates per year against the figure of 1 420 in 2010. If South Africa is to be a leading inventor, most of these doctorates should be in science, engineering, technology and mathematics (National Planning Commission, 2012:103). Wang (2013:1090) notes that the

NDP looks to place South Africa among the best countries in the world, ensuring that, through the well-equipped graduates, the country can compete shoulder to shoulder with global giants such as China and the USA in terms of production, innovation and general knowledge.

Buys (2018:167) indicates that south Africa needs to do more to encourage the pursuit of doctoral degrees by students and these students need to be enticed whichever way necessary to have the 93 commitment and interest to further their studies beyond undergraduate level. Matukane and Bronkhorst (2017:5) state that South Africa needs to increase the percentage of PhD qualified staff within the higher education sector, from the 34 per cent level in 2010 to over 75 per cent by 2030. Wang (2013:1095) supports that NDP aims to double the number of graduates and postgraduates especially PhDs to improve research and innovation capacity and normalise staff demographics. A learning and research environment needs to be created that is welcoming to all, eliminating all forms of discrimination and other intolerances within the system (National Planning Commission, 2012:164).

2.8.3.1.1 The policy proposals for the NDP to achieve better education by 2030

To achieve the bold plans, the NDP provides the necessary steps. These plans are as bold as the targets and rely heavily on the need for cooperation between government, private sector, universities and professional bodies. The NDP document still emphasises the need to focus on mathematics, science, engineering and technology as important fields that will enhance the capacity of the country to become innovative.

2.8.3.1.1.1 Improve system for skills planning and shaping the production of skills

Haywood *et al.* (2019:555) are of the view that for the NDP targets to be realised, there needs to be focus on enhancing the capacity of those institutions that are tasked with providing skills such as universities and colleges. The first and most important step would be to identify all the skills that are needed and focus on those through measures such as the allocation of funds (Haywood *et al.*, 2019:555). Garousi *et al.* (2019:62) indicate that DHET has compiled a list of critical skills that are needed in the country such as mathematics, engineering and technology. According to the National Planning Commission (2012:251), to improve systems for skills planning and shaping the production of skills, the education and training system should be able to respond to the skills needs that are mathematics, engineering and technology. This requires an improved capacity, drawing on both private and public providers of trainers.

Bedwell *et al.* (2014:171) point that the system for skills should include a focus on building relationships with workplaces, and the development of both training curricula and skilled trainers.

National Planning Commission (2012:251) reveals that in making system for skills practicable, the NDP suggests to establish a national skills planning system to conduct labour market research and produce different skills scenarios, which should inform training providers; Develop the capacity of the levy-grant institutions; the scope of the Sector Education and Training Authorities must be refined to remove overlaps in government institutions; Training for start-ups and emerging businesses, rural development, adult basic education and training, and community development should be supported by money from the National Skills Fund (NSF) and managed by the relevant departments or agencies, such as the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA), *Kha Ri Gude* and the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA); increase linkages between post-school education and workplaces building on the commitments in the Skills Accord; increase funding modalities and systems; and increase access to career guidance and placement services.

2.8.3.1.1.2 Develop a diverse range of providers of further education and training

Matukane and Bronkhorst (2017:10) are of the opinion that to ensure that the large number of students finishing basic education will be accommodated, there needs to be a large pull of providers of tertiary education, and further education and training in particular. Matukane and Bronkhorst (2017:10) further add that not all learners who complete Grade 12 will be eligible for university enrolment, but these are still important and have a role to play in moving the country towards the realisation of the goals of the NDP. Moreover, Matukane and Bronkhorst (2017:10) posits that government as stated previously, cannot achieve these goals alone, it is for this reason that the private sector is needed, and it is only through this cooperation that success will be possible. Nkomo (2015:145) indicates that those institutions that are already in place such as Eskom that provides bursaries need to be improved and they also need to build onto their existing strength to contribute meaningfully to the idea of a diverse post-school system that is central to the goals of the NDP.

2.8.3.1.1.3 Enhance the innovative capacity of the nation

Haywood *et al.* (2019:560) suggest that a nation that does not recognise the need for innovation and does not put measures in place for this enhancement, will live a life of perpetual and never play a significant role in contributing something worthy of recognition to the global world. Haywood *et al.* (2019:560) add that it is a nation that will always rely on imports, something that will surely harm the economy whether through short- or long-term alliances. Garousi *et al.* (2019:70) accede that to achieve innovation so often referred to, South Africa

needs a strong focus on enhancing its innovation capacity. Garousi *et al.* (2019:70) further support that a sure platform for this lies in the production of brilliant minds at the country's institutions of higher learning. As shown by Buys (2018:191) universities have an immense role to play as a polisher of the talent that comes through from mostly incapacitated backgrounds, where schools simply did not have the resources, human or otherwise, to encourage and nurture the raw ideas displayed by future leaders of the country. According to the National Planning Commission (2012:180), the science and innovation system in the country is relatively small but now caters for a wider base racially. What has been an obstacle so far is building the base of science, technology, innovation and skilled human resources.

The National Planning Commission (2012:181) states that schoolteachers, as well as staff and programs in *Dinaledi* schools, should be evaluated to ensure they have adequate knowledge of science, technology, engineering and mathematics. Haywood, Funke, Audouin, Musvoto and Nahman (2019:71) declares that higher education institutions should extend the length of their science, technology, engineering and mathematics degrees to four years, and redesign the first year of the course to make it more accessible. Nkomo (2015:250) emphasises that if there are not enough skills set in the current staff, consideration will be given to highly skilled individuals from outside the country, especially those within the African borders. To ensure the capture of this skilled African group, immigration laws should be relaxed and one way of doing this is to grant seven-year work permits to all graduates from foreign countries (National Planning Commission 2012:190).

2.8.3.1.1.4 Address the decline of Humanities

Wang (2013:1100) indicates that every country has a unique part of its history that it can share with the world, this history informs it's present, and because of this being present the country becomes known for a particular story that it shares. South Africa is no different. Wang (2013:1100) adds that the history of this country, and the miracle that arose from it, is one of the elements that gives a country an identity and a story to sell to the world, it is this story that gives South Africa an advantage, because it is unique from the start and how it is faring today. This strategy proposed in the Humanities does not only refer to the history of the country, but it also speaks to other elements such as our emerging identity, languages, ethics, morality, indigenous systems, struggle for liberation, Codesa, constitution, the creation of a non-sexist and non-racial society, and the discovery of humankind (National Planning Commission, 2012:200).

2.8.3.1.1.5 Enhance the entrepreneurial capability of the nation

Buys (2018:150) shows that a country of perpetual consumers will always follow trends and never have the capacity to produce, meaning the country's funds will always be going out instead of coming into South African shores. Buys (2018:150) augments that this kind of a system is uncharacteristic of an ambitious country that seeks to compete with and be considered as one the leading players in the international community. Santos *et al.* (2015:36) point that there needs to be strong focus on creating entrepreneurial minds to avoid such a negative situation. In addition, Santos *et al.* (2015:36) highlight that instilling an entrepreneurial mind-set is an inseparable element of the innovative society that seeks to be achieved in 2030. In the NDP document, the National Planning Commission (2012:200) states that to achieve the entrepreneurial capability of the nation, courses should be designed, introduced and taught to promote and instil a culture of entrepreneurship in society.

2.8.3.1.1.6 Coordinate and steer a differentiated system

Haywood *et al.* (2019:561) state that South Africa comes from a difficult past of deliberately orchestrated inequality and oppression, this system meant that resources were not equally shared as the white community received superior treatment compared to the black majority of the country. Furthermore, Haywood *et al.* (2019:561) postulate that this principle also applied to schools and universities, with traditionally white institutions being better resourced compared to those of the *Bantu*. Buys (2018:157) stresses that universities are unequal in a sense that there are arguably world-class ones and those that are deprived, and this means that capacity is not the same, whether to accommodate students or simply to reach academic excellence. However, Buys (2018:157) claims that each of them enjoys unique strengths that the South African government is looking to make use of to help the country reach its NDP goals. Buys (2018:170) indicates that the NDP calls for the enhancement of capacity, with the focus on the strength of the respective university to and find ways to develop them where they are lacking. According to the NDP, within the next five years from 2010, ways need to be found of building on these different strengths to develop a differentiated system that allows all universities to build on their own areas of strength and respond to the needs identified (Falebita & Koul, 2018:137).

2.8.4 Improving and providing quality infrastructure

Palei (2015:168) states that infrastructure is not just essential for faster economic growth and higher employment. It also promotes inclusive growth, providing citizens with the means to improve their own lives and boost their incomes. Sender (2016:5) declares that investment spending in South Africa fell from an average of almost 30 percent of GDP in the early 1980s

to about 16 percent of GDP by the early 2000s. Public infrastructure spending is also at low levels by historical standards. In effect, Sender (2016:5) adds that South Africa has missed a generation of capital investment in roads, rail, ports, electricity, water, sanitation, public transport and housing. Bedwell *et al.* (2014:180) believe that to grow faster and in a more inclusive manner, South Africa needs a higher level of capital spending. Gross fixed capital formation needs to reach about 30 percent of GDP by 2030, with public sector investment reaching 10 percent of GDP, to realise a sustained impact on growth and household services (Nkomo, 2015:250). Nkomo (2015:250) adds that both the public and private sectors can play important roles in building infrastructure, including bulk infrastructure.

The National Planning Commission (2012:78) is of the view that in the long term, users must pay the bulk of the costs for economic infrastructure, with due protection for poor households. Palei (2015:170) indicates that the role of government and the fiscus is to provide the requisite guarantees so that the costs can be amortised over time. In addition, Palei (2015:170) mentions that the state must also put in place appropriate regulatory and governance frameworks so that the infrastructure is operated efficiently, and tariffs can be set at appropriate levels. For infrastructure that generates financial returns, debt raised to build facilities should be on the balance sheets of state-owned enterprises or private companies that do the work (Haywood *et al.* 2019:565). Guarantees should be used selectively to lower the cost of capital and to secure long-term finance. Sender (2016:10) postulates that subsidies to poor households should be as direct and as transparent as possible and social infrastructure that does not generate financial returns such as schools or hospitals should be financed from the budget.

As indicated by Mouton (2011:17), electricity crisis of 2008 and other recent developments have exposed institutional weaknesses related to state-owned companies responsible for network infrastructure. Moreover, Mouton (2011:17) states that averting such problems requires clear institutional arrangements, transparent shareholder compacts, and clean lines of accountability and sound financial models to ensure sustainability. Smith and Siciliano (2015:15) stress that local government faces several related challenges, including poor capacity, weak administrative systems, undue political interference in technical and administrative decision-making, and uneven fiscal capacity. The National Planning Commission (2012:135) believes that within the framework of the Constitution, there is more room for the asymmetric allocation of powers and functions and for more diversity in how developmental priorities are implemented. The National Planning Commission (2012:135) further posits that to achieve this, longer-term strategies are needed, including addressing capacity constraints, allowing more experimentation in institutional forms, and working collaboratively with national and provincial government.

According to the National Commissioner Planning (2012:147), the following infrastructure investments should be prioritized; upgrading informal settlements on suitably located land; public transport infrastructure and systems, including the renewal of the commuter rail fleet, supported by enhanced links with road based services; developing the Durban-Gauteng freight corridor, including a new dug-out port on the site of the old Durban airport; building a new coal line to unlock coal deposits in the Waterberg, extending existing coal lines in the central basin and upgrading the coal line to Richards Bay and the iron ore line to Saldanha; developing, in a timely manner, several new water schemes to supply urban and industrial centres, new irrigation systems in the Umzimvubu river basin and Makatini Flats, and a national water conservation programme to improve water use and efficiency; Constructing infrastructure to import liquefied natural gas and increasing exploration to find domestic gas feedstock to diversify the energy mix and reduce carbon emissions; and private investment needs to lead the way in this area, complemented by public funds required to meet social objectives. The National Commissioner Planning (2012:147) mandates that in implementing these infrastructure priorities, it is important to ensure that rural communities can benefit from both bulk and reticulation infrastructure and that the pricing of this infrastructure is sensitive the needs of rural communities.

2.8.5 Reversing the spatial effects of apartheid

Apartheid left a terrible spatial legacy. Nair and Sagarán (2015:100) show that while about 3.2 million households have benefited from new housing, and services and infrastructure have been provided to many communities, limited progress has been made in reversing entrenched spatial inequities. Nair and Sagarán (2015:100) add that in some instances, post-1994 policies have reinforced the spatial divides by placing low-income housing on the periphery of cities. The National Planning Commission (2012:154) points that reshaping South Africa's cities, towns and rural settlements is a complex, long-term project, requiring major reforms and political will. It is, however, a necessary project given the enormous social, environmental and financial costs imposed by existing spatial divides. The National Planning Commission (2012:153) proposes a national focus on spatial transformation across all geographic scales. Buys (2018:132) indicates that policies, plans and instruments are needed to reduce travel distances and costs, especially for poor households.

Hendriks (2013:15) reveals that by 2030, a larger proportion of the population should live closer to places of work, and the transport they use to commute should be safe, reliable and energy efficient. This requires, strong measures to prevent further development of housing in marginal places; increased urban densities to support public transport and reduce sprawling location; more reliable and affordable public transport and better coordination between various modes of transport; incentives and programs to shift jobs and investments towards the dense townships on the urban edge; and focused partnerships with the private sector to bridge the housing gap market. Turok (2013:173) points that over one-third of South Africa's population lives in the former homelands, and a large proportion of this group are economically marginalised. Policies are required to bring households in these areas into the mainstream economy.

Hedblom *et al.* (2017:523) indicate that there are rural areas where transport links are good and where densification is taking place in the absence of effective land-use management and urban governance. Hedblom *et al.* (2017:523) point that the NDP 2030 propose to create vibrant urban settlements and revive rural areas by establishing new norms and a national spatial framework; integrating diffuse funding flows into a single fund for spatial restructuring; reviewing the housing grant and subsidy regime to ensure that the instruments used are aligned with positive changes in human settlement policy; reforming the planning system to resolve fragmented responsibility for planning in national government, poorly coordinated intergovernmental planning, disconnects across municipal boundaries and the limitations of integrated development plans; strengthening government's planning capabilities; developing neighborhood spatial compacts to bring civil society, business and the state together to solve problems; and enabling citizens to participate in spatial visioning and planning processes.

2.8.6 Building environmental sustainability and resilience

Bedwell *et al.* (2014:180) reveal that since the late 19th century, South Africa has exploited its mineral wealth with little or no regard for the environment. The National Planning Commission (2012:237) maintains that changes are needed to protect the natural environment while allowing the country to benefit from its mineral deposits. In addition to significant non-renewable mineral wealth, the National Planning Commission (2012:237) states that the country's natural resources include its adjacent oceans, soil, water, biodiversity, sunshine and a long coastline.

Okpara *et al.* (2015:308) mention that from an environmental perspective South Africa faces several related challenges, some of which are in conflict. Okpara *et al.* (2015:308) further view that South Africa needs to protect the natural environment in all respects, leaving subsequent generations with at least an endowment of at least equal value; enhance the resilience of

people and the economy to climate change; extract mineral wealth to generate the resources to raise living standards, skills and infrastructure in a sustainable manner; reduce greenhouse gas emissions and improve energy efficiency. Palei (2015:171) states that the NDP proposes three measures to protect the country's natural resources, which are, an environmental management framework; developments that have serious environmental or social effects need to be offset by support for improvements in related areas; a target for the amount of land and oceans under protection (presently about 7.9 million hectares of land, 848 km of coastline and 4 172 km of ocean are protected); and a set of indicators for natural resources, accompanied by publication of annual reports on the health of identified resources 4 to inform policy.

D'Amato *et al.* (2015:3) articulates that climate change is already having an impact on South Africa, with marked temperature and rainfall variations and rising sea levels. D'Amato *et al.* (2015:3) further suggest that it is possible to both reduce greenhouse gas emissions from electricity production and still grow the minerals and mineral processing sectors. In addition, D'Amato *et al.* (2015:6) emphasise that the general approach is based on the following key proposals: implement the 2010 Integrated Resource Plan to reduce carbon emissions from the electricity industry from 0.9kg per kilowatt-hour to 0.6kg per kilowatt-hour; and improve the energy efficiency of mining and mineral processing by 15 percent by 2030.

2.8.7 Quality healthcare for all

National Planning Commission (2013:217) posits that the NDP 2030 vision for health is a system that works for everyone, produces positive health outcomes, and is accessible to all. Kamkuemah *et al.* (2020:2) reveal that South Africa faces a quadruple burden of HIV/AIDS and related diseases such as tuberculosis (TB), COVID-19, sexually transmitted infections (STI), maternal and child morbidity and mortality, non-communicable diseases, violence, injuries and trauma. Angell *et al.* (2020:120) reveal that the current trajectory suggests that the 2030 target of life expectancy at birth of 70 years may be achievable, if collaboration between the health and other sectors tasked with addressing social determinants of health improves. Girum *et al.* (2018:5) indicate that the number of persons living with HIV increased from an estimated 4,25 million in 2002 to 7,52 million by 2018. According to Stats SA (2016), TB accounted for 6.5% (29 513 deaths) of all-natural deaths in 2016, which was a slight decrease from 7.2% (39 042 death) in 2015. Girum *et al.* (2018:5) further show that the national treatment success rate has been improving steadily, from 68.8% in 2007 to 77.2% in 2014.

Samuels *et al.* (2017:1015) maintain that the successful implementation of the maternal, neonatal and child health programmes continue to reduce maternal and child mortality. Samuels *et al.* (2017:1015) point that key interventions include the expansion of access to antiretroviral treatment (ART) for pregnant women, expansion of the Prevention of Mother-To-Child Transmission (PMTCT) program and the introduction of two vaccines, Rotavirus and Pneumococcal Conjugate Vaccine (RPCC). Although the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) targets of reducing maternal mortality by three-quarters and child mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015 were missed, Girus *et al.* (2018:7) articulates that there is optimism that Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) and NDP targets will be achieved by 2030.

Islam *et al.* (2014:3) point that the prevalence of non-communicable diseases has increased and accounts for a growing proportion of mortality in the country. According to Stats SA's (2018) Mortality and Causes of Death in South Africa Report 2016, released in March 2018, Diabetes Mellitus ranked as second leading cause of non-natural deaths in 2016, accounting for 5.5% of all deaths (i.e. 25 255 deaths), whilst hypertension ranked sixth, and was responsible for 4.4% of all deaths (19 960 deaths). Naidoo and Maré (2015:410) attest that South Africa's planned National Health Insurance (NHI) system seeks to transform and integrate public and private healthcare financing and provision of services, as part of wider efforts to realise universal health coverage. Harrison and Todes (2017:45) accede that planning for Universal Health Coverage (UHC) is advancing, and key milestones have been achieved, including the passing of Green and White Papers. Harrison and Todes further indicate that the latest milestone was the tabling of the NHI Bill in Parliament in August 2019 for further debate and public comments.

Du Toit and Neves (2014:838) point that violence against women and children remain an intractable problem in South Africa. Research from three provinces undertaken by the Medical Research Council shows that 25% of women had experienced physical violence at some point in their lives (Haywood *et al.*, 2019:560). Violence against children is high with 45 230 contact crimes against children, including 22 781 sexual offences reported to SAPS in 2013/14 (Stats SA, 2016). Buys (2018:189) attests that stunting appears to be on the rise again and is highest in Gauteng estimated at 34.2%, followed by the Free State at 33.5%. Stunting has many causes and leads to poor outcomes in later years.

Buys (2018:210) congers that good health is essential for a productive and fulfilling life. Chudacoffi, Smith and Baldwin (2016:169) demonstrate the starkly interrelated challenges posed by a crumbling health system and a rising disease burden. Struckmann (2018:20) indicates that South Africa's broken public health system must be fixed. Struckmann (2018:20)

adds that a root and-branch effort to improve the quality of care is needed, especially at primary level. By 2030, the health system should provide quality care to all, free at the point of service, or paid for by publicly provided or privately funded insurance (National Planning Commission, 2012:100). Turok (2013:172) maintains that the primary and district health system should provide universal access, with a focus on prevention, education, disease management and treatment. Hendricks (2013:13) emphasises that hospitals should be effective and efficient, providing quality secondary and tertiary care for those who need it, while, more health professionals should be on hand, especially in poorer communities.

Chudacoffi *et al.* (2017:45) emphasise that reform of the public health system should focus on: improved management, especially at institutional level, more and better-trained health professionals, greater discretion over clinical and administrative matters at facility level, combined with effective accountability, better patient information systems supporting more decentralised and home-based care models, and a focus on maternal and infant health care. Hendricks (2013:12) reveals that the Department of Health has recently launched a program to evaluate management competence. In addition, Hendricks (2013:12) is of the view that complementary reforms should include greater delegation of authority over staffing, shift structures and routine procurement. Turok (2013:176) reveals that HIV/AIDS epidemic has illustrated South Africa's ability to make monumental social and political mistakes as well as its ability to correct them and implement a complex program effectively.

Harrison and Todes (2017:43) attest that health system's success in managing the epidemic over the past five years since 2012 is commendable. Harrison and Todes (2017:43) further add that lowering the rate of new infections will reduce the demand on the public health system. Turok (2013:176) maintains that yet even if there are no new infections, there will still be a sizeable number of HIV-positive people requiring treatment, posing continuing challenges for the tuberculosis infection rate and the risk of drug-resistant HIV strains developing. According to the National Planning Commission (2012:167), the NDP aims to improving the quality of public health care, lowering the relative cost of private care, recruiting more professionals in both the public and private sectors, and developing a health information system that spans public and private health providers. These reforms will take time, require cooperation between the public and private sectors, and demand significant resources.

2.8.8 Transforming human settlements and space economy

The National Planning Commission (2012:200) attests that both legislation and policy have been developed in line with the requirements of NDP. Buys (2018:120) points that the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) was passed shortly after the NDP was released and incorporates the Plan's spatial principles into guidelines for municipal planning,

with an emphasis on the need for spatial transformation. Haywood *et al.* (2019:561) attest that the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) arose from the proposals in the NDP and is a significant achievement. However, practical implementation of the IUDF has been limited, and very little on-the-ground progress has resulted from the policy. Haywood *et al.* (2019:561) add that the poor are being increasingly marginalised in many areas and there is a need to ensure that municipal Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Spatial Development Frameworks (SDF) are aligned in their focus around NDP and IUDF principles.

Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:379) articulate that the greater clarity and agreement are required on how informal settlement upgrading should be undertaken and what the desired outcomes should be. Moreover, Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:379) shows that there should be a minimum set of standards, which addresses health and safety issues and provide basic services for all such settlements, rather than the focus on upgrading and the provision of top structures. Harrison and Todes (2017:58) point that although government delivered more than 4.5 million housing opportunities in the democratic period, the demand for housing closer to economic opportunities continues to be the main problem facing the country. Roberts (2014:1170) maintains that the demand for housing has been influenced by increased urbanisation, which has inadvertently resulted in an increase in informal dwellings, putting pressure on the country's existing infrastructure.

Hart *et al.* (2020:30) show that Stats SA (2013) estimates that by 2020 there will be about 3.6 million new household formations of which more than 2 million will be in the income category earning less than R 3 500 per month, which will contribute to increasing demand for housing. Currently, Akinola (2021:240) indicates that the demand for adequate housing is estimated at about 2.2 million households, which includes households in informal settlements and backyard shacks. Of these, Akinola (2021:240) adds that about 1.7 million are registered on the Department of Human Settlements' Housing Needs database. The National Planning Commission (2012:178) has made formal input on the first draft of the NDP, raising some concerns that its proposals are not sufficiently directed to address the spatial legacy of apartheid. Kamkuemah *et al.* (2020:10) attest that a key proposal in the NDP was to create a National Spatial Fund that would direct funding in an integrated way in terms of the NSDF, but this has not yet been achieved. In summary, whilst great achievements have been made in the period since the NDP was published, Kamkuemah *et al.* (2020:10) show that these have been insufficient to break down the spatial inequalities and divisions left by apartheid.

2.8.9 Transforming Society and Uniting the Country

According to the National Planning Commission (2012:157) the NDP envisages that by 2030 South Africa will have made significant progress towards achieving social cohesion, through

the lens of reduced inequalities, greater integration of living spaces between citizen groups, enhanced inter-group interactions and greater employment. Naidoo and Maré (2015:417) indicate that women continue to suffer discrimination in both the education system and the labour market while, many rural households are trapped in poverty. Horn and Grugel (2018:75) are of the view that the relative decline in agriculture and the consequent fall in agricultural employment have reduced earnings capacity in rural areas. Consequently, Falebita and Koul (2018:133) reveal that there is an increasing need for social cohesion and nation-building as enablers for achieving a just and equal society, quelling xenophobic sentiment or violence, and building national unity. Ghaznavi *et al.* (2019:5) show that government's initiatives towards achieving social cohesion are piecemeal, under-resourced and without demonstrable impact.

Buys (2018:156) shows that there is a need to drive the promotion of greater social cohesion by addressing the challenge of a divided society. Turok (2013:171) emphasises that a recommitment to mutual interest and a social contract is essential to achieving the goals of the NDP by 2030. Furthermore, Turok (2013:171) adds that there must be a sense of ownership and responsibility across sections of society. The National Planning Commission (2012:241) recommends a reconsideration of the leadership and institutional arrangements of the function of driving forward social cohesion. Brockway, Sorrell, Semieniuk, Heun and Court (2021:123) state that discussions on social cohesion and nation building are fragmented and lack coordination with other spaces addressing development policies and poverty alleviation. There is also a lack of coordination between social dialogue processes at different levels i.e. national, provincial and local, plus sectoral considerations (Hart, Booyens and Sinyolo, 2020:33). Akinola (2021:241) indicates that transparent, accountable and collaborative governance is a key to the creation of trust and the building of more cohesive societies, and it can help reduce poverty by improving service delivery. Akinola (2021:241) adds that transparent, accountable and collaborative have proved useful in advancing key goals of NDP 2030, most notably, but not exclusively, in the areas of poverty reduction, equality, health, education, sound institutions and social cohesion.

Bollens (2021) states that social dialogue has specific features and tools that have proved useful in advancing key goals of Vision 2030, most notably, but not exclusively, in the areas of poverty reduction, equality, health, education, sound institutions and social cohesion. Howarth and Monasterolo (2017:103) indicate that social dialogue is crucial to ensuring that the groups involved take ownership of the issues at stake and that decision-making is transparent. This is the only way to build the social consensus required for the implementation of Social Cohesion and Nation Building policies and measures. Moldes-Anaya *et al.* (2022:129) articulate that social integration must focus on increasing the cultural, political, and socioeconomic coherence of the SA society.

As shown by Öberg and Alexander (2019:211), the process of integration must be characterised by the development of knowledge, skills and values, contributing to the development of society through practical cooperation and mutual openness. As a result, Öberg and Alexander (2019:211) add that differences relating to the linguistic and cultural background and ethnicity of the members of society in participating in society decreases. Hart, Booyens and Sinyolo (2020:33) state that integration enables the development of a joint shared national identity, increases the feeling of affiliation towards the state and other members of society, supporting the growth potential of the economy and the stability of the state. Akinola (2021:241) shows that all the demands that all sectors of society coalesce around an integrated, clearly articulated and clearly understood vision of the South Africa of the future and that all strategies, plans, talents and social infrastructure are directed towards achieving Our Future.

2.8.10 Fighting corruption

The National Planning Commission (2012:245) indicates that NDP vision for 2030 envisage to have a South Africa which has zero tolerance for corruption and in which an empowered citizenry has the confidence and knowledge to hold public and private officials to account and in which leaders hold themselves to high ethical standards and act with integrity. According to the National Development Plan 2030, Du Toit and Neves (2014:845) note that the vision to fight against corruption could be achieved by strengthening the multi-agency anti-corruption system; protecting whistle-blowers; centralising the awarding of large tenders, and giving teeth to the tender compliance monitoring office to investigate both corruption and the value for money aspect of tenders. Prior to the NDP, Buys (2018:154) shows that South Africa created a number of corruption-fighting institutions, including the Office of the Public Protector, the Special Investigations Unit (SIC), the National Prosecution Authority (NPA), the Asset Forfeiture Unit (AFU), and the Public Service Commission (PSC). Furthermore, Buys (2018:154) reveals that strengthening this multi-agency system was identified by the NDP as a key factor in combatting corruption, and could be achieved by increasing specialist resources allocated to them, as well as increasing co-operation and co-ordination between them, while each maintains its independence.

Bruce (2014:49) indicates that the NDP proposed strengthening the protection available to whistle-blowers, in light of the falling percentage of the number of government officials willing to report corruption. Bruce (2014:49) further adds that centralising the awarding of large tenders is an additional intervention proposed in the NDP, and the subsequent creation of the Office of the Chief Procurement Officer (CPO) was a major step in this direction. However,

Adetayo (2020:) attests that a succession of commissions of inquiry has been probing evidence of pervasive and systemic corruption in the country, both within and outside the state, with the phenomenon of state capture currently foremost in the national consciousness. Bruce (2014:51) stresses that anti-corruption efforts have remained poorly coordinated and underfunded, and lack a national plan with clarity of roles and responsibilities. This is the greatest impediment to achieving meaningful progress in fighting corruption.

Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index (2019:52), ranked South Africa the 70th most corrupt country out of 180 countries globally, while the Global Corruption Barometer Africa (2019:8) reported that 70% of South Africans believed government was not doing well enough to tackle corruption. In addition, Stats SA 2018/19 Victims of Crime Survey (VCS) reported an increase in incidences of crime in the country. Stats SA 2018/19 further published a report focusing on crime against women in South Africa, and the report revealed alarming high levels of gender-based violence and sexual offences and assaults. Critically, Langer *et al.* (2017:321) stress that corruption has destroyed the trust on which social cohesion and national involvement are built. Without social cohesion and trust the NDP cannot be implemented and no nation-building can take place (Langer *et al.* 2017:321).

The National Planning Commission (2012:159) has critically explored the issues relating to illicit financial flows, tax evasion, money laundering and trade miss-invoicing, which are all key towards combating corruption. The National Planning Commission (2012:159) emphasises that it is imperative to further explore and interrogate some of the areas that contribute to the high levels of corruption and crime in the broad sectors, not only limited to the public sector or government, but to focus on the role of the private sector, State Owned Enterprises (SOE), the banking industries, internal audit and accounting sectors, professional councils, among others. Cilliers and Aucoin (2016:9) show that it is widely accepted that the levels of both violent crime and corruption remain unacceptably high in South Africa.

Budhram and Geldenhuys (2018) point that NDP proposed strengthening the protection available to whistle blowers, considering the falling percentage of the number of government officials willing to report corruption. Pharasi and Miot (2012:177) state that centralising the awarding of large tenders is an additional intervention proposed in the NDP, and the subsequent creation of the Office of the Chief Procurement Officer was a major step in this direction. However, under the sixth administration, Öberg and Alexander (2019:215) show that a succession of commissions of inquiry has been probing evidence of pervasive and systemic corruption in the country, both within and outside the state, with the phenomenon of “state capture” currently foremost in the national consciousness.

Ngigi and Busolo (2019) stress that anti-corruption efforts have remained poorly coordinated and underfunded and lack a national plan with clarity of roles and responsibilities. This is the greatest impediment to achieving meaningful progress in fighting corruption. Todes and Turok (2018:21) attest that various research findings indicate that corruption has escalated in the private and public sectors, including SOEs. Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index (2019) ranked South Africa the 70th most corrupt country out of 180 countries globally, while the Global Corruption Barometer Africa (2019) reported that 70% of South Africans believed government was not doing well enough to tackle corruption. This has inspired the concept of state capture in South Africa. In addition, Statistics South Africa's 2018/19 Victims of Crime Survey reported an increase in incidences of crime in the country. It further published a report focusing on crime against women in South Africa, and the report revealed alarming high levels of gender-based violence and sexual offences and assaults. Critically, Crawford and Morrison (2021:548) point that corruption has destroyed the trust on which social cohesion and national involvement are built.

Abrahams (2016:95) is of the view that without social cohesion and trust the NDP cannot be implemented; and no nation-building can take place. Pharasi and Miot (2012:180) stress that there is a pronounced absence of political will by government to prioritise sanctions against Cabinet ministers and high-ranking public servants embroiled in corruption, resulting in low conviction rates. This lack of political will extended to non-action by government on the use of Executive Authority to influence the unlawful awarding of multi-million-rand contracts by State-Owned Enterprises; on conflicts of interest in the awarding of mineral rights, and on breaches of the Executive Ethics Code, among others. Following extensive consultations on a national anti-corruption strategy, Howarth and Monasterolo (2017:105) state that proposed interventions from a policy perspective include having a designation agency or department in government to take ownership of the National Anti-Corruption Strategy (NACS), given the idea of the fragmentation of responsibilities under the NACS; establishing a centralised procurement system; developing and implementing appropriate data platforms to manage the contracting of service providers and conducting random lifestyle audits; and formulation of compliance system across the government.

Scott *et al.* (2021:39) show that compliance systems in government and its state entities are highly fragmented and to curb uncoordinated compliance, the areas of focus should be continuous monitoring and auditing; automated test procedures, and exception reporting. The NPC (2013:63) has critically explored the issues relating to illicit financial flows, tax evasion, money laundering and trade mis-invoicing, which are all key towards combating corruption. Ngigi and Busolo (2019:11) state that it is imperative to further explore and interrogate some of the areas that contribute to the high levels of corruption and crime in the broad sectors, not

only limited to the public sector or government, but to focus on the role of the private sector, State Owned Enterprises, the banking industries, internal audit and accounting sectors, professional councils, among others.

Bruce (2014:49) reveals that high levels of crime in South Africa at the time of adoption of the NDP in 2012 have remained high. Enaifoghe *et al.* (2021:117) Estimates indicate that over 1.5 million incidences of household crime occurred in South Africa in 2017/18, an increase of 5% compared to the previous year. Incidences of crime on individuals are estimated to be over 1.6 million, an increase of 5% from the previous year (Victims of Crime Survey, 2018). Pfeiffer (2013:24) is of the view that for NDP to be effective and efficient, it requires coherence, coordination and dedicated budgets coupled with an implementation plan involving all departments in the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security cluster. Pfeiffer (2013:24) adds that one of the critical components of the plan is the establishment of an electronic case management system to ensure better management of crime information across various criminal justice departments.

2.8.11 Social protection

Lambrecht and Tucker (2019:2300) state that social protection brings social solidarity to life and ensures a basic standard of living. In addition, Lambrecht and Tucker (2019:2300) shows that social protection also plays an important role in helping households and families manage life's risks, and eases labour market transitions, contributing to a more flexible economy. According to the National Planning Commission (2012:213), by 2030, South Africa should have a comprehensive system of social protection that includes social security grants, mandatory retirement savings, risk benefits (such as unemployment, death and disability benefits) and voluntary retirement savings. Mabunda (2018:147) indicates that to achieve the objectives of broader social security coverage, the NDP proposes the following: An acceptable minimum standard of living must be defined, including what is needed to enable people to develop their capabilities; The retirement savings and risk benefit gap should be closed through reforms, including mandatory contributions, with consideration given to subsidising these contributions for low-income or periodic workers; Social welfare services should be expanded, with more education and training for social work practitioners and a review of funding for non-profit organisations; and Public employment should expand, with a focus on youth and women.

NPC (2012:34) proposed a social protection floor whose elements include a combination of social assistance grants, minimum wages, and the social wage such as education, health care, free basic services, RDP houses, transport subsidies, school feeding schemes. NPC (2012:34) adds that all these elements make a significant impact on poverty and inequality

and reduce the cost of living for the poorest households, especially the 17 million people who receive social grants. Soltani *et al.* (2019:508) state that the costs of food, commuter transport and housing must be reduced, while raising the quality of free or low-cost education and health care. Patel *et al.* (2019:59) show that in 2015, nine out of 10 of the poorest 80% of households had electricity for lighting, but only two-thirds had piped water. Arndt *et al.* (2016:3) state that while the cost of utilities taken together constituted about 4% of the budgets of the poor, their costs increased at a much faster rate than inflation from 2008.

Berry *et al.* (2016:7) stress that the time and money spent on commuter transport remains a major factor in constraining the standard of living for poor households. Ackerman *et al.* (2012:5) point that the cost of university education accounted for the bulk of education costs at all income levels. In health, as with education, Ackerman *et al.* (2012:5) articulate that marginalised households typically relied on free public services, so their costs were relatively low. In contrast, Mills *et al.* (2012:128) reveal that formal-sector workers often had health insurance and turned to the private sector. As a result, Patel *et al.* (2019:21) articulate that health costs were a significant cost driver for formal semi-skilled and skilled workers.

Rogerson (2017:466) indicates that poor households were heavily over-represented in the former apartheid 'homeland' regions. In 2015, Rogerson (2017:466) shows that these areas held 28% of all households but 40% of those in the poorest two quintiles and only 9% of the most prosperous quintile. Arndt *et al.* (2016:7) articulate those urban areas housed 70% of all households but 90% of those in the richest quintile. Arndt *et al.* (2016:7) add that Low household incomes resulted largely from low employment levels. In the poorest 20% of households, only one in four adults had employment, compared to over two-thirds in the richest 20% (Chattopadhyay *et al.*, 2022:39).

Gabel (2012:537) indicates that social security such as social assistance and social insurance provision in South Africa is a *de facto* response to poverty, inequality and the multiple deprivations experienced by close to 40% of South Africa's population. As a result of structural unemployment, poverty and inequality, Berry *et al.* (2016:9) state that the majority of South Africans are outside of the social insurance net and rely on social assistance in the form of grants for income support. Dubihlela and Dubihlela (2014:160) state that South African government has expanded the social grant system to cover close to 30% of the population over the last two decades. Seekings (2019:139) shows that social grant system has been one of the successes of the South African social protection floor. Seekings (2019:139) adds that South Africa provides seven social grants that includes, Older Persons Grant, War Veterans Grant (WVG), Disability Grant (DG), Grants-in- Aid (GA), Foster Care Grants (FCG), Care Dependency Grant (CDG), and the Child Support Grant (CSG).

Pfaller *et al.* (2016:103) state that at the end of December 2018, there were 17 731 402 social grant recipients and 11 030 665 beneficiaries. Soltani *et al.* (2019:508) articulate that grant recipient numbers grew between the 2012/13 and 2017/18 financial years from 16,1 million to 17,5 million. Bhorat *et al.* (2021:63) show that CSG makes up 70% of the total grant recipients and therefore impacts on growth in grant numbers over time. Bhorat *et al.* (2021:63) stress that growth in absolute grant numbers has slowed between 2015/16 to 2017/18, which points to a declining trend over time. Rogerson (2017:67) indicates that CSG grew from 11,3 million to 12,2 million between 2012/13 to 2017/18. The National Treasury (2014) undertook a modelling exercise and projects that this decline in CSG recipients is expected to continue over the next two decades. Exclusions from the CSG for eligible infants under one year were as high as 43% in 2014 (South African Child Gauge, 2018).

Zembe-Mkabile *et al.* (2016:352) point that early receipt of the CSG and other social provisions such as nutrition and health care have a significant impact on the development and life chances of children. Zembe-Mkabile *et al.* emphasise that such exclusions highlight the reasons for deepening poverty and increasing inequalities. Spaul (2015:34) accedes that it also provides explanations for poor educational outcomes and the intergenerational reproduction of poverty. Du Toit (2020) states that Foster Care Grant (FCG) numbers grew rapidly in the 2000s as a response to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. However, between 2012/13 to 2017/18 there was a decline in FCG numbers. Du Toit (2020) adds that this is due to many grants being allowed to lapse due to backlogs in the extensions of court orders partly because of the limited capacity of social workers as well as a concern regarding the growth in foster care grant numbers.

Briefs (2017) states that number of disability grants has also been declining over the 2012/13 to 2017/18 period, which may be due to the onerous application and approval processes. Over the 2012/13-2017/18 period, Cockburn *et al.* (2018:249) show that social grant expenditure remained constant in real terms at 3.2 % of GDP. Cockburn *et al.* (2018:249) The largest proportion of the social grant expenditure at 42% was on the Old Age Pension (OAP). Bhorat *et al.* (2021:65) estimated that social assistance transfers have reduced the poverty headcount rate in 2015 by 8% and that social assistance reduces the poverty gap by 32%.

2.8.12 Building safer communities

According to the National Planning Commission (2012:220), people living in South Africa should feel safe and have no fear of crime by 2030. Horn and Grugel (2018:79) attest that women and children should feel protected and have confidence in the criminal justice system to effectively apprehend and prosecute criminals who violate individual and community safety. Denhardt (2015:178) indicates that The South African Police Service (SAPS) and metro police

should be professional institutions staffed by skilled, disciplined, ethical individuals who value their work and serve the community. Harrison and Todes (2017:58) are of the view that building safer communities requires targeted action in four key areas: Strengthening the criminal justice system by requiring cooperation between all departments in the government's justice, crime prevention and security cluster; making the police service professional through police code of conduct and code of professionalism linked to promotion and discipline in the service; Recruitment should attract competent, skilled professionals through a two-track system; and demilitarising the police service. Buys (2018:231) is of the opinion that achieving a safe society means tackling the fundamental causes of criminality, which requires a wide range of state and community resources so as to build community participation.

2.8.13 Building environmental sustainability and resilience

Brockway *et al.* (2021:123) show that since the late 19th century, South Africa has exploited its mineral wealth with little or no regard for the environment. Brockway, Sorrell, Semieniuk, Heun and Court (2021:123) add that changes are needed to protect the natural environment while allowing the country to benefit from its mineral deposits. Quillian *et al.* (2019:478) gave their opinion from an environmental perspective that South Africa faces several environmental challenges, some of which are in conflict. Mabunda (2018:157) is of the view that South Africa needs to protect the natural environment in all respects, leaving subsequent generations with at least an endowment of at least equal value; enhance the resilience of people and the economy to climate change; extract mineral wealth to generate the resources to raise living standards, skills and infrastructure in a sustainable manner; and reduce greenhouse gas emissions and improve energy efficiency.

Binswanger-Mkhize (2014:258) proposes the three measures to protect the country's natural resources which are an environmental management framework, developments that have serious environmental or social effects need to be offset by support for improvements in related areas, and a target for land and oceans under protection. Akinola (2021:241) shows that climate change has an impact on South Africa, with marked temperature and rainfall variations and rising sea levels. Nair and Sagarán (2015:115) suggest that it is possible to both reduce greenhouse gas emissions from electricity production and still grow the minerals and mineral processing sectors. Nair and Sagarán (2015:115) add that the general approach is based on the following key proposals: Implement the Integrated Resource Plan (IRP) (procuring at least 20 000MW of electricity from renewables) to reduce carbon emissions from the electricity industry from 0.9kg per kilowatt-hour to 0.6kg per kilowatt-hour; and improve the energy efficiency of mining and mineral processing by 15% by 2030.

Wang (2013:1090) contends that complementary fiscal reforms are needed to broaden the price on carbon to encourage economy-wide efficiency and investment in greener technologies. Garousi *et al.* (2019:72) show that over the short term, policy needs to respond quickly and effectively to protect the natural environment and mitigate the effects of climate change. Moreover, Garousi *et al.* (2019:72) indicate that over the long term, with realistic, bold strategies and global partnerships, South Africa can manage the transition to a low-carbon economy at a pace consistent with government's public pledges, without harming jobs or competitiveness.

2.8.14 Social wage and raising standards of living

Nkomo (2015:250) reveals that in a context of high unemployment and a global trend to low-paid precarious services jobs, the NDP emphasises a commitment to strengthening the social wage. Buys (2018:175) is of the view that decent standard of living will be achieved through rising incomes, interventions to ensure that wage goods are affordable and through the provision of a platform of high-quality and accessible basic services. Natrass (2014:95) indicates that as the social wage may sometimes seem to be an abstract idea, a few examples are highlighted such as the delivery of municipal services and housing to poor communities is a feature of the new democratic era; municipal service delivery rolled out at a fast pace in areas such as electricity, piped water, flush toilets and refuse removal until 2011. Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:375) show that there has been an extensive program of home building for low-income households, focusing primarily on stand-alone houses, and a smaller component of social housing. Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:375) add that the share of families living in formal housing rose from 65% in 1996 to 79% in 2015. This translated into 5.8 million households in formal housing rising to 13.4 million over this period. A recent study shows that 71% of dwellings in urban areas, covering about 84% of the population, are adequate in the sense that they have services, are not structurally weak, and are not overcrowded (Struckmann, 2018:18).

By 2016, 2.2 million households were living in urban informal residences such as backyard shacks and informal settlements (up from 1.5 million in 1996), with limited access to basic services such as water, electricity or sanitation (National Planning Commission, 2017:24). Turok (2013:185) stresses that shortage of subsidised public transport hampers economic participation and increases the cost of living. The National Planning Commission (2012:45) proposed a social protection floor whose elements include a combination of social assistance grants, minimum wages (in the private sector) and the social wage (education, health care, free basic services, RDP houses, transport subsidies, school feeding schemes etc.). The National Planning Commission (2012:45) further shows that all these elements make a

significant impact on poverty and inequality and reduce the cost of living for the poorest households, especially the 17 million people who receive social grants.

Jeekel and Martens (2017:4) regard the costs of food, commuter transport and housing must be reduced, while raising the quality of free or low-cost education and health care. Patel and Kumar (2019:59) indicate that in 2015, where 80% of poorest households had electricity for lighting, but only two-thirds had piped water while, the cost of utilities taken together constituted about 4% of the budgets of the poor, and their costs increased at a much faster rate than inflation from 2008. Scheyvens *et al.* (2016:375) attest that social security provision in South Africa is a *de facto* response to poverty, inequality and the multiple deprivations experienced by close to 40% of South Africa's population. As a result of structural unemployment, poverty and inequality, Gerard *et al.* (2020) show that majority of South Africans are outside of the social insurance net and rely on social assistance in the form of grants for income support.

2.9 THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN LEADERSHIP AND RESPONSIBILITY THROUGHOUT SOCIETY

Black and Gerwel (2014:241) indicate that the successful implementation of the NDP requires strong leadership from government, business, labour and civil society. Sutherland (2020:233) points out that as the transition from apartheid were a win-win solution rather than a short-sighted power struggle, the fight against poverty and inequality should have benefits for all black and white, rich and poor. Given the South Africa's divided past, Langer *et al.* (2017:330) reveal that leaders sometimes advocate positions that serve narrow, short-term interests at the expense of a broader, long-term agenda. Adetayo (2020:379) states that it is essential to break out of poor leadership, with leaders that are willing and able to take on greater responsibility to address South Africa's challenges.

To successfully implement the NDP, Sutherland (2020:234) emphasises that South Africa will needs partnerships across society working together towards a common purpose. At present, Brockway *et al.* (2021:600) indicate that South Africa has high levels of mistrust between major social partners. Brockway, Sorrell, Semieniuk, Heun and Court (2021:600) add that a virtuous cycle of building trust and engaging in discussion to confront the most pressing challenges is needed to take a long-term view. Buys (2018:280) indicates that the government will be responsible for a large share of the recommendations in the National Development Plan. To implement these recommendations, Buys (2018:280) argues that the government need to strengthen its accountability chain, improve its capacity, be prepared to make difficult decisions and work with others in society to solve challenges. Furthermore, Buys (2018:280) concurs that this means communicating honestly and sincerely with the public, while holding

citizens accountable for their actions. As indicated by Turok (2013:175), leaders in government must face up to difficult decisions and trade-offs. In addition, Turok (2013:175) points that strong leadership is about making decisions and effectively persuading society that the best path is being pursued.

Falebita and Koul (2018:136) suggest that if corruption is seen as acceptable in government, it will affect the way society conducts itself. This makes it even more important that government acts to address the high levels of corruption in its ranks. The private sector employs about three-quarters of South Africa's workers and accounts for over two thirds of investment and expenditure (Nattrass, 2014:97). Nair and Sagarán (2015:113) are of the view that South Africa needs a thriving private sector that is investing in productive capacity. While the profit motive drives business, Nair and Sagarán (2015:113) assert that companies cannot grow unless they operate in an environment where employment and income levels are rising. Hedblom *et al.* (2017:525) posit that legislation requires business to consider employment equity, black economic empowerment, the environment, skills development, local content, small-business development, community social responsibility and several location-specific imperatives, such as mining area development strategies. In this complex context, Andersson and Borgström (2017:525) add that it is in the long-term interests of all businesses for South Africa to grow faster and for more people to be employed.

As viewed by Benjamin *et al.* (2017:25), inequality raises the cost of doing business, skews market structure and ultimately limits growth opportunities. Palei (2015:163) postulate that excessive executive remuneration does little to build a more inclusive society where everyone feels that they share in the fruits of development. While legislating salaries is impractical, Haywood *et al.* (2019:565) accede that leadership is required to ensure that businesses act more responsibly. Despite healthy balance sheets, Nkomo (2015:250) stresses that many South African corporations are not investing because the global economy remains weak. Nkomo (2015:250) adds that businesses are also concerned about changes in the policy and regulatory environment that may raise costs. To some extent, Mouton (2011:19) states that low investment is also the result of inadequate infrastructure provided by state-owned enterprises. Snyman (2017:247) indicate that the government has an important role to play in building trust and confidence to encourage long-term investment.

Allais (2021:550) articulates that South Africa has a well-developed and vibrant trade-union movement. Historically, Allais (2021:550) avers that trade unions have played a role in politics, understanding that the issues pertinent to its members do not stop at the factory gate. Sutherland (2020:235) attest that unions advance the interests of their members and give voice to vulnerable workers, such as farm workers, domestic workers or casual workers.

Benjamin *et al.* (2017) state that the rights and benefits afforded to workers and increases in living standards that most workers have seen since 1994, constitute a significant gain for South Africa. To continue to make progress in raising incomes and living standards, Allais (2021:552) points that productivity must also increase. Cousins *et al.* (2018:1060) indicate that South Africa's labour market is often characterised by contestation between profitable firms and reasonably well-paid employees. To address high levels of unemployment, particularly among youth, Natrass (2014:103) emphasises that extraordinary measures will be required.

2.10 INTEGRATED AND INCLUSIVE RURAL ECONOMY

Karriem and Hoskins (2016:325) point that the NDP states that better integration of the country's rural areas is achieved through successful land reform, infrastructure development, job creation and poverty alleviation. According to the National Planning Commission (2012:53), the NDP targeted the redistribution and restitution of 20% of private commercial agricultural land by 2030. National Planning Commission (2012:53) further states that the target was meant to build on the 2011 baseline of 6.2 million hectares already transferred through government programs and another amount through private transactions. Snyman (2017:264) reveals that the 2030 NDP target would see 22.8 million hectares in black hands by 2030. In addition, Snyman (2017:264) shows that 20% would result in the transfer of a further 14 million hectares. It should be noted that while there are 82.7 million hectares of private commercial agricultural land, equivalent to 68% of South Africa's land mass, only 13% is arable and one-third is in the Northern Cape Province where 4% of the population live (Benjamin *et al.*, 2017:43).

As shown by Cilliers and Aucoin (2016:18), land redistribution in the rural development environment has been slowing down from 2012, due in part to current legislation as well as pending legislative changes. Cilliers and Aucoin (2016:18) indicate that while the slow pace of land reform is associated with challenges in ownership, transfer, value and pricing and the administration, the continuous challenges are manifestation of the structural challenge relating to weaknesses in land administration systems; inadequate decentralisation of decision making or local government capacity; legal and administrative challenges such as burden of proof for restitution, price setting and multiple claims. To date, Mtshali and Akinola (2021:161) stress that the quality and viability of land tenure reform, land restitution and land redistribution continues to face challenges. Adu-Baffour *et al.* (2019:133) stress that there is a lack of support services for new emerging farmers and insufficient incentives by government to encourage the private sector to provide services. Cilliers and Aucoin (2016:19) points that government has not made progress in developing agricultural value chains identified in the NDP specifically the labour-intensive value chain and export-intensive value chain.

As indicated by the National Planning Commission (2013:45), by 2030 the NDP will ensure programs and legislation governing the rural reform and rural development are effectively implemented to cater farmer development methods and land holding; strengthen land administration systems by adequate decentralising decision making to local government as well as building capacity; provide comprehensive support to smallholders to ensure increased productivity and expansion of production; investment in agro-processing; ensure that land reform and development programs emphasis climate adaptation and innovation; promote the development of smallholders, SMMEs and facilitate access to both domestic and global value chains and markets; improve provision of rural infrastructure, access to finance, skills, access to inputs and capital equipment, and marketing and transport infrastructure with rural development and land reform being the core of agrarian reform and economic development.

2.11 CHALLENGES OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

National Planning Commission (2013:32) stresses that in the seven years since the NDP was adopted, progress towards achieving the NDP's main goals has been slow compared to what was expected. Against this realisation, the National Planning Commission (2013:32) conducted a deep assessment to understand this poor performance. The National Planning Commission (2013:33) offers recommendations for improving implementation of the National Development Plan in the final decade leading to the NDP's 2030 horizon. Stasiulis (2017:26) points that effective implementation is a central emphasis in the NDP, but this emphasis has not translated into an overwhelmingly positive lived experience. The NDP did not spell out an implementation plan with sufficient rigour and detail, beyond the broad approach it outlined. Stasiulis (2017:26) further indicates that this was the case even though the Commission's Diagnostic Report of 2011 assessed the country's achievements and shortcomings since 1994 and identified that failure to implement policies and the absence of broad partnerships were the main reasons for tardy development in South Africa.

Cousins (2015:250) indicates that the NDP anticipated that achieving traction and progress would require doing things differently. Volmink and van der Elst (2019:100) reveal that although the NDP had broad stakeholder and societal support after its adoption, the NDP did not translate into robust implementation, and the envisaged broad social compact behind the Plan did not emerge. Ruggie (2016:243) is of the view that a major challenge of the NDP has been the inability of various sectors of society to place the broader national interest before their own sectoral interest, and the lack of trust between government, business and labour. Political and ideological contestations in the state and in the governance of the country have shifted the NDP from being the central focus of government (Hickey, 2012:683). Hickey

(2012:683) further asserts that South Africa has underperformed on various interim targets envisioned in the NDP.

Bower (2014:106) points that unemployment, poverty and inequality remain entrenched, and crime and violence, particularly against women and the youth are still entrenched. Bull, Cuéllar and Kandel (2014:51) indicate that the private sector is largely withdrawn and lacks confidence and initiative, with the result that investment, growth and employment are suffocated. Todes and Turok (2018:22) reveal that the economic, social and spatial legacy of apartheid continues to undermine both South Africa's competitiveness and the potential and capabilities of its people, depriving the nation of the skills it needs, and resulting in low growth, low productivity, and high unemployment and inequality. Joosten *et al.* (2012:143) mention that the low-hanging fruit identified in the NDP, such as infrastructure, is badly managed and neglected. Balbuena (2014:76) views that State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) are weighing the economy down, instead of contributing to driving growth and transformation. Pakstaitis (2019:227) conveys that corruption has become systemic and prevails in the state and the private sector. Levy *et al.* (2021:314) declare that the capacity of the state to drive the NDP's development agenda has been eroded through a weakening and looting of key state institutions, poor management in the public service, rising debt and collapsing confidence.

Iammarino *et al.* (2019:273) accede that the prevalence of poor service delivery, coupled with a slow-growing economy with limited inclusivity, is negatively affecting the social wage and undermining social cohesion. Banks (2018:367) reveals that most of the population is not participating fully or equitably in the economic mainstream, because of the continuing discriminatory structure of the economy. Nhapi (2021:7) indicates that inequities in wealth, income and assets have deepened inequality and reinforced social exclusion, especially of women, youth and persons with disabilities. On the other hand, Adams and Zulu (2015:112) add that inadequate distribution of social services, work opportunities and redistribution of assets to the majority of the poorest citizens in townships and also rural and peri-urban areas are a direct result of a flawed economic model. This is accentuated by implementation weaknesses, maladministration and corruption. Social welfare services for children, women, persons with disabilities, and youth in trouble with the law, survivors of violence and abuse, and the elderly are inadequate (Moyer, 2013:478).

According to Marconi *et al.* (2012:265), the country lacks a coordinated impact and results-driven services delivery model for development. Marconi, Bouey, and Dybul (2012:265) further show that in the face of the NDP challenges, South Africa's social protection system represents a significant intervention to ameliorate poverty and help vulnerable households to deal with unforeseen shocks. In addition, Marconi *et al.* (2012:265) condone that social

protection in the form of social grants cushions the poorest individuals from absolute poverty and is a lifeline for many households (approximately 40 per cent). However, Uitto (2019:49) stresses that there are many who do not receive such protection despite extreme poverty and the current fiscal constraints pose a dire limitation to sustaining the progress made thus far. Baicker *et al.* (2013:1289) stress that the demand for services delivery has grown and benchmarking is focused on how many more beneficiaries are added to the support databases, rather than on reducing the number of dependent people. Moreover, Baicker *et al.* (2013:1289) indicate that the effective and sustainable reduction of poverty and inequality requires that the extremely high initial income gap be addressed.

Mncayi (2016:89) points that since the adoption of the NDP, the economy has been on a prolonged slowdown. Mabunda (2018:92) view that unemployment, especially among women and the youth, remains high; and education and skills outcomes need improvement. Mncayi (2016:89) further indicates that NDP challenges are exacerbated by South Africa's vulnerability to external shocks, and by a weak global economic environment, coupled with inefficiencies in the manner that state resources are allocated and spent to deliver basic services. Thurber *et al.* (2011:5366) are of the view that inefficiencies are the consequence of a lack of capacity, as well as the absence of appropriate leadership. Furthermore, Gotham and Greenberg (2014:417) view that public finances are constrained, limiting government's ability to expand its investment in economic and social development. Piven and Cloward (2012:361) show that poor service delivery and a culture of labour unrest and widespread strikes create ruptures that undermine the growth of the social wage.

2.12 CRITICISMS OF THE NDP 2030

Erlingsson *et al.* (2015:200) reveal that at the launch of the National Development Plan (NDP) in August 2012, then Minister in the Presidency and Chairperson of the National Planning Commission (NPC) Trevor Manuel stated that it was the product of thousands of inputs and perspectives of South Africans. Bendix and Bendix (2017:253) state that NDP aimed to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030 through an inclusive economy and enhancing the capacity and the capability of the state. The National Planning Commission (NPC), established in 2010, was tasked with coordinating and monitoring the implementation of the NDP (Vennebo & Ottesen, 2012:258). Bendix and Bendix (2017:253) stress that South Africa finds itself firmly in the economic doldrums and its socio-economic challenges are no closer to being adequately addressed. Since 2012, Shava (2016:163) states that the country has recorded an average growth of 1.5%, which is well below the average for other developing economies over the same period. Statistics SA (2020) announced that South Africa's official unemployment rate had reached a decade high of 29%. In terms of inequality, Rickes

(2016:21) mentions that the gap between the haves and the have nots continues to widen by the day and those at the bottom, who are the black majority, are left to scramble for the little resources that are available. In some instances, Rickes (2016:21) adds that this has manifested as xenophobic violence against African immigrants seeking a better life in the country.

Thompson (2016:120) reveals that the constant flare-ups of xenophobic attacks in townships, to a large extent, can be attributed to the frustration faced by poor black South Africans at having no access to economic opportunities. Medvedev (2016:330) reviews that on the 6th of August 2019, the NPC's chair, Minister Jackson Mthembu, stated that the NPC will review aspects of the NDP in a bid to lead the country's response to current economic challenges, weaknesses in the state, and other challenges affecting communities. Medvedev (2016:330) adds that it is hoped that the review will grapple with the view raised by former president Thabo Mbeki who stated that the NDP was only a vision, and not a plan. Swanepoel (2012:87) attests that this honest engagement will assist planners to confront the perennial problem of inadequate planning which continues to hobble government's ability to translate its plans into tangible programmes.

Khambule (2020:176) shows that one of the problems afflicting the NDP, as with most government-led initiatives, is implementation or lack thereof. Khambule (2020:176) adds that for the NDP to achieve its objectives, a degree of policy consistency, resolute leadership and greater coordination between government, business and labour is required. Todes and Turok (2018:15) reveal that policy proposals over the past seven years have been done in silos and lacked the necessary long-sightedness. Bundled up with short-sighted policy proposals, Haywood *et al.* (2019:579) stress that the country has been crippled by a critical shortage of skills, high levels of corruption, lack of accountability, inadequate legislative oversight, and a long history of blurring the lines between party and state.

According to the State of the Nation Address (SONA), President of South Africa Cyril Ramaphosa reaffirmed the NDP as the country's development blueprint. Acknowledging that little or no progress has been made in meeting NDP targets, Cyril Ramaphosa stated that the focus will have to be on implementation. For the NDP to succeed where the previous government has failed, Plessing (2020:271) shows that bold action will be needed and most certainly a change in how things were done since the launch of the NDP in 2012. Cyril Ramaphosa emphasises that NPC will have to work closely with the newly established Policy Coordination Unit to get rid of the silo mentality that has been the norm with government in the recent past. Lastly, there must be consequences for underperformance. Mediocrity must

come with a price. Without that, in a decade's time, we will be speaking of the great plan the NDP was, but due to little or no implementation, was never truly realised.

In the past years since the NDP was adopted, Vanoli (2014:11) states that progress towards achieving the NDP's main goals has been slow compared to what was expected. Against this realisation, the National Planning Commission (2014:135) conducted a deep assessment to understand poor performance of the implementation of the NDP 2030. Medvedev (2016:340) shows that effective implementation is a central emphasis in the NDP, but this emphasis has not translated into an overwhelmingly positive lived experience. Todes and Turok (2018:13) criticise that NDP did not spell out an implementation plan with sufficient rigor and detail, beyond the broad approach it outlined. Todes and Turok (2018:13) add that this was the case even though the Commission's Diagnostic Report of 2011 assessed the country's achievements and shortcomings since 1994, and identified that failure to implement policies and the absence of broad partnerships were the main reasons for tardy development in South Africa.

Although the NDP had broad stakeholder and societal support after its adoption, Ampaire *et al.* (2020:44) state that this did not translate into robust implementation, and the envisaged broad social compact behind the plan did not emerge. Ampaire *et al.* (2020:44) add that the major challenge has been the inability of various sectors of society to place the broader national interest before their own sectoral interest, and the lack of trust between government, business and labour. Moyo and Mamobolo (2014:947) indicate that political and ideological contestations in the state and in the governance of South Africa have shifted the NDP from being the central focus of government. Stranieri *et al.* (2019:483) stress that private sector is largely withdrawn and lacks confidence and initiative, with the result that investment, growth and employment are suffocated. Rickes (2016:31) stresses that economic, social and spatial legacy of apartheid continues to undermine both South Africa's competitiveness and the potential and capabilities of its people, depriving the nation of the skills it needs, and resulting in low growth, low productivity, and high unemployment and inequality.

Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:447) reveal that low-hanging fruit identified in NDP, such as infrastructure, is badly managed and neglected. Bendix and Bendix (2017:248) indicate that State-owned Enterprises (SOEs) are weighing the economy down, instead of contributing to driving growth and transformation. Shava (2016:165) states that corruption has become systemic, and prevails in the state and the private sector. Erlingsson, Ödalen and Wångmar (2015:197) reveal that capacity of the state to drive the NDP's development agenda has been eroded through a weakening and looting of key state institutions, poor management in the

public service, ineffective support to SMMEs, rising debt and collapsing confidence. Ampaire *et al.* (2020:44) discovered that prevalence of poor service delivery, coupled with a slow-growing economy with limited inclusivity, is negatively affecting the social wage and undermining social cohesion.

Stratton (2019:228) stresses that majority of the population is not participating fully or equitably in the economic mainstream, because of the continuing discriminatory structure of the economy. Sing and Maringe (2020:7) stresses that inequities in wealth, income and assets have deepened inequality and reinforced social exclusion, especially of women, girls, youth and persons with disabilities. Sharma *et al.* (2020:25) reveal that inadequate distribution of social services; work opportunities and redistribution of assets to the majority of the poorest citizens in townships, in rural and peri-urban areas are a direct result of a flawed economic model. Sharma *et al.* (2020:25) add that this is accentuated by implementation weaknesses, maladministration and corruption.

Uitto (2019:50) states that South Africa lacks a coordinated impact and results-driven services delivery model for development. In the face of these challenges, Stranieri *et al.* (2019:490) stress that South Africa's social protection system represents a significant intervention to ameliorate poverty and help vulnerable households deal with unforeseen shocks. Stranieri *et al.* (2019:490) add that social protection in the form of social grants cushions the poorest individuals from absolute poverty and is a lifeline for many households. However, Medvedev (2016:330) shows that there are many who do not receive such protection despite extreme poverty and the current fiscal constraints pose a dire limitation to sustaining the progress made thus far. Since the adoption of the NDP nearly a decade ago, the economy has been on a prolonged slowdown (Verma, 2019:4). In addition, Verma (2019:4) shows that unemployment, especially among women and the youth, remains high; and education and skills outcomes need improvement. Haywood *et al.* (2019:616) add that these challenges are exacerbated by South Africa's vulnerability to external shocks, and by a weak global economic environment, coupled with inefficiencies in the manner that state resources are allocated and spent to deliver basic services. Haywood *et al.* (2019:616) adds that these inefficiencies are partly the consequence of a lack of capacity, as well as the absence of appropriate leadership.

Van de Pas (2020:487) points that NDP is a breeding ground for deep and systemic corruption. Furthermore, Ngumbela *et al.* (2020:8) state that public finances are constrained and limits government's ability to expand its investment in economic and social development. Khandelwal (2020:69) stresses that poor service delivery and a culture of labour unrest and widespread strikes create ruptures that undermine the growth of the social wage. In the period

following the adoption of the NDP, Stranieri *et al.* (2019:491) reveal that strong political will and leadership to rally society and social partners in the implementation of the NDP was lacking. This lack of inspiration and implementation has left South Africa well short of its 2030 vision and targets (Stranieri *et al.*, 2019:491).

2.13 NDP PROPOSALS TO ACHIEVE FULL EMPLOYMENT, POVERTY ERADICATION AND GREATER EQUITY

National Planning Commission (2013:3) indicates that NDP charts a course towards a decent life for all South Africans by 2030, with full employment, greater equality, and the elimination of poverty. Kotze (2012:24) mentions that NDP offers a set of values, aligned to the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, and gives guidance to policy-makers and civil society about what needs to be done to achieve that ambitious goal. Zondi (2014:103) articulates that NDP proposes a development path that enables broader access to livelihood opportunities, either through employment or self-employment, on the back of a growing and more inclusive economy. The NDP's proposals to promote inclusive growth focus on an integrated picture of South Africa's development path.

Davidson and Sahli (2015:171) view that sustainable employment creation and shared prosperity substantially rely on creating an enabling structural environment for broader economic participation and strengthening investments in human resource development. National Planning Commission (2013:31) indicates that NDP aims to build the consensus among South Africa's stakeholders through a set of objectives of what South Africa wants to achieve by 2030; a long-term strategic framework to guide more detailed planning to make the best choices in the allocation of limited resources; and an understanding of the key obstacles to achieving these objectives and how to overcome them; the contribution of government and civil society to ensure that the goals of the NDP are met.

2.13.1 The policy stance to achieve full employment, poverty eradication and equity

In the realm of economic policy, Ntim and Soobaroyen (2013:125) show that NDP speaks of full employment, poverty eradication, and equity could be achieved through a decent standard of living that is accessible to low-income and working-class households. Shava (2016:165) view that this requires an affordable cost of living, and that public services that underpin human resource development are accessible, affordable, and of a high quality. Most importantly, Bendix and Bendix (2017:57) are of the view that cost of food, commuter transport, and housing must be affordable, while the quality of free or low-cost education and health care must be raised. Bendix and Bendix (2017:57) add that this enables the broader population to participate, makes labour more attractive in new industries, and reduces the cost of doing

business. The NDP argues that investment in human capabilities is the most important ingredient for achieving sustained inclusive growth and full employment (Shava, 2016:167).

Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:261) state that a labour market that is responsive to the challenge of simultaneously expanding employment opportunities in a growing, diversifying and modernising economy, raising living standards, and reducing inequality. Vennebo and Ottesen (2012:261) adds that this requires a lifelong learning and career advancement; a stable labour environment; strong dispute-resolution institutions; stable and constructive public sector labour relations; compliance with labour standards among employers, recruitment agencies and brokers; regulations and standards that enable compliance by small and medium enterprises; robust active labour market policies and labour matching; skilled immigration enabled to support growth; and a space economy that integrates living and work critical to inclusive growth. Grant (2012:922) states that if living and work are not integrated, the state needs to step in to address the cost challenges associated with these entrenched barriers to opportunity.

Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:444) view that settlements and services need to be flexible to enable movement to work in different locations. Plessing (2020:52) is of the view that increased urbanisation and urban densification will be a key to ensuring integrated spaces and equitable access to affordable, high-quality services. Plessing (2020:52) shows that higher rate of investment is required. Dobrinevski and Jachnik (2020:88) add that this needs to be more productively deployed, with higher levels of needed public sector investment serving to crowd in increasing private investment. Brougham and Haar (2020:125) accede that achieving this requires partnerships with the private sector, policy certainty, capable public sector institutions, and building confidence in the long-term growth of the economy.

Muhyiddin and Nugroho (2021:5) argue that an industrial base that is diversifying reduces resource-curse dynamics and encourages more labour-absorbing activities. Muhyiddin and Nugroho (2021:5) add that critical factors to support this goal include reducing cost of regulatory compliance, especially for small- and medium-sized firms; support for small businesses through better co-ordination of relevant agencies, development finance institutions, and public and private incubators; a firm commitment to public and private procurement practices that stimulate domestic industry and job creation; the promotion of competition and action to reduce excessive industrial concentration where it holds back broader participation, innovation and growth; greater integration into the regional and global economy in a way that benefits growth, employment and transformation.

Alex and Juan (2017:13) are of the view that achieving growth in a small open economy such as South Africa's requires increased foreign demand so that companies can achieve economies of scale and scope. In addition, Mubecua and David (2019:35) accede foreign exchange generated from exports will fuel South Africa's infrastructure development programme, and the expansion of its manufacturing base. Mubecua and David (2019:35) further show that Integration into the global economy will further enable competition and technology learning. As the country with the most developed industrial and financial sectors in the region, Kyere and Ausloos (2021:1875) view that South Africa must play a more significant developmental role to promote regional integration. National Planning Commission (2013:42) shows that NDP proposes that South African exports grow by 6% annually in volume terms up to 2030, with non-traditional exports growing by 10% per annum. Carlitz and Makhura (2021:130) articulate that intra-regional trade in Southern Africa should grow from 7% of trade to 25% by 2030. Carlitz and Makhura (2021:130) add that intra-regional trade in Sub-Saharan Africa should grow from 15% of trade to 30% by 2030.

Cunningham *et al.* (2017:33) show that binding constraints are addressed as an immediate priority. Cunningham *et al.* (2017:33) add that these binding constraints stop potential investment in its tracks, rendering long-term capital commitments impossible. Sulla and Zikhali (2018:77) argue that binding constraints undermine confidence in the long-term future of the economy, and therefore have a broader impact on the cost of capital and serve to reduce economic potential. Sulla and Zikhali (2018:77) further indicate that some clear examples of these constraints include certainty about the availability of critical utility services, such as water and energy, and in licensing regimes and property rights.

Cosser (2018:102) argues that infrastructure programme must aim to stimulate the economy in the short, medium and long term. In the short term, Cosser (2018:102) view that infrastructure programme should stimulate construction and related inputs industries. More importantly, in the medium and long term, Cosser (2018:102) states that it must deliver efficient, competitive, financially and environmentally sustainable and accessible infrastructure to enable current and future-oriented activities. Song and Zhou (2020) argue that emphasis must be on commercial transport, energy, water and telecommunications. Bollens (2021:291) states that spatial planning processes to identify the type and scale of infrastructure required to attain spatial equity is critical. Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:453) view that state-owned entities (SOEs) are central to the success of the infrastructure programme and they must have the appropriate capacity and governance structures in place to ensure that they are able to deliver fully on this mandate. Baroutsis *et al.* (2016:453) add that ownership and market structure must be modernised and made reflective of practices that drive competitive behaviours.

Ojogiwa (2021:83) states that public sector employment that is arranged appropriately for service delivery. Given the prominence of the public service in government budgets, Ojogiwa (2021:83) articulates that it is essential that it contributes to greater state productivity and improved service delivery. Brockway *et al.* (2021:110) even small performance improvements could have a significant impact on economy-wide performance and productivity, and therefore on growth and employment. Akinboade *et al.* (2013:458) show that two main issues are identified in the NDP which are excessive hiring and salary increases in high-skill managerial and bureaucratic positions, and not all these positions have been filled by appropriately skilled persons who can contribute to achieving the organisation's goals. Consequently, Akinboade *et al.* (2013:458) add that not enough resources have been directed at hiring and remunerating personnel directly involved in service delivery. Bhat *et al.* (2020) point that lower grades are not utilised as they should be: lower-skill public sector salaries have been inflated to such an extent that there is very little hiring at that level, so that professional staff are not effectively supported.

National Planning Commission (2013:67) indicates that NDP proposes a review of the current grading system, a better distribution of staffing to strengthen service delivery, a commitment to ensuring that the right skill is in the right job, and a greater commitment to performance across the public sector. Ritzen and Zimmermann (2014:2) view that it is unlikely that the market will deliver full employment, even under the best conditions. Hendriks (2013:5) attests that state will have to step in to create employment in a way that is sustainable and serves the long-term growth and development objectives of the NDP. Hendriks (2013:5) adds that community-based services, through special employment programmes, offer the most opportunities in this regard. National Planning Commission (2013:87) states that NDP proposes that about half of all unemployed will eventually be absorbed into community-based Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)-type service jobs that are focused on deepening service delivery.

2.14 MEASURES TO ACHIEVE THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

Naidoo and Maré (2015:425) suggest that a re-invigorated implementation strategy is required going forward at the core of which must be credible delivery mechanisms and prioritisation. Hendriks (2013:15) is of the view that to achieve the objectives of the NDP may entail a Presidential assertion of a renewed consensus and subsequent compacting around big themes with defined implementation schedules. Mabunda (2018:92) emphasises that focused and committed leadership across society is required, as well as a stronger role by the private sector. In the absence of a social compact around advancing the NDP, or at least a shared implementation and monitoring framework, Lambrecht and Tucker (2019:2975) state that it is difficult to account for the contribution of the private sector, organised labour, or civil society. Hart *et al.* (2020:33) accede that a broad and functional social compact must be established, based on trust and a strong accountability chain in government and across society, with all leader being held accountable.

According to Nair and Sagarán (2015:101), the overall impact of the state needs to be maximised, and state power more effectively leveraged for the good of all society. Above all, Buys (2018) claims that there is a need to facilitate community participation in reclaiming their dignity from the dehumanising scourge of poverty and inequality. Matukane and Bronkhorst (2017:7) are of the opinion that it is imperative to prioritise vulnerable people living with high levels of poverty, in particular women, children and those living with disability, and to be deliberate in narrowing the gap between the rich and poor, building on existing social wage policies and measures. Haywood *et al.* (2019:561) emphasise that government must improve the quality and efficiency of its spending through better planning, streamlining the institution of government, sound procurement systems, as well as greater competition and productivity in the economy, considering that the overall national budget envelope is likely to grow relatively slowly over the medium term.

Palei (2015:173) is of the opinion that particular attention needs to be given to managing the government wage bill and making resources available for other priorities. Palei (2015:173) adds that this will involve balancing competing pressures such as increasing staff numbers, adequately remunerating skilled professionals and improving benefit coverage. Sender (2016:27) suggests that the focus must be on actions that actively contribute towards reducing poverty, inequality, and unemployment through improved coverage and quality of basic service provision, including improved provision of basic service infrastructure. Islam *et al.* (2014:7) indicate that improving the quality of the physical environment within which people live and work will help reduce inequality. Islam *et al.* (2014:7) further add that this includes

improving access to social infrastructure, economic opportunities and creating safer, more liveable and integrated living environments.

To supplement social safety nets, Cilliers and Aucoin (2016:22) articulate that the government in partnership with the private sector must create poverty-reducing job opportunities and programs such as the Expanded Public Works Programmes (EPWP) as well as to promote and support SMMEs and improve access to skill-enhancing education and training. Sutherland (2020:240) posits that the NDP's recommendations for the immediate attack of poverty remain valid and need to be prioritised in implementation. Karriem and Hoskins (2016:334) are of the view that poverty reduction prospects by 2030 will depend to a large extent on GDP growth and reduction of income inequality, with access of the poorest to services, economic opportunities, and fiscal redistribution as key strategies. Girum *et al.* (2018:9) suggest that South Africa will require integrated anti-poverty strategies that must also address complex structural factors, such as the enduring effects of the apartheid system; skills constraints; the capacity of the state; the high wealth and income inequality gap; inadequate economic growth that benefits the few; and the high disease burden of the poor, in particular HIV/Aids.

Benjamin *et al.* (2017:37) show that renewed consensus is required on how the economy can be built to create broader and more inclusive growth. Benjamin *et al.* (2017:37) further indicate that this must confront the deep-seated structural causes of poor growth and job-creation, low inclusivity, low competition and competitiveness, and the inequities in ownership, wealth, and income distribution. In this regard, Benjamin *et al.* (2017:38) suggest that South Africa economic strategy needs to change, to enable a more dynamic, higher growth and inclusive trajectory, and a deliberate focus on previously neglected townships, former *Bantustans* and rural areas, where the majority of the population live. There should be a focus on areas that provide opportunities for both densification, such as former white, Indian and coloured suburbs, and for improving the social wage such as health, education, living standards and access to economic opportunities (Allais, 2021:560).

Cousins *et al.* (2018:1071) point that reducing unemployment through increasing access to opportunity and ensuring that people live in well-located areas and are able to access work and business opportunities should receive attention. Sutherland (2020:250) indicates that an integral part of a renewed consensus on the economy must include building and deepening consensus around a common vision for a just transition to a low-carbon, climate-resilient economy and society, and also engage the ongoing transition due to digital and Fourth Industrial Revolution technologies. Gerard *et al.* (2020:295) suggest that South Africa will need to achieve a zero-carbon economy by putting people, especially those living in poverty and the vulnerable at the forefront. The National Planning Commission (2013:89) proposes that

the country builds the resilience of its economy and its people through affordable, decentralised, diversely owned renewable energy systems; conservation of the natural resources; equitable access of the water resources and sustainable, equitable and inclusive land-use for all, especially for the most vulnerable.

Patel and Kumar (2019:61) are of the view that the high value placed on healthy ecosystems, land, water and air, and ensures a better life for all who live in South Africa. The National Planning Commission (2017:62) submits that South Africa must decisively confront developmental challenges and arrive at a renewed consensus around the economy. Langer *et al.* (2017:343) suggest that the NDP should include convening all stakeholders and social partners to engage on an inclusive economic growth strategy for South Africa. The National Planning Commission (2017:62) further submits that implementation of the NDP be focused on a few and clear overarching priorities, framed by the goals to build an inclusive economy, a capable nation and a capable state. Akinola (2021:253) indicates that all efforts in implementing the NDP must be assessed and measured against the impact they make in obliterating poverty, unemployment and inequality. Falebita and Koul (2018:136) point that it is critical that implementation of the NDP be monitored and measured through a well-designed tool.

National Planning Commission (2017:74) initiates a process to develop a framework that more directly and sharply represents NDP proposals and the impact they seek to achieve, and how they should be measured. National Planning Commission (2017:74) further shows that this work should be taken forward to support a strengthened social partnership-based approach to implement the NDP. In this connection, Mabunda (2018:152) maintains that appropriate mechanisms are required for stronger and clearer line of sight of implementation in the Presidency, which will also act as the overarching NDP champion. Mabunda (2018:152) further adds that this will bring new energy, vigour and focus to the task of NDP implementation. In addition, Mabunda (2018:152) indicate that a key area is how relevant monitoring data will be collected and maintained across all implementing actors within and outside the state. These are critical imperatives in institutionalising planning, and include further developing the role of the National Planning Commission as an independent advisory think tank (Mabunda, 2018:152).

2.15 CONCLUSION

The preceding chapter provided a literature review to put into context the challenges of the NDP 2030 and its targets by 2030. The literature review focused on the research provided by various scholars on the NDP 2030. The chapter also provided the objectives of the national development plan 2030 supporting the implementation of the NDP 2030. The challenges of the NDP 2030 were derived from completed dissertations, books, and journals.

The chapter also provided the Formulation and introduction of the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030. The study shows the vision of the national development plan 2030 which it aims to achieve by 2030. This chapter further suggests the measures to achieve the National Development Plan 2030. The researcher focused mostly on providing aims and goals of the NDP 2030 before the outbreak of COVID-19.

CHAPTER 3

COVID-19 AND THE IMPLICATIONS ON THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN, 2030: A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the formulation and introduction of the NDP 2030 together with the targets that the plan aims to achieve by 2030. The aim of this chapter is to provide the insight on the topic that the study focuses on which in this case is the COVID-19 in the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. This will be done by looking the various sources to provide a conceptual background of the COVID-19 and how the targets of the NDP were affected by the pandemic.

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework on the NDP 2030 to overview the status of COVID-19 in South Africa and assesses the impact of the COVID-19 on the objectives of the NDP 2030.

3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

Development is defined by Todaro and Smith (2012:31) as a multi-dimensional process that involves major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as economic growth, reduction of inequality, and eradication of absolute poverty. Most scholars propounded theories concerning development, how it is achieved and how it is impeded. These theories include the Sustainable Development Theory and People-centred Development Theory which are both relevant to this study.

3.2.1 Sustainable Development Theory

Mensah (2019:20) indicates that sustainable development is an organising principle for meeting human development goals while simultaneously sustaining the ability of natural systems to provide the natural resources and ecosystem services on which the economy and society depend on. Mensah (2019:20) further postulates that the desired result is a state of society where living conditions and resources are used to continue to meet human needs without undermining the integrity and stability of the natural system. Sustainable development meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Verma, 2019:4). Sustainability addresses the global challenges, including poverty, inequality, climate change, environmental degradation, peace, and justice. Verma (2019:5) further declares that the concept of sustainable development has shifted its focus more towards the economic development, social development and environmental protection for future generations.

Sustainable development has emerged as a key word indicating the level of participation in and integration into the global economy of previously under-developed or marginalised countries, especially from the third World (Lemanski, 2007:448). Mignolo (2011:159) claims that even though decolonial theory contests, the validity of arrogant western assessment of the norms at work in classification of nation-states, it is widely accepted that there is a direct equation between growth and equality. Furthermore, Mignolo (2011:159) indicates that the lower the level of inequality in any country, the faster and the more sustainable the growth in the economy is expected to be. South Africa has a high level of inequality and stuck in low economic growth (Allais, 2012:632). In essence, Allais (2012:632) further points that the current high level of inequality in South Africa results in slow and unsustainable growth in the economy. Carley and Spapens (2017:324) are of the view that a healthy development path for South Africa would mean that both economic growth and equality should be sustainably sought. Carley and Spapens (2017:324) further stress that colonial and apartheid periods elicited processes of planning and development which may have been well-managed and controlled but were fundamentally unjust, being based on stark inequalities, and thus strongly and justifiably opposed.

The central focus of this study is to assess the impact of COVID-19 and implementation of the South African National Development Plan (NDP), developed on the basis of the country's model new Constitution to ensure good quality of life and dignity for all its citizens. The goal of this study is to evaluate to which extent COVID-19 has impacted the NDP and recommend strategies that can be used to regain the pace of the NDP. To evaluate the impact of the COVID-19 on the NDP, the study focuses on the challenges of the NDP and the effects of COVID-19 on the NDP. Sustainable developmental theory accent on the inner freedom, the agency of individuals and people, organized in civil society to support each other, to be open, ready and engaged in the development to provide the strategies for the NDP and its path. In the face of state capture, corrupt leadership, personal greed, lack of personal integrity or virtue, disregard for divine commands or human rights, and COVID-19 effects on the NDP, collaboration between the government and its citizens is one factor that can assist to regain the pace of the implementation of the NDP 2030.

3.2.2 People-centred Development Theory

Parry and Tyson (2011:335) indicate that people-centred development is an approach to international development that focuses on improving local communities' self-reliance, social justice, and participatory decision-making. Parry and Tyson (2011:335) further indicate that people-centred development recognises that economic growth does not inherently contribute to human development and calls for changes in social, political, and environmental values and practices. Peterson and Zimmerman (2004:129) state that sustainability is an inherent component and explicit goal of people-centred development. Banerjee, Carney and Hulgard (2019:203) posit that people-centred development calls for the establishment of self-supporting social and economic systems, and key elements of a sustainable society. Kivunike, Ekenberg, Danielson and Tusubira (2011:163) are of the view that democratic processes are essential to people-centred development to allow communities to create their own development goals and influence the decisions that determine their quality of life. Parry and Tyson (2011:335) point that community participation and true democratic process demand that people have the means to hold government officials and public institutions accountable. It requires that governments act as enablers for the peoples' agenda, creating policies that enhance citizen action. Peterson and Zimmerman (2004:129) indicate that communities must have access to relevant, reliable information to make the best decisions for themselves and their communities.

People-centered development is not seen only from theoretical and philosophical context, but it is an approach that can be applied in NDP. The importance of people-centered development in the NDP is a key theme in the discourse, particularly on community competency, community capacity and social capital. This approach is increasingly accepted as a practical approach that can improve capacities and abilities, and thus achieve a better level of communities. Regarding the NDP, the people-centered approach is applicable to solve issues such as poverty, health, inequality and unemployment. This is because this approach is the most effective in solving the issues by empowering individuals to take effective actions through ability and potential development. Raising wages and income of the people is not enough to eliminate poverty, as it must also be followed by the strive to change the paradigm and traditional beliefs of the community members as well as the local institutions. The most appropriate approach used to eliminate poverty is through people-centered development approach.

3.3 THE STATUS OF COVID-19 IN SOUTH AFRICA

Lone and Ahmad (2020:1300) indicate that COVID-19 (corona virus) is having a major impact on South Africa's economy. The World Bank estimates that the economy contracted by 7% in 2020, as the pandemic weighed heavily on both external demand and domestic activity as the government implemented containment measures (Alacevich, 2020:131). This severe contraction is estimated to increase poverty by over 2 million people. Bulled and Singer (2020:1231) mention that South Africa entered the pandemic after several years of low growth. Bulled and Singer (2020:1231) adds that in 2019, the economy grew by 0.2% (in 2018 it was 0.8%) partially caused by the resurgence of load shedding associated with operational and financial difficulties at the energy utility Eskom. Moreover, Jackson (2021:75) shows that the persistence of the pandemic at the global and domestic levels continued to constrain the economic recovery during the first half of 2021.

Keehan *et al.* (2020:704) note that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth was expected to rebound to 3 % in 2021. Keehan *et al.* (2020:704) emphasise that commodity prices remain important for South Africa as a major net exporter of minerals and net importer of oil. Grabara *et al.* (2021:332) are of the view that strengthening investment, including foreign direct investment, will be critical to propel growth and create jobs. Chiwona-Karlton *et al.* (2021:794) articulate that policy makers must balance the positive health effects of strong distancing measures, such as lockdowns, against their economic costs, especially the burdens imposed on low income and food insecure households.

Anyanwu and Salami (2021:31) argue that the distancing measures deployed by South Africa impose large economic costs and have negative implications for the factor distribution of income. Brinton and Oh (2019:105) reveal that labour with low education levels are much more strongly affected than labour with secondary or tertiary education. As a result, Brinton and Oh (2019:105) add that households with low levels of educational attainment and high dependence on labor income would experience an enormous real income shock that would clearly jeopardize the food security of these households. However, Chiwona-Karlton *et al.* (2021:796) show that in South Africa, total incomes for low-income households are significantly insulated by government transfer payments. From public health, income distribution and food security perspectives, Lone, and Ahmad (2020:1303) point that the remarkably rapid and severe shocks imposed because of Covid-19 illustrate the value of having in place transfer policies that support vulnerable households in the event of black swan type shocks.

As indicated by May (2020:2) South Africa's overall GDP was expected to decline by at least 5.1 and up to 7.9% in 2020 and recover slowly through 2024. This will lead to major setbacks in addressing poverty, unemployment and inequality as the Socio-economic is impacted negatively by the COVID-19 pandemic. Keehan *et al.* (2020:709) stress that the number of households below the poverty line increases as households falls from the lower middle class. Anyanwu and Salami (2021:17) indicate that 54% percent of households that have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19 are likely to fall into poverty after the 6-months stimulus package is over. Anyanwu and Salami (2021:17) further mention that 34% of households are likely to exit the middle class into vulnerability.

As indicated by Nardos Bekele-Tomas on United Nation Stats (2019), inequalities within and among nations are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID-19, as the poor and vulnerable are unable to protect themselves. While government social protection grants tend to target the poorest, Bulled and Singer (2020:1235) posit that care and support needs to be provided to those at the borderline of the poverty line, such as the vulnerable middle class, to reduce their likelihood of slipping into poverty. Mathebula and Runhare (2021:187) point that South Africa is the country with the fifth-highest number of cases of COVID-19 in the world, and the highest number of cases on the African continent. Mathebula and Runhare (2021:187) further observe that economic sectors most disadvantaged by the COVID-19 outbreak include textiles, education services, catering and accommodations (including tourism), beverages, tobacco, glass products, and footwear.

Trautrim *et al.* (2020:1067) indicate that in April of 2020, the International Labour Organization predicted global job losses of about 305 million and an estimated 1.6 billion jobs at risk for the most vulnerable in the labour market. The lasting effects of the pandemic significantly weigh on the role of job acquisition in the South African economy, which Anyanwu and Salami (2021:20) argue that it is a main factor in upward mobility for struggling to escape poverty. In addition, Anyanwu and Salami (2021:20) state that the pandemic may not only have short-term income effects but also hamper people's income-generating activities in the longer term, as households will turn to liquidating their small savings and selling off productive assets to cope during the lockdown period.

Trautrim *et al.* (2020:1070) point three main ways that the pandemic can and will impact urban household food security. The first is the food supply chain which appears to be relatively stable at this time. Next is a decrease in food purchasing power and jobs. Essentially, the working class is the most affected by the lockdown. In this case, Trautrim *et al.* (2020:1070) show that there will most likely be an emphasis on non-perishable and processed foods with

a long shelf life due to mobility restrictions. Alacevich (2020:89) states that food insecurity and nutritional inadequacy are pandemic factors on the rise, challenging the safety the South African diet, especially for vulnerable immigrant populations. As indicated by Lone and Ahmad (2020:1306), the shutdown of schools may have increased the number of meals parents at home would have had to make, when otherwise they would have relied on food programs. Meanwhile, Lone and Ahmad (2020:1306) add that many African immigrant women are domestic workers and may have received one or more meals each day at their clients' homes. Now, Esteve-Llorens *et al.* (2021:14) maintain that these food sources are not accessible because of the health and economic crisis. Furthermore, Lal *et al.* (2021:63) attest that securing employment, which was already an uphill battle for African immigrants before COVID-19, has become even more difficult.

3.4 THE IMPLICATION OF COVID-19 IN THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

Padilla and Hudson (2019:127) state that the United Nation Development Program (UNDP) estimated that the consequences of the crisis of COVID-19 could erase up to six years of human development. Anyanwu and Salami (2021:27) projected that the crisis could push between 71 and 100 million people back into extreme poverty. The International Monetary Fund (2019) estimated that emerging and developing economies' GDPs would experience a 3% contraction in 2020. These early estimates, and the pace at which the situation has been evolving since the beginning of the crisis, give a sense of the development crisis which is in the making.

Rogerson and Rogerson (2020:1083) state that South Africa will have to do more with less to assist the recovery of their economies and the implementation of the NDP 2030. Sheller (2021:1436) stresses that the pandemic has raised the question compounding crises and of interlinkages between the national and international spheres. Sheller (2021:1436) further adds that developing countries entered the crisis with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated. Brinton and Oh (2019:115) stress that the COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the NDP regarding the health systems, a higher number of vulnerable populations, such as informal workers and migrants, and can accentuate humanitarian and environmental crises. Furthermore, Hedlund *et al.* (2018) mention that developing countries' high dependency on demand from advanced economies, commodities prices, tourism and remittances from migrants has already exposed their economies to even dimmer perspectives. Moreover, Jomo and Chowdhury (2020:226) show that even though governments in developing countries have taken immediate measures to contain the shock, their shrinking fiscal space might hamper these efforts and push them on a path towards unsustainable debt.

The COVID-19 pandemic has had serious implications for the global economy, with food security and nutrition being particularly impacted (Swinnen & McDermott, 2020:26). According to a report released by Stats SA (2020), almost 23,6% of South Africans in 2020 were affected by moderate to severe food insecurity, while almost 14,9% experienced severe food insecurity. Nwosu and Oyenubi (2021:6) indicate that the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic denied many South Africans their right to adequate food as enshrined in the South African constitution and undermined the efforts that have been made to meet the National Development Plan's goals and the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of Zero hunger by 2030. Sharma *et al.* (2020:22) posit that lockdowns triggered by the COVID-19 pandemic caused major economic disruptions and contributed to loss of livelihoods and income.

Hemmonsbey *et al.* (2021:54) point that it is imperative to understand that before the global outbreak of Covid-19 the South African economy was already in a crisis. The economy was in a recession and the rate of unemployment was at its highest level in over a decade (Bhorat *et al.*, 2021:80). This combine with growing public sector debt, constant power cuts, and a downgrade to junk status in March 2020 was detrimental to the country's economy (Shipalana, 2021). Accordingly, Enaifoghe *et al.* (2021:121) show that Covid-19 hit South Africa on the back of a technical recession and debt crisis. The Covid-19 pandemic has entrenched and exposed South Africa's inequality. Over two million jobs have been shed during 2020 (Stats SA, 2020). This has undermined the fight against poverty and led to an increase in the official unemployment rate at 34.6% in the third quarter of 2021 and an expanded unemployment rate stands at 46.6% (Stats SA, 2021). Moreover, the youth unemployment rate stands at 46 percent between the ages of 15-34 (Stats SA, 2021). According to the World Bank (2020), 55.5% (30.3 million) of South Africans are living in poverty at the national upper poverty line, ZAR 992, while a total of 25% (13.8 million) are experiencing food poverty.

African and female-headed households are mostly affected by poverty. Inequality has been growing since 1994 and extreme poverty was expected to increase by 9 percent in South Africa by 2020 (World Bank, 2020). As a result, over 18 million South Africans are dependent on social grants for survival (Stats, 2021). The number has increased because of the Covid-19 pandemic with 61% of South Africa's population receiving some form of grants (Bhorat & Kohler, 2020:98). Over 6 million people had applied for the Covid-19 Social Relief of Distress Grant in the previous opening cycle (Letsatsi, 2021:789). According to Mosala (2016:106), this illustrates the failure of the ANC government to address the structural problems in the economy and attempts to contain popular discontent. As a result of neoliberalism, South Africa is over reliant on Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) which has undermined economic growth.

According to the former finance minister, Tito Mboweni (2021), South Africa's real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) stopped growing since 2009. Moreover, Tito Mboweni (2021) adds that South Africa's decline reflects low economic growth combined with relatively fast population growth. This explains the 2019 and 2020 recession which saw GDP falling by just over 16.4% (Stats SA, 2020). Dyer (2022:18) reveals that billions have been lost to Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) corruption during the Covid-19 pandemic. This followed the State Capture which it extend was exposed during the Zondo Commission. Due to State Capture, State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) such as Eskom, Transnet, South African Airways (SAA), PetroSA, and Denel among many were looted out of billions of Rands and left dysfunctional (Letsatsi, 2021:790). According to Corruption Watch (2021), corruption in municipalities entails bribery, inflating prices, procurement and employment irregularities, and embezzlement of funds. Most of the corruption happens within the office of the municipal manager, representing 34% of all reports received which demonstrate a leadership crisis at the local government (Corruption Watch, 2021). For instance, JB Marks Local Municipality purchased PPE items at inflated prices and spent ZAR 47 million in the space of 3 months (Northwest Provincial Treasury, 2020).

The municipality purchased 5 litre sanitiser bottles at ZAR 720, exceeding the National Treasury's stipulated market-related price of ZAR 327,27 per 5 litres (Auditor-General, 2021). In addition, out of 257 municipalities, only 21 municipalities achieved clean audit in 2020, more than ZAR 1 billion spent on consultants and over ZAR 32 billion in irregular expenditure (Makwetu, 2020). In addition, Makwetu, 2020 state that recent riots that were accompanied by property destruction and looting which have cost the South African economy USD 3.4 billion will contribute to unemployment, capital flight, and investment strike. According to Business Tech (2021), several foreigners are pulling their money out of South Africa. This demonstrates the need for structural transformation to address structural problems. In response to the crisis of COVID-19, Mosala (2022:55) states that the ANC government adopted South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan. However, Francis *et al.* (2020:342) state that the question remains, whether this is the right response by the post-apartheid government in addressing the structural problems that were worsened by the Covid-19 pandemic.

3.5 COVID-19 AND ITS EFFECT ON THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

The National Development Plan (NDP) sets out methods and targets to achieve by 2030, which eradicate food poverty and improve people's health and wellbeing (Fourie, 2018:765). Lone and Ahmad (2020:1300) stress that the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020, found a vulnerable South African economy. Lone and Ahmad (2020:1300) further show

that at the time pandemic reached the nation, economy had experienced consecutive quarters of a recession. As a result, the COVID-19 pandemic deepened the economic crisis (Swinnen & McDermott, 2020:36). Wolfson and Leung (2020:412) point that many people lost their jobs, many have gone without income for extended periods, and many are going hungry every day. Sharma *et al.* (2020:26) indicate that inequality is expected to widen and poverty to deepen due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Analytica (2020:178) emphasises that the stagnation of the economy for a long period coupled with the COVID-19 crisis has also led to low levels of operation in the various sectors of the South African economy. This trend is projected to continue, painting a dire picture for gross fixed capital formation. Analytica (2020:178) indicates that a significant reduction in the gross fixed capital formation variable is a troubling development; given that this variable is critical in sustaining and growing the productive base of the economy. Rakshit and Basistha (2020:243) point that drastic declines in capacity utilization imply that investment plans and projects that were affordable before the impact of the crisis face the possibility of not being affordable with prolonged subdued capacity utilization.

Booyesen (2021:214) reveals that COVID-19 coordinating and responsive structures such as National Coronavirus Command Council (NCCC), National Joint Operational and Intelligence Structure have sharply drawn the attention to the need to embrace the prospects of optimal utilising data infrastructures towards reducing acute hunger and malnutrition at the district/metropolitan municipalities. Kassegn and Endris (2021:188) state that COVID-19 worsens the socio-economic dimensions that relate to hunger and malnutrition among the people due to the economic contraction, closure of businesses, and job losses. Kassegn and Endris (2021:188) further show that the South African Government pre-emptively responded by investing R500 billion into the economy to boost the lively hood of the poor people and private businesses.

Mangen and Veale (2020:45) reveal that the COVID-19 pandemic is having an especially devastating impact on the livelihoods of the most vulnerable South Africans, including young people. Mangen and Veale (2020:45) further show that because of this crisis, it is anticipated that youth unemployment will worsen even further as the rate was 63,9% for those aged 15-24 and 42,1% for those aged 25-34 years, while the current official national rate stands at 34,5%. Laborde *et al.* (2021:132) indicate that the COVID-19 crisis poses an additional threat to the food security of millions of South Africans who were already food insecure before the outbreak of COVID-19. Moreover, Laborde *et al.* (2021:132) view that in the long run the combined effects of the crisis could disrupt the function of food systems. Such a disruption could result in consequences for health and nutrition of a severity and scale never seen in

more than half a century (Nwosu & Oyenubi, 2021:10). Liu and Yan (2020:395) state that the South African economy experienced consecutive quarters in 2020 of negative growth prior to the intensification of the impact of the COVID-19 crisis on the economy. Chilunjika *et al.* (2020:87) stress that the unemployment rate has remained stubbornly high and has been increasing prior to the impact of the crisis permeating through the South African economy.

3.6 THE IMPACT OF THE COVID-19 ON THE OBJECTIVES OF THE NDP 2030

The following discussion is about how COVID-19 has impacted the objectives of the NDP 2030. On 26 March 2020 South Africa went on a full shutdown on services that are not classified as essential services to stop the spread of the COVID-19. The shutdown affected all industries in the country and the paralysed South African economy was badly affected. The government could not cope with the pressure from the citizens for public services and to address the poverty problems. Businesses are experiencing more pressure from the shutdown because there were no economic activities during the lockdown for them. The objectives of the NDP include education, health, unemployment, fighting corruption etc.

3.6.1 Impact of COVID-19 on employment

Rogerson and Rogerson (2020:1090) state that the thirteenth edition of the South Africa economic update, building back better from COVID-19, with a special focus on jobs, examines how supporting young entrepreneurs could be one of the ways the country could address, unemployment, among its other pressing social challenge in an environment of weakened economic growth. Sheller (2021:1440) shows that the economic update expects South Africa's growth to rebound to 4% in 2021, the fastest pace in over a decade, bouncing back from 2020 deep contraction of 7%. However, Porfiriyev *et al.* (2020:245) states that medium-term prospects for higher and more inclusive growth remain constrained. Jomo and Chowdhury (2020:230) add that growth is expected to slow down to 2.1% in 2022 and to 1.5% in 2023.

Troy *et al.* (2020:18) point that South Africa entered the COVID-19 pandemic with low levels of employment rate which for 2020 was 29.22%, a 0.75% increase from 2019 and the rate of 28.47% in 2019 and a decade of weak job creation, far below the standards of most upper middle-income countries. Troy *et al.* (2020:18) state that despite the government's solid response to the pandemic, jobs have been severely impacted, and recovery is slow. Lim *et al.* (2021:5) show that by the end of 2020, despite two quarters of employment growth, the number of employed people had fallen by nearly 1.5 million, and the wages of workers who

still had jobs had fallen by 10 – 15%. Cilliers, Sankaran, Armstrong, Mathur and Nugapitiya (2021:1047) reveal that in 2021, only 40% of employment losses had been recovered.

Malaya (2021:78) stresses that job losses in COVID-19 times are disproportionately concentrated among low-income earners, worsening already severe inequalities despite the government's decisive and pro-poor response with transfer programs that partially cushioned the negative impacts of the pandemic. Malaya (2021:78) further indicates that low-wage workers suffered almost four times more job losses than high-wage earners. In addition, Malaya (2021:78) shows that the COVID-19 pandemic crisis has exposed structural weaknesses in the job market. Li and Heath (2020:857) state that young people, in particular face acute unemployment rates, with incidence twice as high as among older age groups. Li and Heath (2020:857) indicate that among 15–24-year-olds, 63% are unemployed and looking for work, whereas among 25–34 year olds, this rate reaches 41%. When discouraged workers are included, unemployment rates are as high as 74% for 15–24-year-olds and 51% for 25–34-year-olds (Li and Heath, 2020:857).

Padilla and Hudson (2019:128) suggest that entrepreneurship and self-employment offer the biggest opportunity to create jobs in South Africa, particularly with the increasing number of start-ups, especially in the digital sector, which could become an engine of jobs growth in the future. Padilla and Hudson (2019:128) add that Cape Town alone, the tech capital of Africa, has over 450 tech firms and employs more than 40,000 people. Gachie (2021) shows that in 2020, a total of R1.2 billion disclosed investments went into its tech start-ups. Prachand *et al.* (2020:285) indicate that in South Africa, self-employment including own-account workers with own businesses, freelancers, only represents 10% of all jobs, compared to around 30% in most upper-middle income economies such as Turkey, Mexico, or Brazil.”

Alova *et al.* (2021:158) state that in contrast to projections by global multilaterals, forecasts by South African state institutions tend to project much lower job losses. Alova *et al.* (2021:158) show that key estimates are that job losses will be about as severe as during the 2008 global financial crisis, even though the annualised contraction of South Africa's GDP from COVID-19 is expected to be at least five times larger in 2020 alone. The National Treasury (2021) has forecast job losses of between 690,000 and 1.79 million for 2020, a downward revision from its original 3 to 7 million job-loss projections because it is now using a full-time equivalent measure and adjusting for furloughs and other measures to mitigate the impact on jobs. Leal *et al.* (2020:5343) state that the generally accepted relationship between GDP growth and unemployment growth helps in the assessment of existing forecasts of employment loss in South Africa. In existing forecasts, employment projections are out of sync with corresponding GDP forecasts, even though observation of over time, a clear relationship between GDP and

employment in the case of South Africa and for other economies during COVID-19 (Troy *et al.*, 2020:25).

Stats SA (2020) reported that 8.1 per cent of respondents had already lost their jobs or had to close their businesses. The estimates are also consistent with actual job loss numbers released by advanced economies such as diversified industries. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1098) indicate that the estimates of the job losses are larger than jobs lost as a result of the last crisis, the global financial crisis, in which around a million jobs were lost and job growth was driven almost exclusively by growth in the public sector in the years after 2008. As noted by Sheller (2021:1438), the contraction of GDP is likely to be five times larger in the COVID-19 crisis, although the nature of the shocks is different.

Although the proportion of jobs lost are high, Blundell *et al.* (2020:295) are assume that there is a 10 per cent reduction in final demand, only 7.7 per cent of total wage income in the economy is lost, amounting to R185 billion or around 3.6 per cent of 2019 GDP. Blundell *et al.* (2020:295) further view that this may appear lower than expected, for two main reasons: value added declines by 9.7 per cent and 44 per cent of incomes go to profits in our model, followed by 2.2 per cent to government through net indirect taxes on production and products. Mathebula and Runhare (2021) state that jobs at risk are concentrated in the formal, private, non-government sectors of the economy. Mathebula and Runhare (2021) add that assuming a shock of 10%, 66% of total job losses would be in the formal sector. Esteve-Llorens *et al.* (2021:18) state that many of the jobs might not be lost, even immediately, because in practice there are other labour market adjustment mechanisms, including reductions in wages, working hours, work practices and processes, and slips into informality, as well as other precarious forms of income generation.

Zemtsov *et al.* (2019:84) state that jobs at risk are also concentrated in the tertiary sector of the economy. Zemtsov *et al.* (2019:84) further show that 69.7% of job losses are in the tertiary sector, followed by 12% in the primary sector, and 18.3% in the secondary sector. In contrast, Lim *et al.* (2021:10) mention that the tertiary sector accounts for 74% of total employment, the secondary sector 15%, and the primary sector 10%. Lim *et al.* (2021:10) maintain that this reflects the fact that the production structure of the South African economy has changed over time, as employment and production have shifted towards the service sector in line with global trends in value added, demand, and innovation. In addition, Lim *et al.* (2021:10) add that tertiary sector also highlights the unique nature of the shock, as services-based consumption spending is hit particularly hard.

Gehrke (2019:413) reveals that jobs at risk are higher than expected in agriculture. Gehrke (2019:413) adds that to a large extent this is due to the large number of workers employed in

agriculture, almost double that of coal, gold, metals, and other mining and quarrying combined, as agricultural production has grown and mechanisation remains much lower than in the hard commodity sector. Malaya (2021:89) indicates that the primary sector and the service sector such as agriculture and mining are also experiencing large contractions because they are most driven by consumption spending, which accounts for a larger portion of final demand in these sectors. Malaya (2021:89) maintains that this also corresponds to the fact that primary subsectors have high levels of human-to-human work. Cilliers *et al.* (2021:1048) show that gold production has already been halted in 2020 because of the rapid spread of infection between miners.

Given the distribution of impact the most at risk jobs are those of lower-skilled workers, often in lower earning jobs, on flexible work contracts, or in the informal sector (Wood *et al.*, 2019:56). Furthermore, Wood *et al.* (2019:56) state that these jobs also have weaker protection and a higher possibility of substitution of their employment with home production or mechanisation. Malaya (2021:100) points that 86.2% of jobs at risk are in unskilled, low-skilled, and semi-skilled occupations. In continuation, Biryukova *et al.* (2022:14) indicates that only 13.8% of jobs at risk are skilled jobs. Chaloff and Namiki (2020:145) further show that 28.8% of jobs at risk are basic, 22.6% are low-skilled, and 34.8% are semi-skilled. Apart from the trade sector, Alova *et al.* (2021:158) reveal that the subsector with the highest number of jobs at risk is community, social and personal services, which consist of domestic workers, cooks, gardeners, laundries, and hair services, along with cinemas, artists, and live entertainment, among other low-skilled workers and sub-sectors.

Keehan *et al.* (2020:710) state that although South Africa's informal sector is smaller than in many developing countries, a large number of informal sector workers are at risk of losing their earning ability: between 255,426 and 766,277 informal sector jobs as a result of a 5–15% shock to final demand. Brinton and Oh (2019:110) state that women and men are similarly impacted by the COVID-19 shock. Brinton and Oh (2019:110) further attest that women account for 39.9% of potential job losses and 41.4% of total employment in the economy, while men account for 60.1% of potential job losses and 58.6% of employment in the economy. Kabeer (2021:85) views that potential job losses for men and women tend to be concentrated in the same sectors, with some notable exceptions. Wholesale and retail trade is the largest source of job losses for women (178,277), even though men account for more absolute job losses than women in this sub-sector (Li & Heath, 2020:865).

Wood *et al.* (2019:57) state that community, social, and personal services see considerably more loss of jobs for women than for men (163,707 total losses), accounting for roughly one-quarter of all potential female job losses. Wood *et al.* (2019:57) show that this sector includes

a sizable number of domestic workers, overwhelmingly female. St Cyr *et al.* (2021:6185) reveal that among major sources of employment, catering and accommodation also has more job losses for women than men (40,229). St Cyr *et al.* (2021:6185) add that other notable job losses for women that outnumber men are also expected in health and social work (46,147), wearing apparel (6,317), and private education (19,652). St Cyr *et al.* (2021:6185) show that in wearing apparel, the gender gap is particularly large, with women accounting for 6,317 job losses and men only 1,258. St Cyr *et al.* (2021:6185) show that for men, job losses are concentrated in wholesale and retail trade, other community, social, and personal services, business activities, agriculture, and construction, which account for 62% of all job losses.

Beyond the expected employment losses, Angell *et al.* (2020:128) state that it should be noted that women represent a much higher proportion of workers 78.3% in the health and social work sector and are at the frontline in the battle against the virus. In addition, as seen around the world, Smith *et al.* (2021:1364) mention that women have been impacted more by unequal distribution of the care burden, which has been exacerbated by the COVID-19 crisis. Adetayo (2020:373) indicates that 11.6% of those in working poverty earning below R5,086 per month are at risk of job loss compared with 9.8% of workers earning above the working-poverty line. Onyema *et al.* (2020:108) add that those in working poverty also comprise 65% of total job losses. Maluleke *et al.* (2022:83) shows that 15% of all workers impacted are earning below the Statistics South Africa 2018 Upper-Bound Poverty Line (UBPL) of R1, 183 per month, even though they only represent 13% of total workers. Moreover, Bisaga *et al.* (2019:56) point that around 35% of job losses for those earning below the UBPL are in the other community, social and personal services subsector, mainly as domestic workers, gardeners, or cooks.

Bigger and Millington (2020:601) are of the view that some job losses are likely to take longer to materialise. At the outset, Bigger and Millington (2020:601) add that the model assumes full flexibility in labour markets and that the labour market adjusts through changes in quantities. Khanna (2020:181) is of the view that workers do not immediately lose their jobs when their sector's output contracts. Furthermore, Khanna (2020:181) shows that adjustments in work hours or wages are other mechanisms that companies can use to minimise wage costs as output contracts. Moreover, Khanna (2020:181) state that more skilled workers have contracts, and government workers have strong unions to protect them from a downturn. Kabeer (2021:17) indicates that 21%-point net decline in active employment as a share of the working age population, while there is a 9% point net increase in non-employment, a 7% point net increase in paid leave, and a 4% point net increase in temporary layoffs. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1097) suggest that the COVID-19 tremor will likely have long-run impacts on the South African labor market.

3.6.2 Impact of COVID-19 on social protection

Jain *et al.* (2020:157) indicate that 37% of those who were temporarily laid-off or put on paid leave in April 2020 were not covered by any kind of social protection measure. Jain *et al.* (2020:157) add that only 20% of these workers received Temporary Employee/Employer Relief Scheme (TERS). Bhorat *et al.* (2021) stress that household grants reach a substantial share of the temporarily unemployed, with over 50% of these workers receiving a grant in their household. Schleiermacher and Bernofsky (2021:51) stress that TERS is not applicable in cases where the employment relation is completely severed. Schleiermacher and Bernofsky (2021:51) show that close to a third of job-losers who shift into non-employment are not covered by any kind of social protection measure, 39% receive only the Child Support Grant (CSG) in their household, 9% receive other household-level grants but no CSG, and 20% of these workers receive both the CSG and some other grant in their household.

St Cyr *et al.* (2021:6187) view that across different groups of job-losers, household grant receipt is clearly progressive, with women, those at the bottom of the February 2021 earnings distribution, and informal workers being much more likely to have a grant recipient in the household. Kabeer (2021:21) mention that two thirds of non-employed job-losers have a grant in their household reflects both the progressivity of the grant system and the regressivity of the labor market shock. However, Gehrke (2019) articulates that it is important to bear in mind that being covered by household grant receipt will frequently not preclude descent into poverty. Gehrke (2019:417) adds that this is because most of these grant recipients live in multi-member households, and the monetary value of each grant is small compared to the magnitude of the labor market shock, especially the CSG.

Bozkurt *et al.* (2020:3) reveal that the disruptions and uncertainty brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic have exacerbated existing socio-economic inequalities and societal pressures. While parent worry had decreased significantly from 56% in Wave 4 February/March 2021 to 45% in Wave 5 April/May 2021, representing the lowest level across all National Income Dynamics Study – Coronavirus Rapid Mobile Survey (NIDS-CRAM) waves, continuous worry has been disproportionately represented amongst disadvantaged groups especially black African, those who are less educated, and those living in food insecure households (Schleiermacher and Bernofsky, 2021:55). An estimated 3 million adults living with children reported both adult and child hunger in their households in April 2021 (Kabeer, 2021:31). Moreover, Kabeer (2021:31) states that at least half of adults reporting food insecurity and learners in their households did not receive a school meal due to the regulations of COVID-19.

Existing evidence of the impact of food insecurity on parents has indicated increased experiences of depressive mood, anxiety and stress, particularly amongst female caregivers with implications for parenting and child developmental outcomes (Alova, Trotter and Money, 2021:154). Alova *et al.* (2021:154) further state that this does not consider the likely toll that major disruptions caused by full and partial school closures over the past 15 months since 2019 have taken on the mental health of learners and their teachers. Therefore, as argued by Stretesky *et al.* (2020:129), potential gains in mental health can be achieved by simply improving children's access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food. According to the Stats SA (2021), the NIDS-CRAM Wave 5 data shows that by April 2021, 56% of adults living with children reported children receiving a meal at school. This represents a significant increase from November 2020 and February 2021 levels of between 40% and 49%.

Bibbins-Domingo (2020:233) shows that the COVID-19 pandemic has unfortunately resulted in unique pandemic related hospitalisation and fatalities across the country, including the basic education sector. The National Institute for Communicable Diseases (NICD) (2020) has reported changes in infections, hospital admissions and fatalities since March 2020, with the effects of the first two peaks recorded in previous NIDS-CRAM policy papers. As detailed by Jain *et al.* (2020:156), children who are 19-years and younger have maintained a lower infection rate, now estimated at 5.5 times lower than those older than 19 years. Furthermore, Jain *et al.* (2020:156) reveal that children aged 19 years and younger have a 13.3 lower chance of hospitalisation than older individuals, and schools have not emerged as primary transmission sites or contributors to peaks in infections. Bhorat *et al.* (2021:65) show that while teachers are not more vulnerable to COVID-19 than their counterparts, the education sector's vaccine drive communicates the value of education in South Africa. Based on this prioritisation of educators and the adverse long-term effects of school disruptions on children, Bhorat *et al.* (2021:65) state that it is recommended that a new compact be formed in the sector and moving forward school closures should not be an option in the response to COVID-19.

3.6.3 Impact of COVID-19 on education

This sub-topic will discuss the impact of COVID-19 on primary, secondary and tertiary level.

3.6.3.1 Impact on higher education

Tirachini and Cats (2020:2) state that South Africa's 26 public universities are under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and COVID-19 as the top two risks. Schleiermacher and Bernofsky (2021:60) state that financial sustainability risks have been mounting over the past decade and the pandemic has exacerbated the risk, forcing the government to comprehensively review the budgets and financial position, and to be extremely careful about the cost and growth strategy.

Tirachini and Cats (2020:2) indicate that public universities have three main streams of income: The block grant and earmarked funds, that is, the government subsidy - the main source; Tuition fees; and Third-stream income from sources such as donations, industry, partnerships, contract research, consulting services and short courses. Scarborough *et al.* Landivar (2021:26) stress that with the block grant, the pandemic has negatively affected the government subsidy. Van Schalkwyk (2021:44) points that at the end of May 2021, universities received an amended ministerial statement indicating that the block grant allocation had been cut, mainly due to increased allocations to the National Students Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS). Van Schalkwyk (2021:44) adds that R2 490million was reprioritised from university allocations to support NSFAS. Furthermore, Van Schalkwyk (2021:44) shows that the reprioritisation affected both the block grant and earmarked grants, including funding for university capacity development, infrastructure development and foundation provisioning.

Gulrajani and Swiss (2019:56) state that universities have sustainability plan but when resources are in a state of flux, organisational vulnerability occurs. Bhorat *et al.* (2021:67) suggest that there are number of risks that the government must address to remain sustainable while ensuring that the universities don't compromise the standards and services they offer. In some instances, Bhorat *et al.* (2021:67) show that universities had to postpone appointments and all faculties and departments have been asked to do cost-cutting and fundraising. Khanna (2020:189) stresses that the budget cuts happened at a worse time when universities needed resources to bolster their infrastructure for online education, improve online pedagogies and strengthen student success initiatives.

Kabeer (2021:30) states that one of the biggest risks for universities is unpaid student fees, and this will continue to rise in 2021 and beyond. Stats SA (2020) indicates that in 2011, student debt in the sector stood at R3, 324 billion and rose to R16, 250 billion in 2020, resulting in a debt ratio of 52.30%. Alova *et al.* (2021:162) indicate that the government subsidies have not kept pace with the increase in student numbers and subsidy per student has declined. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1097) show that NSFAS offers bursaries for students from households with an annual income of up to R350 000. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1097) add that this has doubled over the past couple of years and it is not sustainable. Blundell *et al.* (2020:300) state that in 2018 funding for NSFAS was slightly under R15 billion and grew to almost R 35 billion in 2021. Due to the economic impact of COVID-19, Lim *et al.* (2021:10) reveal that NSFAS looks set to fund even more students, because many fee-paying students have moved into the NSFAS eligibility bracket, which once again reduces universities' budgets as the number of fee-paying student's declines.

The initial ministerial statement (2020) on university funding for 2021/22 and 2022/23 shows an allocation of R 29 411 904 for NSFAS in 2022/23, which is lower than the amount that was required in 2021/22 (about R 35 billion). The ministerial statement (2020) adds that mention that the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) has to find money from somewhere to meet the expected demand in 2023, even if it is to maintain current funding levels. The ministerial statement (2020) shows that the DHET baseline will be raided again to support NSFAS, unless the National Treasury allocates additional funding. Fees wise, in 2020, Stretesky (2020:135) points that the tuition fees increased by 5.3% and expect the increase to be even lower in 2021. In comparison, Bhorat, Oosthuizen and Stanwix (2021:71) show that in 2014 the average price index score for our universities was 7.5% significantly higher than the 5.7% of 2013. Bhorat *et al.* (2021:71) add that in 2019, the higher education price index was estimated at 6.5% compared to 4.1% for CPI.

Kabeer (2021:21) reveals that the per capita growth in real terms of university subsidies has been uneven over the years. Kabeer (2021:21) shows that in 2011/12 it grew by 4.2% but declined in 2013/13 by 4.7%. Kabeer (2021:21) adds that in 2017/18, it grew by 2.3% but in 2020/21 and 2021/22 it declined by 0.2% and 0.6% respectively. Gehrke (2019:420) points out that South African government investment in higher education as a ratio of GDP is about 0.71. In comparison, Gehrke (2019:420) shows that this is less than half of countries like Cuba, China, Finland, Iceland, Malaysia and Ghana and also significantly less than Senegal, Chile, Brazil and India. Whilst this does not necessarily mean that higher education in these countries is better funded compared to South Africa, it reflects a relatively lower fiscal effort for higher education in South Africa (Gehrke, 2019:420).

Alova *et al.* (2021:160) stress the proportion of third-stream income in the total income of universities has declined from 28.6% in 2014 to 24.7% in 2020. However, Alova, Trotter and Money (2021:160) emphasise that third stream income depends on how the economy is performing and when it is not performing third-stream income goes down. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1099) are of the view that universities must utilise resources sustainably, diversify resource streams, contain and replace costs. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1099) add that universities have been compelled to defer or even cancel some planned infrastructure and other projects and manage maintenance costs with great care. Sheller (2021:1440) points that one of the key strategies the COVID-19 era has accelerated is the need to grow long-term, large-scale, sustainable transdisciplinary and international collaborations and partnerships, which help to boost productivity and innovation, share costs and increase income. To achieve this, Sheller (2021:1440) suggests that universities must have a strong reputation for excellence, innovation and creativity, and a record of managing money well, with systems in place to monitor, evaluate and achieve the intended outcomes.

In fighting against COVID-19 pandemic, Mathebula and Runhare (2021:187) suggest that international collaboration is that it enables universities to make important teaching and learning, research, engagement, and innovation advances by building on each other's areas of expertise. To maximise international partnerships and research impact, Mathebula and Runhare (2021:187) view that the government need to focus on the impact of universities in society in addressing the Sustainable Development Goals, Agenda 2063. In addition, Mathebula and Runhare (2021:187) indicate this form of one-world, one-vision collaboration elevates academic facilities to a new level, including teaching and collaborating across continents, using online platforms and video calling in real-time. In this environment, Mathebula and Runhare (2021:187) show that digitalisation is an essential strategic resource for all aspects of university operations going forward. Anyanwu and Salami (2021:19) point that digitalisation requires considerable investment but achieves even greater gains, including producing students being digitally fluent and adaptable for a rapidly changing job market.

As indicated by May (2020:12), the critical task for Higher Education institutions has been in their internal adaptation to the pandemic and how to stand in solidarity with local communities. Bulled and Singer (2020:1235) stress that the realities of the pandemic have forced universities to rethink their ideas of providing access to all students and ensuring that no one is left behind. The University World News (2020) on higher education on the African continent revealed the magnitude of the impact on universities' operations resulting from government lockdowns across the continent. University World News (2020) further shows that the resulting movement to online learning platforms highlights a digital divide that demonstrates pervasive access inequalities, owing to the mass closure of institutions and the subsequent phased-in return of students and staff. Nonetheless, Chiwona-Karltun *et al.* (2021:797) reveal that institutions across the continent contributed to studying the novel coronavirus, with calls being made for more Africa-driven research to promote inquiry into African knowledge and promote further inquiry beyond Western discourses.

Anyanwu and Salami (2021:16) reveal that universities in Africa responded to the global challenge on several fronts through the provision of COVID-19 testing facilities and care centres and the local production of personal protective equipment and ventilation solutions. A note is made of the collaborative efforts of higher education institutions across the continent that partnered with local telecommunications companies to aid in the shift to online learning (Anyanwu & Salami, 2021:16). Adding to this, Bulled and Singer (2020:1241) state that broad-based partnerships were fostered to draw in assistance from civil society, businesses, and communities. Lone and Ahmad (2020:1304) show that the universities that stood out were those whose management and leadership structures adopted inclusive decision-making and active responses to the crisis within their local contexts such as the University of Pretoria and

University of Johannesburg. Lone and Ahmad (2020:1304) indicate that such institutions were at the forefront of promoting proactive institutional responses endorsed by upper governing structures, which promoted innovative solutions to the pandemic. With a changing landscape, Grabara *et al.* (2021:340) reveal that the sector now faces a critical necessity for transformation that ought to promote social justice principles by encompassing inclusivity, equitability, accessibility, and connectivity due to the technological divide. The response of universities in collaborating with local communities and the implication of reciprocal engagement refocuses the *raison d'être* of higher education institutions as part of and in service to communities (Bulled & Singer, 2020:1235).

Allais (2021:557) state that at Nelson Mandela University, two institutional committees were put in place to further the University's engagement philosophy in its internal and external responses to the COVID-19 pandemic. In understanding the university's vital role in the success of both its student body and the community at large, Mtshali and Akinola (2021:169) state that the COVID-19 Coordinating Committee (CCC) facilitated the University's response to the pandemic in support of state and other efforts at the local, provincial and national level. By establishing a convergence fund, Bokwana (2019:58) shows that Nelson Mandela University collaborated with local and international partners to find solutions to the challenges within Nelson Mandela Bay, with a particular focus on the informal settlements and the realities of inequality and unequal access to adequate healthcare. Considering that the COVID-19 pandemic presented more challenges than the effect on the national health system, Bokwana (2019:58) states that university academics and support staff thus shared their expertise on various other aspects of the pandemic and its impact.

Internally, Bibbins-Domingo (2020:233) indicates that the multi-stakeholder Coronavirus Task team (CTT) coordinated several media campaigns on education and awareness, information on alert levels and vaccine myth busting. Bokwana (2019:60) reveals that an estimated 35% of the student body did not have access to laptops or smartphones to continue with their studies online which is a much higher percentage than most other universities across the country. With the uncertainty surrounding the pandemic and the ongoing changes in lockdown regulations throughout 2020, Bozkurt *et al.* (2020:55) articulate that a two-pathway system for learning was adopted to ensure a continuation of learning and teaching. Bozkurt *et al.* (2020:55) show that pathway 1 catered for students with suitable devices such as laptops and smartphones and connectivity and could complete most of their learning digitally. Bozkurt *et al.* (2020:55) state that pathway 2 learners were given greater access to intensive face to face teaching. This helped reduce numbers in on-campus venues for social and physical distancing purposes in a phased return of students to the university campus.

Kabeer (2021:38) views that COVID-19 has provided higher education institutions with an essential lesson in preparedness. Moreover, Kabeer (2021:38) points that COVID-19 has revealed that crisis solutions must be flexible, inclusive and collaborative. Wood *et al.* (2019:60) are of the view that ability for institutions to collaborate on a national, multilateral level is vital to ensure broad-based strategies. Moreover, Wood *et al.* (2019:60) accede that long-term strategic planning is required to provide efficient and inclusive solutions whilst remaining responsive enough to adapt to changes. While virtual learning on the continent is still far from the ideal, Stretesky (2020:133) states that the pandemic has taught universities that the digital divide can be narrowed by catering for basic functionality through innovative and collaborative solutions across universities, industry and government.

3.6.3.2 The impact of covid-19 in primary and secondary education - more than a year of disruption

Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1099) state that the COVID-19 pandemic has led governments to enforce restrictions to economic and social activities. Coetzee and Kagee (2020:1099) show that one of the sectors that have been the most affected since the onset of the health emergency has been pre-primary, primary, and secondary education. More than a year after the World Health Organisation (WHO) proclaimed the outbreak of COVID-19 a pandemic in 2019, Troye *et al.* (2020:97) point that many learners continue to experience either partial or complete school closures. Prior to 2020, Sheller (2021) states that developing countries had made significant strides towards universal basic education as in 2019, primary school enrolment rates had reached over 90% in South Africa. Padilla and Hudson (2019:128) stress that learners in South Africa lost on average three months of schooling than anywhere else in the world.

Prolonged closure of schools and preschool, combined with the economic and health shocks of the COVID-19 crisis, has serious implications for both the present and future development of children, particularly those living in more vulnerable households (Prachand *et al.*, 2020). Since the pandemic's onset, children have been put at greater risk of dropping out of school (Lichand *et al.*, 2021:8), lagging and losing learning (Azevedo *et al.*, 2022:1308), as well as food insecurity (Bibbins-Domingo, 2020:234) and emotional health deterioration (Asanov *et al.*, 2021:630).

Azevedo (2022:1310) stipulates that only learners in grades 7 and 12 were officially allowed to attend school from 8 June 2020, followed by grades R, 6 and 11 from 6 July 2020. However, Gao *et al.* (2022:5) shows that in Wave 2 of COVID-19, the government did allow for deviations from phased return based on a school's ability to comply with COVID-19 guidelines as well as

approval by the provincial Head of Department. As indicated by Mohohlwane *et al.* (2021:45), IN Wave 2 of COVID-19, positive attendance rates amongst grades 1-5 and grades 8-10 learners were reported for the month of July 2020. Pray *et al.* (2020:1600) add that learners across all grades were permitted to attend school from 31 August 2020. Lichand (2021:12) shows that Wave 3 corresponded with a phase of Level 1 lockdown that was in operation from 21 September to 28 December 2020. Van Schalkwyk (2021:49) states that the reopening of schools for the 2021 academic year was meant to take place on 27 January 2021. However, Asanov (2021:640) points that a second wave meant that a phase of adjusted Level 3 lockdown was reintroduced on 29 December 2020, remaining in place until 28 February 2021. As a result, Azevedo (2022:1313) states that the reopening of public schools was delayed by two weeks to 15 February 2021, although private schools were permitted to open two weeks earlier on 1 February 2021.

3.6.3.2.1 School Attendance

Tirachini and Cats (2020:9) state that numerous efforts have been made to estimate the impact of COVID-19 on the drop-out/departure of previously attending learners from school. In June 2020, Bibbins-Domingo (2020:234) estimated that the economic shocks caused by the pandemic would result in the school drop-out of approximately 7 million primary and secondary school learners, increasing the out of school population by 2%. In July 2020, Save the Children (SC) estimated that 7 to 9.7 million children residing in Low- and Middle-Income Countries (LMICs), excluding China, were at risk of dropping out of school. Khanna (2020:183) estimated that in July 2020, 6% of learners across all education sectors are at risk of not returning to school. Tirachini and Cats (2020) indicate that students in the tertiary sector are at risk of non-return than primary school learners.

3.6.3.2.2 Estimated learner dropout/non-return to school

Van Schalkwyk (2021:49) indicates that in November 2020, approximately 94.7% of South African adults living with children reported that all learners in their household had returned to school. In comparison, Van Schalkwyk (2021:49) states this proportion is significantly lower than that provided by the 2018 GHS (96.8%). Furthermore, Van Schalkwyk (2021:49) states that by April 2021, the proportion of households with full learner attendance/school return had fallen significantly to 89.9%. Comparing average household attendance rates, Tirachini and Cats (2020:12) the value of 94.8% in April 2021 represents a statistically significant decline from 2018 (97.9%) and November 2020 (97.0%) estimates.

According to the Gulrajani and Swiss (2019:79), roughly 230,000 learners which constitute 3.2% of households were not attending school in 2018. Lichand (2021:17) predicts that 520,000 which constitute 4.3% of learners were not attending school in 2021. Lichand

(2021:17) shows that a total of 750,000 which constitute 5.1 % were predicted to be out of school in 2021. Azevedo (2022:1314) indicate that the total number of learners aged missing from school in 2021 is estimated to be in the range 650,000 to 750,000. As indicated by Azevedo (2022:1314), these numbers can be compared with the more than 300,000 primary public-school learners who had, according to a parliamentary response by the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, not returned to school by November 2020. Khanna (2020:188) shows that attendance rates drop off sharply amongst 18-year-olds is (73%), 19-year-olds is (48%) and 20 year olds is (31%).

3.6.3.2.3 Attendance by grade

During Wave 2 of COVID-19 pandemic, Khanna (2020) shows that adult reported household attendance rates were approximately 39% on average in July 2020 with significant differences across school grades. Stretesky (2020:139) shows that 88% of adults living with grade 12 learners reported that these learners had returned to school, compared to 11% of adults residing with grade 9 learners. By November 2020, Alova *et al.* (2021:163) reveal that average household attendance rates across grades had increased to at least 95%. According to Borhat *et al.* (2021:67), the recovery of attendance towards the end of the 2020 academic year is caveated by the fact that respondents were asked about learner attendance at any point in the seven days prior to the survey, providing a measure of weekly as opposed to daily attendance. Additionally, Borhat *et al.* (2021:67) state that there is consideration given to school timetable guidelines such as social distancing, bi-weekly rotational attendance, alternating classes on different days of the week, and platooning.

3.6.4 Impact of COVID 19 on the economy

To evaluate the potential impact of COVID-19 containment measures on South African sectors, this study distinguishes four channels by which a lockdown and other efforts were expected to influence economic activities. These include the forced reduction in production because of a national lockdown and other restrictions on business operation, the impact on demand as households are locked down, the effect of disrupted global production and supply chains on South African exports, and the effect of uncertainty on business investment.

3.6.4.1 Forced reduction in production and demand

Labuschaigne (2020:6) holds that to prevent an unmanageable surge in Covid-19 cases, a National State of Disaster (NSD) was declared on 15 March to augment existing measures by the state to deal with the outbreak. Mbunge *et al.* (2021:25) point that new regulations under the Disaster Management Act were introduced to slow the speed of Covid-19 transmission. Mbunge *et al.* (2021:25) adds that these include size limitations of public gatherings, travel

restrictions, suspension of schools, closures ports of entry, and cancellation of government events. Moreover, Mbunge *et al.* (2021:25) state that other efforts from business and civil society were affected due to the suspension of religious gatherings over Easter.

Bokwana (2019) points that a three-week lockdown (national stay at home order) was announced on March 23rd, but effective 27th March 2020 which resulted with closure of public and private activities. Labuschaigne (2020:6) state that the deliberate reductions in demand and production are not uniform. Mohohlwane *et al.* (2021:78) indicate that notices of lockdown regulations contain exemptions under which certain activities considered essential may continue to operate, and a complete cessation of activity is not expected. Labuschaigne (2020:6) states that in the tourism sector, although front-line services such as accommodation and car rental may not be active during lockdown, other activities, such as reservations and other support services, were expected to continue with limited staff.

3.6.4.2 Agriculture, forestry, and fishing

The impact of a lockdown on agriculture was likely to be mildly negative over the lockdown period. Lockdown regulations permit harvesting and storage activities, to prevent wastage of crops already planted and to tend to livestock. Certain activities, such as planting, are restricted. Over the very short term, South Africa is assessed to be food-secure, and precautionary health measures to guard workers in the food value chain have been introduced. Beyond the initial containment measures, demand for agricultural exports may come under greater pressure due to low external demand (Gao *et al.*, 2022:1618).

3.6.4.3 Mining and quarrying

Brinca *et al.* (2021:101) state that large contractions in mining production are expected, as the sector confronts imposed closures of certain mines, as well as temporarily lower global demand. Brinca *et al.* (2021:101) further indicate that gold and coal production are deemed essential and have been allowed to continue operating, although at reduced scale. More generally, Brinca *et al.* (2021:101) show that care and maintenance on mines, are allowed to continue, to prevent safety delays once extractive mining activity is allowed to resume.

3.6.4.4 Manufacturing

Jaiswal and Arun (2020) are of the view that most segments in the manufacturing sector will be subject to lockdown. Wood *et al.* (2021:2) state that certain activities within manufacturing such as food, and the production of packaging, hygiene and medical products are broadly exempted. However, Wood *et al.* (2021:2) show that other segments are expected to be severely affected by the lockdown regulations. Labuschaigne (2020:8) views that production of food and non-alcoholic beverages is expected to continue, although mild reductions in

production may occur. Bokwana (2019:120) shows that retailers have indicated a shift towards pre-packaged food, to avoid any contamination that may occur in open food items such as bread and prepared fruit and salads.

As shows by Asanov (2021:645), activity in the textiles, clothing, leather, and footwear segments was expected to fall considerably. Azevedo (2022:1315) overviews that the provision of medical textiles and apparel was expected to continue, and some firms may refocus production to contribute to increased demand for those goods. However, Azevedo (2022:1315) indicates that this represents a small part of overall activity in the sector and is unlikely to offer considerable support to activity during the lockdown. Asanov (2021:645) adds that producers of wood, paper, and related products are also subject to lockdown restrictions. Azevedo (2022:1315) points that certain product particularly food and medicine packaging, and hygiene products such as toilet paper continued to be produced during the lockdown period as they are essential. While petrochemicals production is allowed to proceed during the lockdown period, Scarborough, Collins, Ruppner and Landivar (2021:34) state that fuel demand is expected to fall, due to a temporary lack of own-vehicle and passenger transport, and a lower level of freight transport expected during the lockdown.

Schleiermacher and Bernofsky (2021:633) view that remaining segments in the manufacturing sector metals, machinery, vehicle production, and furniture are all expected to show sharp declines in production because of the lockdown. Schleiermacher and Bernofsky (2021:633) add that these segments produce mostly capital or export goods, or household durable items such as domestic appliances and televisions. As exports, investment, and household demand is expected to decline considerably over the short-term, it is likely that production would have fallen even without a forced lockdown (Kabeer, 2021:37).

3.6.4.5 Electricity, gas and water

Bokwana (2019:150) state that the production of electricity and water is exempted from strict lockdown regulations, even as some noncore activities are shifted towards home-based work. Mohohlwane *et al.* (2021:98) show that supply-side disruptions of water due to lockdown and containment measures are not expected. Instead, Mohohlwane *et al.* (2021:98) state that demand for electricity is expected to fall due to lower industrial demand, even as household use rises during the lockdown period.

3.6.4.6 Construction

Arndt *et al.* (2020:56) state that construction activity is expected to stall, affected by movement restrictions and constraints on supply and demand. In addition, Arndt *et al.* (2020:56) state that a small amount of construction activity is expected, to provide necessary infrastructure to

support medical efforts (providing temporary medical and quarantine facilities) and enforce containment, although it is unlikely to offer significant offset to a reduction in building and construction activity.

3.6.4.6 Trade, catering, and accommodation

Devereux *et al.* (2020:769) state that retail trade of essential food, hygiene, and medical products is allowed to continue to trade during the lockdown. Moreover, Devereux *et al.* (2020:769) state that other physical retail activity, including clothing stores, furniture and appliance retailers, and hardware stores, have been closed. Furthermore, Devereux *et al.* (2020:769) add that online retailers in these segments remain active; however, purchases may not be delivered until restrictions are lifted. Arndt *et al.* (2020:57) are of the view that movement restrictions on individuals and explicit restrictions on restaurants will severely impact accommodation and catering activities. Furthermore, Arndt *et al.* (2020:57) view that some skeleton staff may be deployed to continue ongoing operations that do not require front-line staff, such as bookings, however hotels are expected to remain shut for regular business.

3.6.4.7 Transport, storage, and communication

Tirachini and Cats (2020:3) state that passenger transport is restricted to the transportation of workers that provide essential goods and services, and transportation of sick people for medical attention. Arndt *et al.* (2020:60) point that Freight transport, warehousing, and logistics services are expected to be limited to the transport of essential medical, hygiene and food items, as well as essential mining outputs (e.g. coal) in the absence of production in most segments of manufacturing. Shaw *et al.* (2021:5) review that telecommunications services are expected to improve slightly, as adaptation to the lockdown prompts employees to work remotely where possible. In addition, Shaw *et al.* (2021:5) state that this is likely to encourage demand by business and other services for telecommunication and internet products.

3.6.4.8 Financial, insurance, real estate and business services

During COVID-19 pandemic, Arndt *et al.* (2020:60) state that continued operation of the banking sector, payments system, pension and medical aid activities is expected. Arndt *et al.* (2020:60) argue that activity in physical branches and back office is expected to be limited to skeleton staff, although the increase in online transactions will provide minor offsetting effects. Rapaccini *et al.* (2020:225) show that in many segments of the real estate and business services sectors, operations are expected to slow, although less severely than expected declines in industrial sectors. Abulibdeh (2020:551) indicates that many firms are expected to adapt telework where feasible, as many activities may not necessarily require workers to be

in a specific location. In addition, Abulibdeh (2020:551) states that a few exceptions to this include rentals, where lockdown restrictions would reduce demand for rented industrial equipment and vehicles; manufacturing support services, particularly where manufacturing production activity is expected to stall.

3.6.4.9 Community, social, and personal services

Arndt *et al.* (2020:62) state that restrictions on movement and social distancing affected social activities. Arndt *et al.* (2020:62) further view that adaptation is expected to be extremely limited, and mainly take the form of online provision of services such as education and religious services. Although medical and health activities are expected to be focused on handling cases of COVID-19 and other urgent medical needs, Abulibdeh (2020:552) views that a large increase in medical services is not expected. Grossman *et al.* (2020:964) state that the provision of outpatient, elective procedures, dentistry, and allied health services is expected to only respond to urgent cases. Abulibdeh (2020:552) adds that early childhood development centers, schools, universities and other learning centers were closed in March 2020. Although some institutions have introduced online delivery, Abulibdeh (2020:552) points that it is unlikely to reach most students. Tirachini and Cats (2020:9) indicate that recreation activities, such as movie theatres, sports, and cultural events, have been closed. In addition, Tirachini and Cats (2020:9) show that public gatherings, including church services and strikes, have been strongly restricted and discouraged.

Despite some activity in informal retail and transport being permitted to provide essential goods and services, Guzman *et al.* (2021:245) show that the bulk of informal sector activity is expected to be suppressed during the lockdown period. Arndt *et al.* (2020:62) point that inbound and domestic tourism have been negatively affected since late January 2020, when various organisations had started to place precautionary measures for staff and postpone or cancel events scheduled in the near term. Abulibdeh (2020:555) indicates that large scale social distancing and travel restrictions were introduced from February 2020, and most tourism-related activities have been suspended under lockdown regulations. Moreover, Abulibdeh (2020:555) shows that movement restrictions have effectively curtailed domestic demand for transport and tourism over the Easter period. Rapaccini *et al.* (2020:229) articulate that tourism consists of a group of different economic activities, all of which will be severely impacted by lockdown. Shaw *et al.* (2021:9) are of the view that demands for vacation travel, meetings and events are likely to remain strained until effective prevention and treatment strategies for Covid-19 are found. Lower tourism activity will deeply affect activities such as accommodation and catering, road and air transport, recreation activities, food, and textiles (Arndt *et al.*, 2020:62).

3.6.5 Impact of covid-19 on human settlements

Wilkinson (2020:503) reveals that informal settlements have been a specific public health concern during the pandemic since they are densely populated and lack adequate access to sanitation and basic infrastructure. Nyashanu *et al.* (2020:655) state that high settlement density and small housing spaces, often shared by extended households, make it difficult or virtually impossible to adhere to social distancing. Given the lack of alternative sites to shelter in place and the heightened economic pressures in the wake of the pandemic, Nyashanu *et al.* (2020:655) indicate that the government put a national ban on evictions of people from homes built on public land without permission for the duration of the lockdown. In addition, Nyashanu *et al.* (2020:655) reveal that this decision was motivated by concerns that evictions would lead to homelessness, which would pose even higher COVID-19 health risks to the evicted.

With the ban on evictions combined with rising unemployment and economic distress that left many unable to pay rent and new informal settlements have sprung up in Cape Town's peripheries (Arndt *et al.*, 2020:62). Jackson (2021:150) shows that one of the new informal settlements, which emerged in *Khayelitsha* on unoccupied land along the N2 highway, is reportedly referred to as COVID-19 by residents, being further subdivided into two sections dubbed Coronavirus and Sanitiser. Compared to existing informal settlements that have been upgraded to ensure basic sanitation access, Shaw *et al.* (2021:11) state that life in these newly established settlements is especially precarious.

Abulibdeh (2020:557) stresses that people in informal settlement have no electricity, access to running water as well as roads. Abulibdeh (2020:557) adds that the only roads that they have are the makeshift roads that they make so that cars can move inside if there is someone sick, so that the person does not die at home due to the lack of roads. Tirachini and Cats (2020:17) stress that there is increase in criminality and violence in informal settlement over the lockdown. Devereux *et al.* (2020:771) state that there worrying trends in the human settlement such as, a rising prevalence of extortion from businesses by local criminal cartels, a greater visibility of organised neighborhood gangs, and an increase in opportunistic crime. Devereux *et al.* (2020:771) add that these trends were mainly explained by the need for criminals to diversify their own activities as other opportunities dried up, and in terms of the increased appeal of criminal livelihoods as labour market alternatives for young men deteriorated. Jaiswal and Arun (2020:78) suggest that the increase in psychological distress and overall feelings of hopelessness may have eroded positive visions of a shared future in favour of a more pessimistic orientation in which the disincentives to engaging in criminal behaviour are weaker.

3.6.6 Corruption during COVID-19 pandemic

The African National Congress (ANC) (2016:5) promised in its local government election manifesto to intensify the fight against fraud and corruption in local government and social fabric crimes in communities. Phago (2020:181) shows that several other opposition parties such as Democratic Alliance (DA) and Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF) highlighted in their respective manifestos intentions to address the corruption issue in municipal institutions. Shaw, Robertson and Ranceva (2021:11) posit that corruption particularly in the procurement process is so severe that municipal service provision is affected enormously. Munzhedzi (2019:664) shows that the promise by the ANC was necessitated by the fact that corruption and maladministration were and are rampant in the local sphere of government. Phago (2020:185) states that corruption and failure to punish those involved in corruption is one of the biggest challenges confronting municipalities in South Africa. Munzhedzi (2016:7) also claim that municipal procurement and corruption are like inseparable twins in that there is none without the other. Furthermore, Munzhedzi (2016:7) adds that this means that most of the corrupt practices in municipalities are in the municipal procurement processes.

The EFF (2020:55) claims that there are many cases in Mpumalanga and elsewhere in South Africa where food parcels specifically meant for COVID-19 beneficiaries were being channeled to member and supporters of the ANC by its councilors. The EFF (2020:55) adds that this basically means that there is biasness in the distribution of food parcels by certain councillors in some municipalities. Moreover, The EFF (2020:55) points that this is not only regarding the issue of food parcels, but the procurement of goods and services needed during COVID-19 pandemic environment. Munzhedzi (2019:659) states that the management of COVID-19 and the achievement of developmental agenda are likely not to be realised if the sphere which should play a critical role is still riddled with corruption incidences. Kassegn and Endris (2021:188) show that the Government invested R500 billion into the economy to boost the livelihood of the poor people and Private businesses which was later used for personal gain.

Ossome (2021:70) states that relaxations of these two legislations make it easier for those with corrupt appetites to manipulate the good intentions of government. Wygal *et al.* (2021:36) reveal that the intention of relaxing these legislations is intended to minimise bureaucratic delays on procurement processes. It means that municipalities may appoint a service provider to provide sanitisers, face masks, water tankers, and temporary shelters for the homeless people without following the long procurement processes (Arndt *et al.*, 2020:70). However, with non-advertisement of tenders, Bokwana, (2019:105) states that possibilities exist for corrupt practices to be undertaken through the appointment of friends and family without relevant capacities and expertise. Corruption has a negative effect in achieving a developmental local

government agenda since resources meant to be used by municipalities in working with other stakeholders in meeting needs of their communities are diverted to the wrong beneficiaries (Mbunge *et al.*, 2021:29).

3.7 ECONOMIC RECOVERY PLAN FOR SOUTH AFRICA

Arndt *et al.* (2020:70) show that the Economic Recovery Plan (ERP), launched on 1 June 2021, set out a new phase of supports and policies to drive a jobs-rich recovery, and to position the economy for the twin green and digital transitions. Brockway, Sorrell, Semieniuk, Heun and Court (2021:632) point that the Plan provides stability and certainty for businesses and employees over the short to medium term by continuing to provide substantial labour market and enterprise supports through the early part of economic recovery from the pandemic and by providing targeted supports for worst-affected sectors. Allais (2021:560) articulates that the Plan is rooted in an overall ambition of exceeding pre-crisis employment levels by reaching 2.5 million people in work by 2024. Crucially, Allais (2021:560) adds that these jobs will be more productive, innovative, resilient, secure, valued, and in new areas of opportunity.

Paunov and Planes-Satorra (2021:241) concurs that the ERP brings together policies and initiatives to drive an immediate economic recovery, with those setting Ireland on a pathway towards a renewed future proofed economy through policies and investments focused on long-term capacity and sustainable growth. Arndt *et al.* (2020:70) point that the four main areas of focus set out in the ERP include helping people back into work through intense activation and skills opportunities; re-building sustainable enterprises through targeted supports and policies to make enterprises more resilient and productive; ensuring a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards; and sustainable public finances for a lasting recovery. To meet the 2030 objectives, Horan (2020:7800) states that a whole of government approach has been taken in Ireland with each Minister being given specific responsibility for implementing individual targets related to their Ministerial functions. Horan (2020:7800) adds that the second National Development Plan is currently being developed and will focus on improving policy coherency across the Goals. Buheji *et al.* (2020:9) state that the capacity of the economy at the end of the COVID-19 tunnel will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer.

In addition to substantial funding for labour market, enterprise and sectoral supports, Arndt *et al.* (2020:70) state that the Plan is underpinned by further strategic investment through Ireland's National Recovery (INR) and Resilience Plan, with relevant projects rooted in advancing the green transition, accelerating and expanding digital reforms and transformations, and recovery and job creation, integrated throughout the Plan. Bardosh *et al.* (2020:7) emphasise that the central focus of the plan is the generation of employment through

supporting new areas of opportunity and strategically investing in Ireland's long term economic and social capacity. To this end, Guzman *et al.* (2021:250) indicate that the housing for all strategy, climate action plan, and the revised National Development Plan 2030, is paramount. Wood *et al.* (2021:13) view that investment under the revised NDP will support the strong emphasis on regional development, a balanced and inclusive recovery, and the over-arching focus on climate, in the Economic Recovery Plan. In doing so, Wood *et al.* (2021:13) state that the revised NDP will generate local employment and support substantial direct and indirect regionally dispersed job creation over a sustained period.

According to Ozili (2021:401), to the 6th administration, the Covid-19 crisis presents an opportunity to address long-term structural deficiencies in the South African economy and place the economy on the new path to growth and job creation. To achieve this, the administration has adopted the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan which advocated for infrastructure development, energy security, industrialisation, and employment stimulus (Letsatsi, 2021:792). Mosala (2022:52) states that the recovery plan does not seek to return to the pre-Covid-19 economic realities but to build a new economy for the future and an inclusive economy that benefits all South Africans. As per President Ramaphosa (2020), this will result in the transformation of social and economic relations in South Africa.

Mosala (2022:52) articulate that South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan is aimed at stimulating equitable and inclusive growth. The recovery plan has three phases which are, engage and preserve which includes a comprehensive health response to save lives and curb the spread of the pandemic; recovery and reform which includes interventions to restore the economy while controlling the health risks; and lastly, reconstruct and transformation which entails building a sustainable, resilient and inclusive economy (Hemmonsbey *et al.*, 2021:60). Hemmonsbey *et al.* (2021:60) articulate that these three phases require aggressive infrastructure investment; employment orientated strategic localization, reindustrialisation and export promotion; energy security; support for tourism recovery and growth; gender equality and economic inclusion of women and youth; green economy interventions; mass public employment interventions; strengthening food security; and macro-economic interventions.

Ozili (2021:412) proposes the keys for the successful implementation of the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan which includes resource mobilisation, regulatory changes; a supportive policy environment and enabling conditions for ease of doing business; building a capable state; social compacting; skills development; as well as economic diplomacy and further integration into the African continent. Bhorat *et al.* (2021:65)

suggest that these will result in modernising and reforming network industries and associated state-owned enterprises; re-orienting trade policies and pursuing greater regional integration to boost exports, employment, and innovation; lowering barriers to entry to make it easier for businesses to start, grow, and compete; supporting labour-intensive sectors such as tourism and agriculture to receive more inclusive growth; creating greater levels of economic inclusion, including through addressing high levels of economic concentration; addressing the weak job-creating capacity of the economy; boosting education and skills development; promoting greater beneficiation of raw materials; and addressing racial, gender and geographical inequalities which hamper deeper economic growth and development. With these structural reforms, Chattopadhyay *et al.* (2022:41) indicate that recovery plan seeks to place the economy on track towards the path of vision 2030.

3.7.1 Developmental state on Economic Recovery Plan

Khambule (2021:1) shows that the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic meant that South African government had to play an intervention role to mitigate the social and economic effects of the pandemic. South Africa in response to the pandemic adopted counter-cyclical fiscal and monetary policies (Khambule, 2021:1). These measures included wage support through the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), supporting small businesses through grants, the release of disaster relief funds, and tax relief for businesses (Chattopadhyay *et al.*, 2022:41). However, these forced the government to borrow more which further weakened the country's fiscal position. In addition, the South African Reserve Bank (SARB) responded swiftly to protect price and financial stability (Shipalana, 2021:22).

The SARB implemented a cumulative reduction in the repo rate, which was cut by 300 basis points and remained at 3.5% – the lowest in the history of South Africa and below zero in real terms (Shipalana, 2021:22). Devereux (2021:421) stresses that government failed to use the opportunity to regulate the business sector, some companies continued with retrenchments despite receiving disaster relief funds and tax relief. Mosala (2022:58) attest that the need for a developmental state is evident in the shortcomings of the above-mentioned counter-cyclical fiscal and monetary measures. Kalinowski (2021:48) shows that a capable and developmental state was critical for the development of East Asian countries such as South Korea, China, Taiwan, and Japan. In *Changing the colour of capital*, Polus *et al.* (2020:192) argues that South Africa needs a strong state-interventionist developmental state, which would include a mixed economy; an interventionist state system; and the role of the state as enabling, participatory, deliberative and policy projection.

3.7.2 The analysis of the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan

Van Niekerk (2020:519) indicates that to build a new and inclusive economy that benefits all South Africans, the recovery plan has called for a capable and developmental state. As per the recovery plan, a capable and developmental state is an important enabling factor without which this plan will not achieve the determination to revive the economy (Sharifi & Khavarian-Garmsir, 2020:23). Mosala (2022:59) shows that successful implementation of the recovery plan depends on a capable, developmental state with the capacity to plan and to implement in a coherent and integrate manner across the three spheres of the government and subsequently, revive the economy". Despite this call, Khambule (2021:383) articulates that recovery plan does not give any indication of the role of the state in the economy. Khambule (2021:383) adds that call for state intervention by recovery plan as demonstrated above is paradoxical. On the one hand, Devereux (2021:430) emphasises that recovery plan calls for state intervention in the economy through a developmental state.

However, Dassah (2018:1) states that without addressing the public procurement issues, corruption, and rent-seeking behaviour, the state intervention within the economy will remain parasitic and not developmental. In this case, Mosala (2022:63) emphasises that state intervention is not meant to address market failures such as poverty, unemployment, and inequality but to enrich the few and subsequently, hide citizens' discontent. On the other hand, Kalinowski (2021:53) reveal that state has perpetuated privatisation of SAA and Eskom which is described as unbundling. Furthermore, Francis *et al.* (2020:347) indicate that call for sectoral intervention is limited to creating a conducive environment for businesses not to address market failures.

Dyer (2022:81) is of the view that SOEs can play a developmental role in the South African economy. According to Mosala (2022:62), institutions such as Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) played a role in the establishment of big SOEs such as Iscor and Eskom. However, the plan has mentioned little of the SOEs, despite their continued looting and dysfunction. Dyer (2022:81) adds that SOEs such as Transnet and Denel can play a big part in manufacturing, skills development, and infrastructure development. Furthermore, Scott *et al.* (2021:47) articulate that SOEs are not the only institutions subjected to looting, all the three spheres have lost billions due to corruption which has worsened with the pandemic. This does not only undermine the call for a capable and developmental state, but it negatively affects service delivery, development and weakens state institutions (Scott *et al.*, 2021:47).

According to Whitley and Smale (2022:317), states can foster development if their functionaries' goals are shaped by the duties of their station, rather than by a calculus of personal gain. Fredericks and de Jager (2022:21) show that state is further weakened by patronage and clientelism which is perpetuated through cadre deployment. Mosala (2022:65)

view that economic recovery plan has made bold declarations regarding industrialisation and manufacturing through localisation, economic growth at the rate of 5.4%, and job creation. However, Whitley and Smale (2022:317) argue that these calls remain hollow unless they are backed by an operational economic recovery plan, and they improve the lives of most Africans. Fessehaie and Rustomjee (2018:404) point that industrialisation through localisation and beneficiation will require addressing trade liberalization. Fessehaie and Rustomjee (2018:404) adds that trade liberalization as demonstrated above has perpetuated joblessness in South Africa through exporting of jobs by exporting unprocessed minerals.

Whitley and Smale (2022:320) reveal that economic recovery plan says nothing about land reform which is critical for alleviating poverty especially in rural areas and South African development. Successful land reform will be the foundation of development in South Africa. It will ensure an increase in agricultural production and job creation. According to Ozili (2021:405), land reform was critical to the development of north-east Asian countries such as Japan, South Korea, Vietnam, and China. Mosala (2022:59) states that South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan has made some bold declarations that are unlikely to be achieved. Mosala (2022:59) adds that Its call on infrastructure investment and delivery is hard to believe because, since the start of lockdown, railway infrastructure has been vandalised and looted.

Despite this, Dyer (2022:67) indicates that economic recovery plan calls for reversing delays in Metrorail modernisation including prioritising the refurbishment of the *Mabopane* line in *Tshwane* and the Central line in Cape Town. Dyer (2022:67) stresses that this was supposed to be addressed in the first six months of the plan, but the year has passed, and nothing has happened. Moreover, Khambule (2021:209) shows that looting and burning because of Free Zuma calls have also contributed to the vandalism of infrastructure in South Africa. In addition, Ozili (2021:78) indicates that economic recovery plan has advocated for the creation of 3.6 million jobs in ten years, but the constant lockdowns and power cuts undermine this drive for job creation.

Duan *et al.* (2022:1636) show that constant power cuts and expensive electricity have been identified as factors detrimental to economic growth. As a result, Duan *et al.* (2022:1636) add that economic recovery plan advocates that the reforms will lead to lowering the prices of electricity. Ozili (2021) states that one of the reasons for joblessness is the lack of skills in South Africa and the economic recovery plan has prioritised skills development. However, Enaifoghe *et al.* (2021:130) stress that Skills Education Training Authorities (SETAs) institutions are failing in their role to provide skills development since they are looted and politicised.

In responding to the high unemployment rate, the economic recovery plan called for Public Employment Programmes (PEP) through Presidential Employment Stimulus, Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), and Community Work Programme (CWP) (Mudiriza *et al*, 2021:23). However, Duan *et al.* (2022:1636) stress that these types of jobs are not sustainable, they failed to provide skills development and lift people out of poverty. Moreover, these programmes have been used as part of the patronage system by ANC leaders in different municipalities (Duan *et al*, 2022:1636). In addition, Enaifoghe *et al.* (2021:109) point that government under the Presidential Employment Stimulus (PES) had vowed to create over 400 000 jobs through various sectors in the first three months of the economic recovery plan, however, as illustrated above unemployment rate has increased since the adoption of the plan.

Shandu and Clark (2021:31) show that the call to build a new, inclusive economy that benefits all South Africans will require the abandoning of neoliberal capitalism. It has been demonstrated that under decades of neoliberalism, the economy has benefited the few and the gap between the rich and poor has increased. It is evident with the recent unemployment rate increase that neoliberalism does not address the racial socio-economic inequalities that exist, but it indirectly perpetuates them (Mfete, 2020:276). The call for economic growth as per the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan is commendable, however, the heavy reliance on market forces to redress the legacies of apartheid is misguided and unsustainable in a society marked by extreme inequality and poverty (El-Bassiouny *et al*, 2022:301). To achieve an inclusive economy, neoliberalism will no longer be realistic in the new system and there is a need for state intervention to increase opportunities for all and achieve an egalitarian society (Ede & Jili, 2021:61). Accordingly, Ruiters (2021:889) view that to achieve this new economy will require leadership and a government with a new mind-set and course of action. Moreover, the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan seek to move towards the targets set in the NDP, vision 2030.

The NDP is not rooted in the historic mission of the liberation struggle in South Africa and is anti-working class and ultimately not in the best interest of the vast majority of South Africans (Turok,2020:88). The NDP leaves intact the existing patterns of ownership and control of the economy. It calls for a minimalist role by the state and labour market deregulation (Mosala, 2020:100). Furthermore, NDP emphasises the service sector instead of manufacturing and tends to focus on consumption-led growth (Turok, 2020:128). Therefore, it is unlikely that the plan will lead to the transformation and reconstruction of the economy. Cronin (2020:110) mentions that South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan is premised on neoliberalism which might prove difficult to address the economic crisis and structural problems. It was earlier demonstrated that neoliberalism and growth that took place under

neoliberal economic policies that had reproduced problems such as racial inequality, unemployment, and poverty (Cronin, 2020:110). As a result, the majority of South Africans continue to suffer as structural problems continue. Therefore, Ndinga-Kanga *et al.* (2020:22) maintain that the calls made within the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan are nothing but buzzwords to gain legitimacy and authority and lull the previously disadvantaged people, most of them who are poor.

Ngwane and Bond (2020:67) criticised the ANC by indicating that speeches delivered in support of the reconstruction, recovery, and transformation are theatrical plays, grand gestures, and performative enactment of legitimacy and authority. Plagerson (2021:1) adds that ANC since 1994 has failed to champion the developmental agenda and this is evident in the increase of structural problems under the democratic government. The neoliberal economic policies adopted by the ANC have worsened the structural problems and thus, there is a need for a very different approach, grounded in local realities and eco-social needs (Ngwane & Bond, 2020:69). Consequently, Shackleton *et al.* (2021:579) indicate that the prospects for economic recovery, stabilisation, and transformation with the South African Economic Reconstruction and Recovery Plan are very slim, as the plan perpetuates neoliberalism and subsequently structural problems.

3.8 THE NDP REVIEW AS A GREEN RECOVERY PLAN

Bostan *et al.* (2020:20) stress that COVID-19 pandemic has had many consequences for society. Von Seidlein *et al.* (2021:107) attest that the government's response to the pandemic was multi-fold and involved the investment of very significant additional sums in the economy to support incomes, provide for expanded healthcare and meet other critical immediate priorities. Von Seidlein *et al.* (2021:107) add that the cost of this fiscal response has been estimated at €38.16 billion over 2020-2021. However, as the pandemic fades, Nyashanu (2020:659) states that call have been ubiquitous for governments around the world to build back better, to achieve a world that is greener, smarter and fairer.

Stewart *et al.* (2019:3) emphasise that the purpose of the NDP Review is to set out capital spending levels and priorities for the next decade. Stewart *et al.* (2019:3) add that the NDP has been developed as a plan that demonstrates the Government's unequivocal commitment to securing a sustainable Ireland. To assess whether the intentions of NDP Review meet the ideal of a green recovery plan, Wilkinson (2020:517) states that the Department of Public Expenditure and Reform has assessed the review against principles of a green recovery.

In 2020, Bulled and Singer (2020:1237) state that the NDP produced Building back better a sustainable, resilient recovery after COVID-19". In support of the idea Mtshali and Akinola

(2021:177) reveal that the NDP sets out key 5 key dimensions that recovery and investment plans should be evaluated against which are, investing for low-carbon, resilient electricity systems; energy efficient housing as part of compact, resilient and sustainable cities; catalysing the shift towards accessibility-based mobility systems; enhancing biodiversity while ensuring a resilient supply of food; and Improving resilience of supply chains while accelerating the shift towards circular economy principles.

3.9 POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section provides the recommendations to the impacts of COVID-19 on the objectives of the NDP 2030.

3.9.1 Remote learning

Ozer and Perc (2020:1) point that the ability to take advantage of remote learning opportunities is one factor that can account for a rise in performance inequality within and across education systems. Rapanta *et al.* (2021:715) state that school systems in which the technical and institutional capacities to move to remote teaching were already in place were able to quickly adapt to the new normal. For example, Rapanta *et al.* (2021:715) show that the national radio learning program used by Sierra Leone during the Ebola crisis, and Kenya's radio and television learning channels that broadcast almost seven hours of Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) content five days a week across 40 community radio stations and three national television channels. However, Rapanta *et al.* (2021:715) state that other school systems with far less experience in remote learning faced the formidable challenge of quickly designing, implementing, and sustaining distance learning during periods of school closure.

South Africa similarly responded by launching a multi-media COVID-19 Learner Support (LS) initiative on 9 April 2020 that included the broadcasting of content across the three national SABC TV channels and 13 radio stations (with online support), as well as allocated dedicated education channels on the DSTV and Open View broadcast satellite services (Mhlanga and Moloji, 2020:180). Makumbe (2020) states that cellular service providers such as, MTN, Telkom, Vodacom and Cell C also declared certain websites and learning portals zero-rated so that learners could access a variety of learning content at low cost. Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:181) attest that it evident that content made available on SABC channels were targeted at FET learners for only 3.5 hours per day starting at 5am.

Robinson *et al.* (2020:420) show that content for grade 1 to 9 learners could only be accessed on satellite services that were fortunately made freely available during lockdown. However, Periola and Osanaiye (2021:1125) posit that access to Open View required users to have a

television and an Open View decoder and satellite, whilst DSTV could be accessed via a computer, tablet, or smartphone. Walker (2019:641) indicates that radio content was almost universally applicable to FET phase only, and no content was scheduled to be broadcast on any Western Cape or Northern Cape channels. However, Walker (2019:641) add that content was broadcast for 7 hours a day on an online radio channel, CAPS radio. Overall, Van der Berg and Spaul (2020:1) estimate that the instruction received by most learners through these media would have only been equivalent to about 5% of contact instructional time. Therefore, Van der Berg and Spaul (2020:1) state that access to content under conditions of remote learning in South Africa was heavily contingent on possessing the right technology with which to take advantage of the free services.

Mukherjee *et al.* (2020:76) reveal that close to 25% of school-going aged learners had access to neither a television nor a desktop/laptop computer, and only 8.5% of households with children had access to the internet. Furthermore, Mukherjee *et al.* (2020:76) show that amongst those households without access to satellite television services, only 5.6% possessed a computer, 52.4% a cellphone and 49.6% a radio. Moreover, Mukherjee *et al.* (2020:76) indicate that there is significant cross household variation in the type of technology available to children in a situation of remote learning. Van der Berg and Spaul (2020:5) estimate that 5-10% of learners in South Africa have a computer at home, and Gustafsson (2020:263) argues that only amongst the wealthiest 5% of schools have at least 90% of learners who have access to a computer and the internet at home.

Makumbe (2020:625) shows that almost two-thirds 64% of adults responded that children had watched educational television in the 7 days prior to being interviewed, whilst 46% and 34% of adults reported that children had listened to educational radio and accessed educational content online, respectively. Makumbe (2020:625) adds that roughly 17% of respondents reported that children had made no use of any of these media. Shaukat, Javed and Imran (2020:24) report that the use of online and radio educational content are significantly related to household poverty and higher proportions of children in non-poor households accessed online content, whilst higher proportions of children in poor households accessed radio content.

Ngware (2020:14) makes the case that while the COVID-19 school closures have created an increased appetite for innovation; a systematic and sustainable approach needs to be followed to really leverage Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) for education in Africa. Angrist *et al.* (2020:101) indicates that low-tech interventions that are cheap and scalable can be used as substitutes for in-person instruction. Angrist *et al.* (2020:101) highlights the

importance of providing solutions to remote learning that not only circumvent the issue of varied access to certain technology, but also empower parents to educate their children.

3.9.2 Caregiver worry, household economic strain and hunger

Schools serve as important components of any community's infrastructure: Aside from education, they provide critical services such as school meal programs and counselling that assist in mitigating health disparities (Gilbert *et al*, 2020:1848; Van Lancker & Parolin, 2020:243). The disruptions caused by COVID-19 in the delivery of services have the potential to exacerbate already existent socio-economic inequalities as a result of a lack of resources for effective remote learning such as books, access to radio and/or television for public broadcasting, and access to the internet amongst the most socioeconomically disadvantaged (Van Lancker & Parolin, 2020:243); lower support for home learning from the schools predominantly attended by poorer learners; and the compounding challenges of financial strain, job loss/inflexibility and safety experienced by their parents (Cluver, Lachman *et al*, 2020:45; Woods, 2021:876; Armitage & Nellums, 2020:256; Casale & Shepherd, 2020:34).

Wakui *et al*. (2021:3) argue that the closing and reopening of schools during the current pandemic, particularly prior to widespread availability of a COVID-19 vaccine, is expected to cause some anxiety and raise concerns in households with children. As argued by Lee *et al*. (2020:1009), understanding parental attitudes and concerns is critical to informing communication and messaging around COVID-19 mitigation. Lee *et al*. (2020:1009) also highlight the need for flexible education plans and equitable resource provision so that youth education is not compromised. Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:182) attest that In July 2020 when South Africa was in a Level 3 national lockdown, only grades 6, 7, 11 and 12 were officially attending school. In addition, Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:182) reveal that close to 75% of adults living with children expressed being worried about the return of learners to school during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:182) indicate that in November/December 2020, when Level 1 lockdown was in effect and learners of all grades were permitted to attend school albeit on a rotational basis, levels of high concern had fallen by approximately 30%. Shepherd and Mohohlwane (2021) articulate that the suspension of the National Schools Nutrition

Programme (NSNP) for four months from March to June 2020 represents the longest break in the provision of daily meals to eligible learners, producing additional emotional strain for caregivers. Debeila *et al.* (2021:2) indicate that between July 2020 and February 2021, 41-49% of adults reported school feeding amongst attending learners and this proportion had risen significantly to 56% in April 2021.

According to the United Nations World Food Programme (2020), 154 million children globally missed meals due to COVID-19 related school closures. Responses from 52 out of 79 countries mentioned the provision of food parcels as a strategy for dealing with this issue; while a further 13 countries have adopted a cash-transfer modality (Reimers & Schleicher, 2020:24). Holiday hunger in the United Kingdom has shown a rise in emotional stress amongst parents in low-income households (Gooseman *et al.*, 2019:752; Graham *et al.*, 2016:2999; Stretesky *et al.*, 2020:3654). Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:185) point that National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) is one of the strategic ongoing safety nets that were introduced in South Africa more than 20 years ago since 2001, providing daily meals to more than 10 million learners. Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:185) add that beneficiaries from the NSNP program increased from 70% in 2010 to 82% in 2018. While this is above the number of no-fee schools, Mhlanga and Moloji (2020:185) state that it is in line with the persistent food poverty line that has remained constant since 2011. The NSNP target for 2020/21 is to provide meals to 21,000 schools reaching 10,707,186 learners out of the school population of 13,041,198 (Makumbe, 2020:630). According to the General Household Survey (GHS) (2018), 80% of learners aged 7 to 17 years living in the poorest 40% of households received food through a school feeding/nutrition program daily. This is compared to 18% of children amongst the wealthiest 20% of households.

3.9.3 Learner and teacher infections and vaccination

As of 1 May 2021, Periola and Osanaiye (2021:1130) indicate that there were 148,768 COVID-19 cases amongst children younger than 20 years, representing 9.5% of all cases and a 5.5 times lower chance of infection than those older than 19 years. Periola and Osanaiye (2021:1130) further show that individuals younger than 20 represent 4% of overall admissions, indicating hospitalisation that is 13.3% times lower than individuals older than 19 years. Unfortunately, Periola and Osanaiye (2021:1130) add that 401 cases of child hospitalisation resulted in death. Of these, Periola and Osanaiye (2021:1130) state that 146 (36%) were amongst those aged 15 to 19 years old, and 125 (31%) amongst those under one years old. Kolahian *et al.* (2021:303) reveal that underlying conditions were found amongst 60% of the 401 cases of death, with asthma and chronic pulmonary disease representing the highest proportions, followed by diabetes, HIV and active TB.

Aliyyah *et al.* (2020:90) indicate that teachers are a second key stakeholder in school, and the impact of COVID-19 on them and their ability to teach is central. Shepherd *et al.* (2021:14) provides excess-death analysis of teacher payroll data (PERSAL) that estimates the number of deaths amongst publicly employed educators that are attributable to COVID-19. Analysis of the period 27 March 2020 to 28 February 2021 compared to the same period a year earlier indicated excess deaths of 1,678 teachers, increasing the overall deaths from the expected 1,354 based on non-pandemic trends, to a total of 3,032 deaths (Debeila *et al.*, 2021:7).

Gatwood *et al.* (2021:879) indicate that the initial vaccination rollout targeted those who are aged 60 and above; 5.4% of teachers are part of this demographic and were therefore eligible for vaccination in May 2021. Gatwood *et al.* (2021:879) show that on 19 June 2021, the South African government announced that it would begin vaccinating all teachers across all schools in the country. Gatwood *et al.* (2021:879) add that this is a special drive taking place in parallel with the national vaccines campaign. Shepherd and Mohohlwane (2021:18) indicate that about 580,000 Johnson & Johnson (J&J) vaccines were procured for all educators in public and private schools, as well as those appointed by School Governing Bodies (SGB).

Woods (2021:880) points that non-teaching staff appointed in the public education sector such as security guards, NSNP food handlers and other support staff/ volunteers are also part of this phase, although the same does not apply to independent schools. Woods (2021:880) adds that administration staff and all office-based officials were included. Rapanta *et al.* (2021:720) show that vaccine administration is scheduled from 23 June until 8 of July 2021, originally scheduled to overlap with school holidays, but still occurring ahead of the partial reopening of schools on 19 July and the full reopening of primary schools on 26 July 2021. By 30 June 2021, Rapanta *et al.* (2021:720) add that 238,000 vaccines (41%) had been administered within 7 days of rollout, with a further 8 days remaining. Dahlström, Fazekas and Lewis (2021:659) view that vaccine takes up amongst educators appears to be high. Moreover, Dahlström *et al.* (2021:659) concur that this is significant, as a full return to school for learners and teachers in primary schools is expected in Term 3.

3.9.4 Stimulating the economy and employment

Zhan and Santos-Paulino (2021:170) indicate that the first pillar proposes a two-step process to stimulate the economy and employment. First, a stimulus package to strengthen the health sector and mitigate the impact on economies and labour markets through the provision of financial relief for enterprises particularly micro and small enterprises, and the hardest hit sectors and income support for workers. Second, follow the containment of the virus and the gradual resumption of normal activity and a demand-led employment strategy for a medium to longer-term recovery of jobs and incomes. Zhan and Santos-Paulino (2021:170) show that

this requires active fiscal policy, accommodating monetary policy, and lending and financial support to specific sectors, including the health sector.

On 21 April 2020, almost a month after lockdown began; Gorelik (2020:58) points that the South African Government announced a R500 billion rescue package. Gorelik (2020:58) further indicates that R100 billion was for job protection and creation, R40 billion for wage support via the Temporary Employer/Employee Relief Scheme (TERS), R50 billion in additional social security to creating a new grant and topping up existing grants, and R270 billion in business support measures via tax relief (R70 billion) and a credit guarantee scheme (R200 billion). Gorelik (2020:58) adds that the package falls short due to insufficient funding and poor implementation. Furthermore, Mao *et al.* (2021) view that it is unlikely to exert the positive benefits required to mitigate the potential job losses.

Zhang *et al.* (2020:242) stress that only 5.4% of small business owning had received financial relief from the government. Furthermore, Zhang *et al.* (2020:242) indicate that 8.1% of small business owners had lost their jobs or had to close their businesses, and 70% of those who had lost their jobs reported that it was because their place of work had closed or lack of customers. By the sixth week of lockdown, Carlitz and Makhura (2021:105) indicate that 15.4% of small business reported no income, up from 5.2% before the lockdown. Additionally, Carlitz and Makhura (2021:105) posit that 25.8% of small business reported decreases in incomes which is a portion far higher than large business that are accessing TERS.

3.9.5 Employment retention

Brown-Webb *et al.* (2022:363) review that the Temporary Employer/Employee Relief Scheme (TERS), funded and administered via the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), is the primary wage support mechanism, helping employers to continue to pay wages where COVID-19 restrictions directly impacted businesses' operating capacity. Mhlanga and Moloi (2020:190) show that payments are made via the UIF to employers or workers on a sliding scale from 38% of normal wages for high income workers who receive maximum wage of R17,712 to 60% for low-income workers, with a floor of a R3,500 pay-out per month, for a maximum of three months. Mhlanga and Moloi (2020:190) add that the application process requires the submission of various documents to the UIF, which is then supposed to pay within ten days.

As of mid-June 2020, Makumbe (2020:632) indicates that 60% of initial funds which is R23.8 billion had been spent, covering 36% of the registered, formal, non-agricultural workforce which is 22% of the total workforce. As of 13 July 2020, Casale and Shepherd (2020:17) point that the UIF indicated that around 400,000 employers had been paid from the TERS facility.

Casale and Shepherd (2020:17) add that this compares with approximately 2.4 million employers, while some of those may be the same company paid in more than one month. Dietrich (2021:98) shows that challenges to the efficient implementation of TERS include long turnaround times between application submission and payment, opacity as to the amounts to be received, non-specific rejection of applications, and initial exclusion of non-registered workers and individuals.

3.9.6 Income support

Makumbe (2020:632) is of the view that government policies should try to offset at least R185 billion in lost wage income or 1.77 million jobs creation. Bartik, Currie, Greenstone and Knittel (2019:105) suggest that the increases in social assistance expenditure of R41 billion is significant to boost wage losses. Mahajan (2019:101) states that increases to grant allocations have been criticised for not going far enough. For instance, Mahajan (2019:101) explain that it is very worrying that the increases in child support grants are per caregiver rather than per child. Borat *et al.* (2021:63) accede that a special COVID-19 social relief of distress grant was introduced to support those with no income or alternative social assistance.

As of 1 June, Suro and Findling (2021:251) state that of the 13 million applications filed only 6.3 million were deemed valid. South African Social Security Agency (2019) reports that they had made payments of R350 to 3,019,102 people as of 6 July, with a further 1.4 million approved, but needing to provide bank details for payment. Tarasi, Daras, Tournaki and Tsoutsos (2021:55) indicate that the applications are overwhelmingly from men 63% which is problematic considering the higher unemployment rate of women which is 39.9% as opposed to 34.2% for men. Greve *et al.* (2021:295) concur that social grants are an important way of bolstering demand and consumption, helping to mitigate job losses and maintain household living standards. As has been shown, Banks *et al.* (2021:105) stipulate that those in poverty and working poverty are disproportionately affected by job losses and should be supported by supplementary incomes.

3.9.7 Other business support measures

Ossome (2021:68) states that the government has made available R70 billion in various tax deferments. Ossome (2021:68) indicates that this includes a four-month holiday from skills development levy contributions, fast-tracking VAT refunds, a three-month delay for filing and the first payment of carbon tax, an increased range of businesses eligible for tax deferrals, and an increase in Pay As You Earn (PAYE) deferral to 35%. Ossome (2021:68) adds that these measures are available to businesses with a turnover of under R100 million per year. For larger companies, Ossome (2021:68) shows that these measures are available on a case-by-case basis, provided proof is given of material negative impact due to COVID-19. Stats SA

(2020) reports in an April survey that only 4.25% of business-owning respondents had made use of the various tax deferral programs. Ossome (2021:68) reveals that the mechanisms for using these measures are vague, and smaller businesses, precisely those needing the help, lack dedicated tax and finance departments and are struggling to apply.

Jackson (2021:137) stresses that businesses are also reluctant or unable to take on additional leverage. Finance Minister Tito Mboweni (2021) indicated disbursement of R10 billion in its first month. Mboweni (2021) also indicated that scheme will have a business restart function to get businesses operational after a period of closure. Mboweni (2021) adds that this is a welcome amendment, especially for the primary sector, which faces difficulties in restarting operations after closure. Aluko (2021:158) shows that the most worrying factor is that the 21.1% of firms reporting that they have no plans for financial assistance, probably because they lack access or fall foul of disqualifying criteria. Wygal *et al.* (2021:34) stress that employers are unaware of the support measures available to them and how to access them in good time, criteria are too stringent, and the application process is too onerous. Wygal *et al.* (2021:34) add that it is crucial that these be expanded and made more accessible to mitigate avoidable retrenchments, wage reductions, and operating constraints.

3.10 POLITICAL INTERFERENCE IN THE COVID-19 AND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NDP 2030

Campos and Reich (2019:224) state that political interference refers to the meddling in the administrative affairs by politicians for purposes that are likely to benefit them or their political party. In addition, Campos and Reich (2019:224) point that there are policy frameworks that guide the relationship between politicians and administrators in all spheres of government. More often than, Phago (2020:185) shows that political interference has negative outcomes; hence it is against the municipal policies. Phago (2020:185) highlights that nearly 31% of municipalities in South Africa are not financially viable. Phago (2020:186) ascribes this challenge to many other factors including political interference and infighting municipal councils. Phago (2020:186) advances that political interference is a challenge that hinders effective municipal planning and implementation by the municipal administrative officials. Most importantly, Phago (2020:186) states that political interference hinders effective implementation of municipal policies, including the integrated development plan and the budget.

With COVID-19, Anafo *et al.* (2021:5) attest that some municipalities cannot effectively manage the pandemic since they are failing to fulfill their developmental agenda. Anafo *et al.* (2021:5) add that municipalities are even failing to provide clean water and sanitation, which are required to manage the spread of COVID-19. In fact, Matheus, Janssen and Maheshwari

(2020:101) point that political interference has resulted into corruption and blurred accountability lines. Phago (2020:188) posits that political interference undermines accountability measures because councillors who interfere with the municipal procurement processes are not the ones to account to the municipal council and Municipal Public Accounts Committee (MPAC). There were allegations of nepotism and corruption in the allocation of food parcels in Mpumalanga and other provinces during the current Covid-19 pandemic in the manner politicians were involved in the provision of relief grants and food parcels for poor people (Economic Freedom Fighters, 2020).

3.11 THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 IN OTHER COUNTRIES

This section provides the impact of COVID-19 in other countries as to assess how the pandemic has affected development within these countries.

3.11.1 Negative short-term economic growth

Valensisi (2020:1535) view that COVID-19 pandemic is expected to affect economic growth severely in Less Developing Countries (LDCs), mainly because of their vulnerabilities to external factors, such as a drop in external demand, lower commodity prices and a sharp decline in tourism activities. Jomo and Chowdhury (2020:226) emphasise that the lockdown and other preventive measures have weighed heavily on the economy, while the countercyclical policies are considered insufficient to offset the economic shock. According to the latest projections and forecast of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) (United Nations, 2021), LDCs as a group will experience a contraction of economic output. Habibi and Zabardast (2020:101) review that GDP growth in 2020 is expected to be -1.3% and LDCs experienced economic contractions in 2020.

However, the range of GDP growth projections for 2020 is wide, from -8.5% for Kiribati to 1.5% for the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) (United Nations, 2021). United Nations (2021) adds that these projections represent a significant slowdown from 2019 for almost all LDCs, with negative consequences for their fragile macroeconomic conditions. However, Aggarwal *et al.* (2019:41) view that the impact on short-term growth has been less severe compared with the world's average and severely affected developing regions, such as Latin America, and countries, such as India. Aggarwal *et al.* (2019:41) indicate that the dependence of LDCs on agriculture, generally a sign of their vulnerability, may have limited the impact as food production has increased in many places.

Barichello (2020:219) is of the view that economic activities are expected to resume in trading partner countries, and GDP growth in LDCs is expected to rebound in 2021, with few exceptions. The Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2021) forecasts a GDP growth

of 4.9% and 4.6% in 2021 and 2022, respectively. Although Bangladesh, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar experienced a significant slowdown in 2020, Valensisi (2020:1540) states that their manufacturing exports will remain resilient enough to maintain positive GDP growth. By contrast, Anaifo *et al.* (2021:9) view that Timor-Leste will be among the hardest hit economies in the LDC group in 2020. Within the LDC group, posit that the activity of industrial commodity exporting countries slowed markedly during the first half of 2020, reflecting the weakening demand in key trading partners and much lower commodity prices. Clapp and Moseley (2020:1393) add that a second group of countries facing deep economic contractions are islands relying specifically on tourism as a main engine of their economy, such as Kiribati, Sao Tome and Principe, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu. Finally, Clapp and Moseley (2020:1393) attest that activity in many agricultural commodity exporting countries has also been affected, but less significantly than other LDCs.

3.11.2 Structural changes and medium-term growth slowdown

While some businesses, especially larger companies, are expected to rebound once the COVID-19 pandemic fades away, Habibi and Zabardast (2020:107) reveal that many others have gone bankrupt or face costly access to credit to stay afloat, preventing a full return to pre-crisis supply level. Habibi and Zabardast (2020:107) add that this is even more pronounced for small businesses operating in the informal sector, a reality in many LDCs. For these businesses to adapt to the pandemic safety standards, Hobbs (2020:171) states that many companies have had to adjust production and distribution operations, which will change supply conditions in the medium term. According to International Monetary Fund (2020), the medium-term growth measured as the cumulative GDP per capita growth from 2019 to 2025 will slow down. All countries income groups are expected to experience a weaker medium-term growth than that projected before the pandemic, owing to a structural slowdown in China, a slow recovery of some oil prices and an overall modest economic expansion in developed countries (International Monetary Fund, 2020). Chipfuva (2021:145) attests that a more subdued medium-term growth represents a slower pace of development and a setback in the improvement of living standards, especially in LDCs, as they usually also face higher population growth and livelihoods in those countries are more fragile.

3.11.3 Poverty and inequality on the rise

After nearly 25 years of consistent poverty reduction, Valensisi (2020:1540) is of the view that the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to reverse that global trend, as the toll is expected to be worse for the poor and vulnerable groups. According to the Sustainable Development Goals Report (2020), extreme poverty is expected to rise globally for the first time since 1998, from 8.4% in 2018 to 8.8% in 2020 (United Nations, 2020). The contraction of global GDP growth

due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and likely increase in income inequality, will not only cause a large share of the population to slip back into extreme poverty, but it will also push those already in extreme poverty into deeper destitution (World Bank, 2020). Goldberg and Reed (2020:161) show that there is substantial heterogeneity among LDCs, some of which had already observed rising poverty before the crisis. For example, Goldberg and Reed (2020:161) show that the poverty rate increased from 36% in 2000 to 52% in 2018 in Angola and from 31% in 2000 to 36% in 2017 in Sao Tome and Principe.

Narayanan *et al.* (2019:101) are of the view that the aggregate poverty incidence in LDCs, which is estimated to have registered 37% level for women and 36.4% for men in 2019, is expected to increase by 2.4% points for both groups. As such, Narayanan *et al.* (2019:101) stress that the COVID-19 pandemic will render it extremely difficult for LDCs to achieve developmental goals by 2030. The COVID-19 pandemic is also expected to worsen inequalities, both vertical and horizontal, by disrupting the employment of low-skilled labour more severely, slowing down remittance flows and limiting employment prospects for less educated workers for several years to come (Furceri *et al.*, 2020:138).

Lawrence *et al.* (2021:2) articulate that the impacts of COVID-19 pandemic are not gender-neutral, as in many other crises and women and girls are especially hurt by the resulting economic and social fallout. Lawrence *et al.* (2021:2) add that woman and girls are likely to be the first to be furloughed or laid off, owing to the male breadwinner norms. The unequal burden of unpaid domestic care work has also been exacerbated, leading to deteriorating mental and physical health and reducing time for paid employment and education (Subert, 2020:487). According to a new analysis commissioned by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), it is expected that by 2021, some 435 million women and girls will be living on less than \$1.90 a day, including 47 million pushed into poverty by the pandemic (Women & Snyder, 2020:75).

Ahonsi (2020:22) attest that the shift of funds in response to the pandemic is hampering women's access to sexual and reproductive health. Barichello (2020:22) reveals that violence against women is reported to have increased dramatically around the world, as a result of several factors related to the COVID-19 pandemic such as, job and income losses and unavailable support from social services, and has been exacerbated by stay-at-home orders, which trap women with their abusers, often with tragic consequences. Barichello (2020:22) adds that all these factors are expected to derail the progress made in women's empowerment in recent years.

3.11.4 Decline in employment and labour income

Lawrence *et al.* (2021:3) articulate that the workplace lockdowns have translated into a considerable decline in working hours, because of shorter working hours, the fact of being employed but not working, and unemployment and inactivity during the first three quarters of 2020. A detailed analysis of countries by income levels shows that, even though upper-middle-income countries and high-income-countries started to experience working-hour losses earlier in the year, lower-middle-income, and low-income countries, which include almost all LDCs, were the hardest hit, experiencing more dramatic losses in both the second and third quarters (International Labour Organization, 2020). Jomo and Chowdhury (2020:230) posit that the decline in working hours, and subsequent losses in income for workers, is more severe for workers in LDCs, as their businesses and workers are extremely vulnerable to and more easily disrupted by shocks as the COVID-19 pandemic.

As indicated by İlkaracan and Memiş (2021:288), disruptions in employment include workers having to take unpaid leave, reduced earnings and working hours, or even complete loss of employment. İlkaracan and Memiş (2021:288) add that lower-skilled labour tends to be more disproportionately affected. In addition, İlkaracan and Memiş (2021:288) show that this is especially the case in the tourism and manufacturing sectors. Potential job disruptions in Myanmar could thus affect 51% of employment in the manufacturing sector and 41% in the accommodation and food sectors (United Nations, 2020). Kerwin (2020:111) indicates that the labour market challenges in LDCs are also aggravated by the return of migrants from countries laying-off migrants more disproportionately. In Myanmar, Kerwin (2020:111) shows that 150 000 workers had returned home by August 2020, increasing the labour supply and in dire need of livelihood opportunities. Overall, İlkaracan and Memiş (2021:295) stipulate that there is a consensual understanding that the COVID-19 pandemic will affect labour markets to a much greater extent than past crises, and the effect is expected to be more pronounced in LDCs, where the informal sector is more prevalent and there is little or no coverage by any form of public social protection. İlkaracan and Memiş (2021:295) add that this will also have medium- to long-term consequences on different human development assets in LDCs and the achievement of the SDGs.

3.11.5 Potential disruption in the health system with long-term negative effects

In addition to the direct health impact and increase in mortality due to COVID-19, Robertson *et al.* (2020:901) view that it is expected that mortality will also increase as a result of indirect effects on the health system. If the COVID-19 pandemic causes widespread disruption to health systems and reduced access to food, Robertson *et al.* (2020:901) state that large increases in maternal and child deaths are to be expected. During the latest Ebola outbreak,

Shchomak *et al.* (2019:1600) state that use of health services decreased by 27.6% and inpatient services by 44.3% in high-incidence areas of West Africa. Furthermore, Shchomak *et al.* (2019:1600) indicate that similar disruptions due to COVID-19 have already been observed in several LDCs, affecting both the provision and use of reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health services.

In Haiti, Elston *et al.* (2020:78) show that a total of 47% of women surveyed reported not having access to either maternal health or family planning services during the pandemic. Elston *et al.* (2020:78) add that access to health services has become more difficult for 82% of households owing to closed facilities or lack of resources to cover costs. Ezenwaka *et al.* (2020:2) posit that community leaders, health workers and non-governmental organisations also reported fear of contagion in health facilities as an important factor. Ezenwaka *et al.* (2020:2) add that these observations lead to the conclusion that the COVID-19 pandemic could reverse years of progress in reducing maternal and child deaths, especially in LDCs with limited capacity to cope with the surge in demand and continue to provide adequate health assistance.

The pandemic will reverse decades of improvement in health outcomes and throw progress in reaching SDG3 further off track (United Nations, 2020). Cumming *et al.* (2019:5) indicate that United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) is tracking the reduction in health, child protection, nutrition and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All services. As of September 2020, Robertson *et al.* (2020:905) articulate that average estimate of service reduction in LDCs was 13% even though UNICEF also reported several instances of new or increased services and the possibility that low reduction rates may also indicate low levels of pre-pandemic health services.

3.11.6 Education inequalities aggravated by the technological divide

Tomasik *et al.* (2021:566) posit that the duration of school closures varies greatly among countries, leading to different impacts on the number of days of in-person teaching and learning lost, and ultimately on learning losses. Atuahene *et al.* (2020:103) stress that disruptions to education systems because of school closures have brought school feeding programs to a halt in many LDCs. Even though countries across the world have experienced school closures, the average days of instruction missed in low-income and lower-middle-income countries is two to three times more than in high-income countries (You *et al.*, 2020:15).

As a response, Tomasik *et al.* (2021:566) state many countries have shifted efforts towards remote learning. Not surprisingly, Cao and Hickman (2019:419) stipulate that there are stark differences among income groups on the modalities used, reflecting the great inequality in access to technology. For example, Cao and Hickman (2019:419) show that online platforms

were used in 95% of high-income countries but only 64% of low-income countries. Although these differences preceded COVID-19, Cao and Hickman (2019:419) indicate that the pandemic has further exacerbated the digital divide, with a disproportionate impact on poorer communities within and across countries. In the longer term, Colvin *et al.* (2022:45) are of the view that prolonged absence from school is associated with lower retention and graduation rates and worse learning outcomes, among segments of the population that are already disadvantaged.

3.11.7 Food insecurity on the rise

Even before the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, Saccone (2021:1025) posits that hunger, as measured by the prevalence of undernourishment, was already on the rise and the pandemic is aggravating that trend. Preliminary assessments based on economic growth scenario forecasts suggest that the total number of undernourished people may increase by 83 to 132 million people in 2020 (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2020). The World Food Programme estimated that the number of people facing acute food-insecurity would increase from 135 million to 265 million by the end of 2020, with Burkina Faso, South Sudan and Yemen being at risk of famine in 2021 if the situation further deteriorates (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2020). Kumar *et al.* (2021:120) point that the situation of food insecurity is particularly critical in LDCs, which are affected by disruptions to imports and the effect of mitigation measures on supply chains and distribution networks. Bonuedi *et al.* (2020:1221) view that cross-border trade disruptions will contribute to food insecurity, as it prevents the movement of food from areas with a surplus to those with a deficit.

Erokhin and Gao (2020:57) indicate that the pandemic will increase food insecurity in LDCs such as, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Ethiopia and Mozambique that suffer from both a high dependence on agricultural imports and a depreciation of their currencies. In August, according to the Food Basket Bulletin, the value of the food basket had increased by 29% on an annual basis (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2020). This increase in food prices was directly linked to the peak period of the COVID-19 pandemic, during which the country faced a sharp depreciation of the gourde against the United States dollar -12% between April and June 2020, in a context of heavy dependence on food imports (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2020).

3.11.8 Overall attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals further compromised

The COVID-19 pandemic is expected to slow down or even reverse some of the gains made in the realisation of the SDGs, as indicated in the Sustainable Development Goals Report 2020 (United Nations, 2020). In more than half of the LDCs, where the incidence of extreme poverty is above 20%, a fall in income per capita and remittances will aggravate monetary poverty, but it may also have long-lasting effects on other dimensions of poverty, especially for the most vulnerable segments of the population (World Bank, 2020). Burchi *et al.* (2021:682) stress that deprivation is expected in other dimensions such as education, potentially with an increase in child labour, and sanitation.

Even before the pandemic, Arora and Mishra (2019:339) state that it was increasingly unlikely that several SDGs would be achieved by 2030 in several parts of the world, particularly in many LDCs. As an example, Arora and Mishra (2019:339) point that committee for development policy alerted the economic and social council in 2018 that the world was not on track to achieve SDG1, which is central to the principle of leaving no one behind. The same observation was made in the Sustainable Development Goals Report 2020 (United Nations, 2020). Colvin *et al.* (2022:61) posit that the COVID-19 pandemic not only threatens to throw LDCs back many years in achieving SDGs on poverty, hunger, health and education, but it also exacerbates inequalities, further jeopardising the achievement of SDG5 on gender equality and women's empowerment and SDG10 on reducing inequalities. Without putting human rights at the centre of the response to the pandemic, Colvin *et al.* (2022:61) add that inequalities could increase even more during the recovery phase. While short-term reduction in environmental pollution may appear as progress towards achieving the SDGs focused on the environment, Chapman and Tsuji (2020:85) are of the view that the pandemic may impose additional challenges in the long term.

Zhan and Santos-Paulino (2021:166) are of the opinion that resources spent on addressing immediate recovery needs may reduce the scope for financing a green and sustainable transformation of economies, particularly in LDCs. However, Zhan and Santos-Paulino (2021:166) add that the crisis must not be an excuse for failing to achieve the SDGs. In addition, policy responses must put the SDGs first, to build equal and inclusive societies resilient to future shocks (United Nations, 2020). United Nations (2020) adds that these responses cannot be devised at the national level only instead of international cooperation within a reinvigorated multilateralism. To bring the world on track towards achieving the vision embedded in the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development, Colvin *et al.* (2022:70) stipulate that World Bank and International Monetary Fund must give priorities to the most vulnerable countries, particularly the LDCs.

3.12 LESSONS FOR THE FUTURE

Wondirad *et al.* (2020:104) are of the view that government must implement all the principles of development the way that were advocated by the governance theory. Munzhedzi (2021:490) avers many government institutions are lacking insofar as implementation of the provisions of governance principles in the management of the COVID-19 pandemic in South Africa. To this end, Munzhedzi (2021:490) points out lessons for the future in as far as the management of pandemics is concerned such as, stricter enforcement of policies which the analysis has alluded to the fact that policies such as Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act 1 of 1999) and Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act 56 of 2003) are not adequately adhered to. In addition, Munzhedzi (2021:490) stipulates that these two policies specifically outline processes to be followed when government goods and services are procured.

Sharma *et al.* (2019:947) posit that policies cater for the instances where general open bidding process may not be followed. Sharma *et al.* (2019:947) add that it means that no justification exists for not following due process because the policies cater for such instances of limited bidding process. Sharma *et al.* (2019:947) explain that limited bidding refers to instances where only a few service providers are approached for quotation often because of the time factor. Dahlström *et al.* (2021:652) point that government institutions appoint service providers without following due process of either open or limited bidding. Moreover, Dahlström *et al.* (2021:652) justification should exist and be stated for not following open bidding. Krugerc *et al.* (2019:429) indicate that limited bidding is a process as well and is not about selecting a service provider offering services at an inflated price. Kruger *et al.* (2019:429) further note that Section 217 of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996 also make provision of fairness in public procurement. Jennings and Perez (2020:690) stipulate that law enforcement officials should enforce the law to always ensure compliance.

Sharma *et al.* (2019:955) state that stakeholders such as, trade unions, oppositional political parties, religious leaders and academics should be involved from development of regulations to general management of pandemics. Sharma *et al.* (2019:955) add that these stakeholders may propose workable solutions that may beef-up those developed by government working alone. In addition, Sharma *et al.* (2019:955) articulate that this may also circumvent situations where government is taken to court as it has been the case in South Africa. Zhan and Santos-Paulino (2021:174) reveal that there have been numerous cases where the government has been taken to court, including instances where the government was ordered by the court of law to allow the sale of products for the care of babies when lockdown restricted the sale of many other things in country.

Hogg-Graham *et al.* (2021:487) show that there are activities which can better be performed by the private sector or even community-based organisations and must be given an opportunity to perform those activities such as, fund raising to provide essential services. Munzhedzi (2021:491) observes that it is paramount that all spheres of government as well as state-owned institutions adequately apply good governance principles in the management of these pandemics. Munzhedzi (2021:491) adds that the compliance with these principles is critical to ensure that the rule of law is observed, relevant stakeholders are involved, decision-making is decentralised, those delegated with resources and authority are accountable and that the implementation of policies is undertaken effectively and efficiently.

3.13 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK ON THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NDP 2030

This section presents the legislative frameworks that are related to this study.

3.13.1 Regulations of the Disaster Management Act, 2002 (Act No. 57 of 2002)

Regulations were issued on 17 March 2020 in terms of *section 27 (2) of the Disaster Management Act, 2002 (Act 57 of 2002)* with the purpose of alleviating, containing and minimising the effect of a disaster (Republic of South Africa, 2002). The disaster in this case is the COVID-19 disease which was later declared a pandemic by the WHO. The regulations mandated the Department of Defence, for the duration of the declared national state of disaster, to mobilise available resources and ensure the delivery of essential services so that the spread of COVID-19 could be minimised. Public gatherings were also prohibited with the sole purpose of limiting the spread of the virus. Schools were closed for a considerable period and visiting other places including churches and places of entertainment were also forbidden as a measure to contain the spread. The sale and transportation of liquor was also banned. However, some of these prohibitions were lifted with the introduction of subsequent phases of the lockdown.

The regulations make provision for emergency procurement of goods and services, which are applicable in terms of *Section 76 of the Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act No.1 of 1999)* and *Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act No. 56 of 2003)* respectively. The said provision of the regulations basically relaxes the open bidding processes, which are deemed long and cumbersome, and introduced a closed bidding process. Albeit short, the closed bidding option does not mean that service providers are chosen without following due process. Closed bidding means that a selected number of service providers are selected from the database of the department or municipality to quote a competitive amount for final selection. A service provider cannot just be chosen with exorbitant amounts that have been

inflated like what has been the case with personal protective equipment (PPE) contracts worth billions (Munzhedzi & Phago, 2020:199). There were many instances of price inflation, fraud and corruption in Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal and some other provinces (EFF, 2020:8). The issue is not the legislation but the application of it in many instances.

3.13.2 Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) COVID-19 Disaster Response Directions, 2020

On 23 March 2020 the President of the Republic announced an escalation of the measures to combat COVID - 19, which include an initial 21 Day Lockdown. *Section 6 (a)-(e) of Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) COVID-19 Disaster Response Directions, 2020* Municipalities and institutions of Traditional Leadership were directed to Prepare and roll out awareness campaigns on COVID-19, using available media platforms (print, radio, and social media), to the public within their areas of jurisdiction; Ensure that communication materials include details on prevention methods, identification, infection control, local reporting channels and emergency contacts in order to raise public awareness and encourage appropriate preventative behaviours and practices; Conduct advocacy and awareness programs on the prevention and control of COVID-19 and establish communication protocols for the reporting of cases relating to employees, councillors and traditional leaders; In partnership with the Health Authorities, provide soaps, sanitizers, facial masks, latex gloves and other materials or equipment necessary for prevention of person-to-person transmission in areas where municipal staff and councillors have direct contact at public service centres and facilities (i.e. municipal offices, clinics, etc.); In partnership with the health authorities, non-governmental organisations, community and faith-based organisations and the business community, provide orientation and information to Councillors, Ward Committees, Community Development Workers (CDWs), Traditional Leaders, Religious Leaders, Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) workers and Community Works Programme (CWP) participants to enable them to play the role of health promoters in their communities and enable uniform, non-alarmist and consistent communication with the public.

Section 6.5 (b)(i) of Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) COVID-19 Disaster Response Directions, 2020 Cemeteries, crematoria and funerals during funerals, affected families must be encouraged to observe recommended hygiene practices, limit the number of mourners in accordance with the regulations. The handling and disposal of human remains brought about because of COVID-19, must be done in terms of the guidelines and protocols that have been developed by the National Department of Health. *Section 6.7 of Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) COVID-19 Disaster Response Directions, 2020* When rendering municipal services,

municipalities and municipal entities must ensure that there is strict adherence to all COVID-19 public health and containment prescripts, especially those relating to gatherings, physical distancing, health and safety; normal face-to-face council and staff meetings may be conducted, where necessary, but it is recommended that all meetings should still be conducted through electronic means, if possible.

3.14 PROGRESS MADE TOWARDS THE NDP'S VISION 2030: FULL EMPLOYMENT, POVERTY ERADICATION AND EQUITY

The NDP's main goals are full employment, poverty eradication, and greater equity. We cannot afford to achieve other targets but not succeed in attaining these top three goals. This is true, even in the short term. It will take generations to fully address South Africa's legacy of apartheid, and we cannot indefinitely wait for a trickle down to potentially lift us up. The NDP frames a vision for how these top three priorities can be meaningfully and sustainably addressed.

3.14.1 Employment

Dobrinevski and Jachnik (2020) indicate that NDP sets a target of reducing unemployment from 25.4% in 2010 to 20% by 2015, 14% by 2020 and 6.0% by 2030. Achieving these goals would have entailed the creation of 2.2 million jobs between 2010 and 2015 at an annual average of 436 000, on the back of an average GDP growth rate of about 4.6% per annum (Dobrinevski & Jachnik, 2020). Brougham and Haar (2020) attest that between 2015 and 2020, the average rate of job creation should have risen to 505 000 per annum creating an additional 2.5 million jobs. Between 2020 and 2030, Muhyiddin and Nugroho (2021:2) articulate that an acceleration of the average GDP growth rate to 5.3% per annum should have given rise to a further 6.3 million jobs. Haywood *et al.* (2019:569) state that public works programmes and state-funded community care jobs were designed to play a supportive role in the pursuit of these targets, reducing reliance on the labour market and compensating for shortfalls in the required rate of economic growth arising from cyclical downturns and economic shocks. Haywood *et al.* (2019:569) adds that public works programmes were also designed to assist in making the economy more productive, by raising the skill levels of participants and freeing resources that could be used in other areas.

While the target for total employment growth by 2015 was almost reached, Alex and Juan (2017:7) state that the gap between what the NDP wanted to achieve, and actual performance has widened. By 2019, Mubecua and David (2019:19) reveal that total employment was 1.5

million below what was required to be on-track in meeting the NDP Vision 2030 target. Furthermore, Mubecua and David (2019:19) show that the average annual growth in employment between 2010 and 2019 was 256 000 compared with an NDP target of almost 400 000 a year. This translates into achieving only 64% of the additional employment targeted by the NDP.

Kyere and Ausloos (2021:1871) state that composition of employment is also a concern, with regression on some significant goals over the past decade. Carlitz and Makhura (2021:51) add that the Covid-19 pandemic health response is further deepening the regression. Moreover, Brougham and Haar (2020:34) articulate that this is a common challenge in middle and upper-income economies globally. In 2008, Muhyiddin and Nugroho (2021:9) indicate that 14% of employment was in manufacturing. By 2019, Muhyiddin and Nugroho (2021:9) show that this had fallen to 9%. Over this same period, Kyere and Ausloos (2021:23) indicate that manufacturing employment fell by 313 000, in line with poor output performance.

Small businesses account for a smaller share of total employment, falling from 64% in 2008 to 55% in 2015 (Trade & Industrial Policy Strategies, 2016). Between 2015 and 2019, Stranieri *et al.* (2019:483) maintain that people in the 15 to 24 and 25 to 34 age groups were the only ones to experience a decline in total employment, with a combined fall of 355 000. Over the same period, Haywood *et al.* (2019:557) articulate that working age population falling within these age groups increased by 600 000. Over the 2008–2016 periods, Medvedev (2016:337) shows that almost 1.3 million jobs were created. Swanepoel (2012) states that those aged 15 to 24 lost 335 000 jobs between 2008 and 2012, with no subsequent recovery. Thompson (2016:126) articulates that those between the ages of 25 and 34 lost 187 000 jobs in the first period, and just barely recovered by 2016. Over this period, Medvedev (2016:339) indicates that labour force of 15- to 34-year-olds expanded by 1.2 million, so youth unemployment rose significantly. In 2019, Ampaire *et al.* (2020:44) point that 57% of people in the 15 to 24 age group and 35% of those in the 25 to 34 age group who actively looked for employment were unable to find work.

Brougham and Haar (2020:60) state that all net job creation went to those over the age of 35, with about 1.57 million jobs created, compared to labour force growth of 2.9 million for 35- to 64-year-olds. In addition, Brougham and Haar (2020:60) indicate that this does not mean that no jobs were created for young people but rather that employment fell for them overall. By

2019, Stranieri *et al.* (2019:490) indicate that 89% of all unemployed were black African, which was higher than 79% of the share of the labour force. Plessing (2020:200) state that official unemployment rates across different races ranged from only 7% for Whites to 12% for Indians, 23% for Coloureds, and 40% for black Africans. While this situation has its origins in the 1960s and 1970s when unemployment accelerated for the black workforce, and already exceeded 20% by 1978, it has continued to deteriorate since then (Hoppe *et al.*, 2013).

Debeila *et al.* (2021) indicate that volatility in employment has almost completely been felt by black African workers, who accounted for 84% (668 000) of the jobs lost between 2008 and 2010, and for more than 100% (2.6 million) of the jobs gained between 2010 and 2019. Strangely, Kolahian *et al.* (2021:309) state that the rise in employment for black African workers may help to explain why unemployment rates rose, as many discouraged workers re-entered the labour force over this period. Gorelik (2020:62) articulates that Black African labour force participation rates rose from 52.9% in 2010 to 58.3% in 2019, far higher than that expected over this period in the NDP.

Mao *et al.* (2021:2719) state that raising the economic participation of the working age population is the NDP's top priority and some progress was made in this regard. Mao *et al.* (2021:2719) add that labour force participation rate, which measures the proportion of the population that is active in the labour market, increased from under 56% in 2010 to close to 60% in 2019. This is almost in line with the NDP target and moves South Africa closer to the global average of about 62% (Gorelik, 2020:62). However, Zhang *et al.* (2020:250) stress that there are still racial and age dimensions to unemployment that mean that we do not have a shared national experience of the pain and frustration caused by a persistent inability to find employment.

Padgett (2016:78) indicates that between 2010 and 2015, real economic growth averaged 2.2% a year and total employment rose by close to 2 million at an average annual rate of 391 000. From 2015 to 2019, Pakstaitis (2019:231) articulates that average economic growth plummeted to 0.7% a year, and total employment only increased by 609 000 at an annual average of just 152 000. Ovadia and Wolf (2018:1061) are of the view that many would be surprised that the rate of job creation between 2010 and 2015 was relatively robust and created close to 2 million jobs, at a rate of 391 000 per annum. Ovadia and Wolf (2018:1061) add that this seems inconsistent with the lack of improvement in unemployment rates. Neuman (2011:56) shows that about 1.1 million jobs were lost in 2009 and early-2010. In this context, Neuman (2011:56) states that it is not unusual for employment to bounce back. Paranjape

(2013:325) indicates that employment reached a high of 14.8 million by the fourth quarter of 2008 and only returned to the same level by the second quarter of 2013.

Pakstaitis (2019:242) reveals that of the 2.6 million additional people employed between 2010 and 2019, 11% were in the primary sectors, 8% in the secondary sectors with manufacturing employment contracting by 77 000 over the period, and the remaining 81% in the tertiary sectors. Erlingsson *et al.* (2015:199) stress that the rate of job creation was close to the NDP's target for 2010 to 2015 but considerable ground has been lost since then. Parsons (2020:143) states that NDP targets rely on a sustainable, employment-generating growth path, and that is not in evidence.

Ozili and Arun (2020:205) are of the view that economy is likely to contract by at least 7% in 2020, causing employment to fall by more than a million jobs. Some estimates point to the potential for permanent job losses between 200,000 and 900,000 (Parsons, 2020:150). Rakshit and Basistha (2020:23) stress that special character of the Covid-19 health response is that it aims to limit labour-using industries that happen to have significant supply chains such as tourism. Rakshit and Basistha (2020:23) add that it will likely accelerate structural change towards digitisation and reduced use of labour in the production process. The movement of people is constrained locally, regionally, and globally. This increases the urgency of measures to contain Covid-19 outbreaks while at the same time implementing critical policies to promote inclusive growth on a path towards the NDP Vision 2030 (Carlitz & Makhura, 2021:52).

3.14.2 Poverty eradication

Cunningham *et al.* (2017:30) show that while poverty rates fell substantially over the 2000s, there has been no measured improvement since 2011, and there are signs of regression in some indicators. In 2006, Alex and Juan (2017:8) indicate that 28.4% of the population fell below the Food Poverty Line (FPL), which means they could not afford a basic basket of food required to meet the minimum daily energy intake. Alex and Juan (2017:8) articulate that there was a significant improvement by 2011, falling to 21.4% but the share of those below the FPL rose again to 25.2% in 2015. Anderson and Strutt (2014:50) are of the view that persistence of deep poverty is most likely due to slow job creation, rising food prices, and rapid increases in utility costs that have outpaced income growth. Anderson and Strutt (2014:50) add that there has been greater success for households in the next tier, with significant reductions in the proportion of the population falling below the Lower-Bound Poverty Line (LBPL) and the Upper-Bound Poverty Line (UBPL).

Sulla and Zikhali (2018) compare that in 2006, 51.0% and 66.6% of the population fell below the LBPL and UBPL, respectively. By 2011, Sulla and Zikhali (2018) indicate that this fell to 36.4% and 53.2%, respectively. To put this in numbers, Ray and Ing (2016:17) articulate that almost 2.3 million people rose above the LBPL between 2006 and 2015. Between 2006 and 2015, Cosser (2018:102) shows that poverty rates for black Africans fell from 60% to 47%, from 36% to 23% for Coloureds, from 5% to 1.2% for Indians and 0.6% to 0.4% for Whites. In 2015, 49% of black African women lived in poverty as compared to 45% of black African men (Stats SA, 2017). NPC (2013) indicates that NDP aims to see the full population living above the LBPL by 2030. Cosser (2018:102) stresses that figures for 2015 show that, while millions have risen above the poverty line, the improvement is not sufficient. Kyere and Ausloos (2021:1880) reveal that there has been no improvement in the proportion of the population falling below the LBPL since the NDP was published, and there is likely to have been a reversal of gains in recent years.

Song and Zhou (2020:3) state that a commitment to turning around these reversals on poverty eradication will be even more important in the context of the Covid-19 pandemic. According to World Bank (2018), 19.5% of South Africans were trying to survive on the equivalent of \$1.90 per day in 2018. Kyere and Ausloos (2021:1881) add that while this represented a significant reduction from the equivalent share in 1996 (36.6%), it still compares poorly with most other countries, and represents an increase over the 16.5% of 2010. Globally, Kyere and Ausloos (2021:1881) show that the proportion of the population living below this poverty line dropped from 29.5% in 1996 to 10% in 2015. Timmis *et al.* (2020:12) state that average for upper-middle income countries declined from 29.7% to 2.2% over a similar period, while that of lower-middle income countries dropped from 39% to 14.2%.

Muhyiddin and Nugroho (2021:13) view that earlier progress was substantially explained by the expanding distribution of social grants since 2001, and to a smaller extent, by job creation and urbanisation. By moving from rural to urban areas, Mubecua and David (2019:23) show that 385 000 citizens were raised above the poverty line between 2008 and 2014. Song and Zhou (2020:4) state that one-third of urban households fall into the poorest 40% of households as compared to 57% in former homelands. However, Carlitz and Makhura (2021:55) articulate that migration has resulted in a significantly larger number of poor livings in urban areas and, according to the South African multi-dimensional poverty index, the intensity of poverty is often greater in urban areas. Dobrinevski and Jachnik (2020:135) indicate that urbanisation is a key factor in increasing access to services, and it is generally more efficient to provide services in densely populated urban areas. However, Brougham and Haar (2020) state that their provision and cost depend on functioning and financially sustainable local municipalities.

Welfle (2017:84) views that areas of urban agglomeration are usually important for employment creation, as they bring business, workers and services closer together. South Africa's eight metropolitan municipalities accounted for 55% of the national economy, 52% of all formal and informal employment, and 42% of the total population in 2019 (Stranieri *et al.*, 2019:190). This accounts in part for the significant in-migration to metropolitan areas from other parts of the South Africa. Typically, Ampaire *et al.* (2020:47) view that few wage earners in low-income communities support a larger number of dependents. In urban areas, Ampaire *et al.* (2020:47) show that 14% of households earn less than R2 000 per month as compared to 46% of households in former homelands. NPC (2013) indicates that NDP aims to reduce the number of people depending on one wage earner to 2.5 by 2030. Todes and Turok (2018:13) articulate that this dependency ratio fell from 4.0 to 3.5 between 2010 and 2015, which was on target.

Medvedev (2016:346) emphasises that reducing the cost of living for low-income households is an important piece of the poverty eradication puzzle. Most critically, Plessing (2020:48) points that food accounts for 30% of expenditure in the poorest 40% of households. Bollens (2021:82) views that efforts to eradicate poverty are hampered by food prices that rose by 93% over the period from 2002 and 2019, as compared with overall increases in the price of the consumer basket of 29%. NPC (2013:182) indicates that NDP advocates an approach to household food and nutrition security that involves both market and non-market interventions. In a context of high unemployment and a global trend towards low-paid, precarious services jobs, the NDP emphasises a commitment to strengthening the social wage (NPC, 2013:182). Plessing (2020:102) is of the view that a decent standard of living will be achieved through rising incomes, interventions to ensure that wage goods are affordable and through the provision of high-quality, accessible basic services.

3.14.3 Equity

Hudson *et al.* (2020) show that NDP makes numerous references to the need to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030. Equity, in the NPC (2013:310) is understood as a precondition to address the deeply embedded structural barriers that prevent especially black women and black people from full economic participation. These barriers arise from the

combination of colonialism and institutional apartheid and the ways in which the effects are reproduced in contemporary South Africa. Sánchez *et al.* (2022) articulate that this report therefore foregrounds equity as a top objective together with equality and the elimination of poverty, consistent with the ethos of the NDP. Tregenna and Tsela (2012:35) state that equity is the quest for a situation in which personal effort, preferences, and initiative rather than privilege arising from family background, wealth and income, race, or gender, account for the differences among people's economic achievements. Tregenna and Tsela (2012:35) add that this requires that factors that prevent South Africans from having the freedom to achieve their potential such as differences in health, education, and access to public services and infrastructure are addressed, so that the relative deprivations of one generation are not carried over.

Francis and Webster (2019:733) stress that South Africa has the highest rate of inequality in the world, according to the World Bank and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Von Fintel and Orthofer (2020:589) state that NDP aims to reduce income inequality from 0.69 in 2010 to 0.6 by 2030. Von Fintel and Orthofer (2020:315) add that this would represent progress but even then, South Africa would probably still be ranked highest in the world. According to Pillay (2017:32), of the 146 countries that have measured their Gini coefficients since 2010, South Africa had the worst score (63) and Slovenia had the best (24.2). Of these 146 countries, Taylor (2021:650) articulates that 93 experienced an improvement in levels of inequality and 53 a deterioration. Stephens *et al.* (2015:1210) show that inequality rose substantially between 1994 and 2006, with the Gini coefficient rising by about 0.05 points.

Nassar and Elsayed (2018:2367) reveal that while millions were pulled out of abject poverty, higher income groups benefitted relatively more. Cohen and Venter (2020) accede that NDP also targeted a growing share of income accruing to the bottom 40%, rising from 6% to 10% between 2010 and 2030, respectively. By 2015, Cohen and Venter (2020) indicate that NDP had reached 8.3%. By global comparison, Meyer and Mittag (2019:176) stress that South African income inequality is most extreme in relation to income paid to the top 10% and that going to the bottom 60%. In 2005, the share of about 37% going to deciles 7, 8 and 9 was in line with the global average. Pillay (2017:731) shows that global average income going to the top decile was 32% as compared to 45% in South Africa. The global average income accruing to decile 5 and 6 and to deciles 1 to 4 were 15.4% and 16.6%, respectively as compared to about 10% and less than 10% in South Africa (Palma, 2011). Meyer and Mittag (2019:176) stress that NDP does not have targets for wealth inequality. The top decile of the South African population is estimated to own between 71% and 95% of the nation's wealth, as compared to

a global average of 55% to 65% (Von Fintel & Orthofer, 2020:568). Nassar and Elsayed (2018:78) shows that even in rich countries, the wealth share owned by the bottom half is generally 5% of the total. Nassar and Elsayed (2018:78) add that small share of wealth owned by the middle class in South Africa represents a significant difference to other countries, even highly unequal ones.

3.14.4 The social wage

Leschke and Watt (2014:3) indicate that commitment to the social wage has enabled significant improvements in multi-dimensional poverty. Pillay, (2017:32) shows that multi-dimensional poverty rates fell from 17.9% in 2001 to 8% by 2011, and further to 7% by 2016. With widespread poverty and low wages, Taylor (2021:302) views that social wage is an extremely important element in the NDP's proposals to achieve a decent life. Plagerson (2021:11) views that delivery of municipal services and housing to black communities is a feature of the new democratic era. Municipal service delivery rolled out at a fast pace in areas such as electricity, piped water, flush toilets and refuse removal until 2011. Plagerson (2021:11) adds that home building for low-income households has been extensive.

Stephens, Lux and Sunega (2015:1210) show that share of families living in formal housing rose from 65% in 1996 to 79% in 2015. This translated into 5.8 million households in formal housing rising to 13.4 million over this period. Sánchez *et al.* (2022:36) show that 71% of dwellings in urban areas, covering 84% of the population, are adequate in the sense that they have services, are not structurally weak and are not overcrowded. However, Sánchez *et al.* (2022:36) add that homes are often very small which drives reduced household size and limits small business opportunities. By 2016, Nassar and Elsayed (2018:2363) indicate that 2.2 million households were living in urban informal residences such as backyard shacks and informal settlements, with limited access to basic services such as water, electricity or sanitation. Cohen and Venter (2020:231) state that finance for home ownership is severely limited for the three-quarters of all households who earn under R12 000 per month.

Meyer and Mittag (2019:173) show that reach of formal housing into low-income households therefore relies heavily on state subsidies and provision, with just under a half of low-income households in the bottom 40% receiving a state subsidy. In this light, Von Fintel and Orthofer (2020:570) are concerned about whether the current path will take South Africa to NDP Vision 2030 quality of life targets. Sánchez *et al.* (2022:102) state that expansion of new subsidised accommodation slowed substantially over the past decade, from 235 000 houses and serviced

sites, and subsidised rentals in 2006/7 to fewer than 161 000 by 2017. Hudson *et al.* (2020:51) are of the view that the main approach to formally housing low-income urban residents is through large, subsidised housing projects typically located at the edges of cities. Hudson *et al.* (2020:51) add that this entrenches the apartheid space economy, keeping the cost of living and of working high and limits the benefits of agglomeration for the working poor and work-seekers. One-fifth or more of household income in the poorest 30% of households is spent on transport to and from work (Sánchez *et al.*, 2022:102).

Plagerson (2021:7) indicates that social wage contribution to urban transport is poorly aligned to enabling economic participation and reducing the cost of living. For example, Plagerson (2021:7) shows that 63% of urban public transport expenditure goes to rail, accounting for only 17% of trips, 36% is spent on bus services, accounting for 16% of trips, and almost nothing spent on minibus taxis which account for 67% of trips. Hudson *et al.* (2020:79) stress that almost all aspects of poverty in South Africa could worsen due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Hudson *et al.* (2020:79) add that unemployment is already rising, especially for lower-skill occupations. Access to many public services and measures that support the social wage could be constrained as public finances come under pressure. El-Bassiouny *et al.* (2022:462) state that poor communities are also at greater risk of being marginalised by the accelerated move to a digital economy because of their low skills and limited access to digital networks. Ruiters (2021:794) points that budgetary constraints may make it harder for statistical authorities to assess trends in poverty and its distribution.

3.14.5 Asset ownership in rural, former *bantustans*, townships and urban areas

Chassin (2013:1761) states that progress has been slow, and frustration is understandably high. Taylor (2021:230) shows that cadastral and deeds registry system does not work well for low-income households since it does not legally recognise and record off-the-register rights. Taylor (2021:230) adds that this is particularly a challenge for the 17 million people living in former *Bantustans*, 3 million farm dwellers, and millions living in urban informal settlements and backyard shacks. Von Fintel and Orthofer (2020:572) indicate that legal limitation on the re-sale of RDP houses by beneficiaries for the first eight years of occupation, as well as the very significant title deeds backlog and restrict the ability of owners to use their property as financing collateral. NPC (2013:5) shows that NDP set a target of 20% of commercial agricultural land to be transferred by 2030. Ruiters (2021:890) articulates that progress towards this target needs to be measured by all land transferred to black hands, whether through government programmes or private transactions. Between 1994 and 2016/17, it is estimated that at least 9.6 million hectares of commercial agricultural land

transferred to black hands. Ruiters (2021:890) adds that this equates to 11.6% of commercial farmland, achieving about 40% of the 2030 target. Between 2017/18 and 2030, Turok (2020) is of the view that 13.2 million hectares would need to be transferred to achieve the NDP's target.

Piras *et al.* (2021:315) indicate that About 4.8 million hectares (5.9%) of former White commercial farmland had been redistributed through land reform programmes by 2017. Bhat *et al.* (2020:17) concur that redistribution peaked in 2007/8 at 500 000 hectares but has fallen since then to about 100 000 hectares in 2015/16. Cohen and Venter (2020:639) reveal that about 75,000 restitution claims have been settled. By 2016/17, just over 3.4 million hectares of commercial farmland had been restored (Pillay, 2017:37). Hall *et al.* (2013:47) show that estimates of formerly White commercial farmland acquired privately by black people vary widely. Hall *et al.* (2013:47) add that at least 1.3 million hectares, equating to 1.6% of commercial farmland changed hands through purely private transactions between 1994 and 2016.

There are 14.5 million hectares of agricultural land in the former Bantustans, governed by communal tenure (Pillay, 2017:37). Between 2002 and 2010, the number of commercially oriented black smallholder households in ex-Bantustans and coloured reserves grew by 30% to 150 000 (Aliber, 2017:183). James and Woodhouse (2017:535) indicate that security of tenure, access to water rights, productivity, and financial viability are top concerns, with many commercial farms heavily in debt and very weak output and earnings by many black-owned farms, especially those arising from land reform. Nassar and Elsayed (2018:2350) point that restitution through compensation has been provided in respect of almost 2.8 million hectares, mostly for urban land. This compensation has not been sufficient to generate an asset base and is mostly used for current household expenditures (Pillay, 2017:37). Aliber (2017:183) reveals that half of all low-income houses built through the housing subsidy scheme have not been legally registered to individual owners.

There are widespread challenges where recipients cannot pay for municipal services and taxes rendering these developments a liability to municipalities (Nassar & Elsayed, 2018:2350). Taylor, V. (2021:471) indicates that only 47% of employed people say they contribute to any pension or retirement fund. Taylor (2021:471) adds that about 57.5% of contributors are men and 42.5% are women. Von Fintel and Orthofer (2020) show that indebtedness by low-income households is a growing problem. Von Fintel and Orthofer (2020) stress that household indebtedness as a ratio to household income grew dramatically from

just over 50% in 2003 to 86% in 2008, then fell to 72% by 2016. Francis and Webster (2019:734) show that proportion of consumer borrowers with impaired records fell from 45% in June 2015 to 38% in March 2018. Francis and Webster (2019:734) accede that this improvement masks the growth in indebtedness by low-income consumers who rely on unsecured lending and retail instalment finance. Sánchez *et al.* (2022:250) add that new unsecured lending grew from R30.4 billion in 2008 to R85.2 billion in 2016. Of borrowers earning R3 500 per month or less, 42% were three months or more in arrears, compared to 15% for those earning at least R30 000 per month (National Treasury, 2018). As at the end of March 2020, Shackleton and Gwedla (2021:813) show that household indebtedness to municipalities was just under R128 billion. More than 75% of this debt had been outstanding for 90 days or more.

3.15 Application of governance principles in the management of the coronavirus disease 2019 in South Africa

There are many principles of governance which are discussed in the succeeding section: the rule of law, public participation, transparency, accountability, decentralisation, effectiveness and efficiency

3.15.1 Rule of law

Keymolen and Voorwinden (2020:233) state that the emphasis on the impartial protection of individual and collective rights makes the rule of law a crucial component of government. Zhao and Lin (2022:56) view that rule of law promotes the creation or maintenance of an independent judiciary, which ensures justice, equity, and fairness in a society. The nation should have a fair and uncorrupt police force in addition to an independent judiciary (Siphambili *et al.*, 2021:182). *Section 217 of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa 1996*, indicates that those who were formerly underprivileged should be given more preference in areas like procurement. Mpehle and Hlebela (2020) show that equity aims to correct historical injustices such as those in pre-democratic South Africa, where only the minority white population was eligible to transact with the government.

As a way of managing the COVID-19 pandemic in South Africa, Fombad (2020:368) indicates that the rule of law has to be observed. Fombad (2020:368) adds that regulations developed in terms of *Section 27(2) of the Disaster Management Act, 2002 (Act 57 of 2002)* have to be

adhered to. Moreover, Bollens (2021:46) stresses these regulations make provision for amongst others things: movement of people, goods and traffic; closing down of industries, mines and workplaces; less attendance of funerals and church gatherings; and closing down of the country borders. *Section 3 of the Disaster Management Act, 2002 (Act 57 of 2002)* empowers the Minister of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs to amend the Act and develop regulations with the purpose of effectively managing a national disaster. The majority of products and services are acquired outside of the established procedures outlined by the *Local Government: Municipal Financial Management Act, 2003 (Act no. 56 of 2003)* and *Public Finance Management Act, (Act no. 58 of 1999)*. During South Africa's shutdown, there have been several incidents of price inflation, fraud, and corruption in Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, and some other provinces (EFF, 2020).

The President also reprimanded officials in the administration, including the Minister of Communications and Digital Technologies, for breaking the rules (Daily Maverick, 2020). Aborisade (2022:7) reveals that many ordinary people have also been detained for breaking laws pertaining to drinking in public places, moving during the curfew, and visiting relatives and friends when the lockdown rules forbid it. Although the rules called for a maximum load of 70%, the taxi sector was advised against operating taxis that were fully loaded (Wakelin-Theron & Ukpere, 2021:272). Also, they began running long-distance taxis and accepting passengers against the restrictions forbidding it (Sowetan Live 2020). The rule of law must be applied more strictly in response to such behavior.

3.15.2 Public participation

Section 152 of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996 makes it compulsory for municipalities to work with local communities and community-based organisations in all their activities and programmes. This means that municipalities should involve relevant stakeholders in the integrated development planning and budgeting processes. According to Haywood *et al.* (2019:556), communities are likely to provide more support for policy implementation than they did for the policy-making process, which drew significant support and engagement from them. Haywood *et al.* (2019:556) add that this is not only applicable to local governance because national and provincial governments also need to consult the public extensively when developing their own policies and initiatives. The principle of public participation originates from the phenomenon of democracy that propagates the inclusion of citizen participation in governance processes (Vanoli, 2014:27). The first instance in which citizens get involved is through national, provincial and local government elections. However, Munzhedzi (2019:490) states that participation is inclusive of offering inputs in the policy

process, paying of government services, particularly at the local sphere, and economic participation through creation of employment to the less privileged. Creation of employment enables those employed to be able to participate through payment of rates and taxes which by extension enable government to render goods and services (Munzhedzi, 2019:461).

Adu Gyamfi and Shaw (2022:269) stress that the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on the governance processes particularly as it relates to public participation is so severe in that communities cannot actively participate in the activities and programmes of government. For example, Adu Gyamfi and Shaw (2022:269) add that one mechanism used to participate is through elected representatives in the national and provincial legislatures as well as municipal councils. Munzhedzi (2021:490) points that EFF made a submission to parliament requesting physical opening of parliament because legislative oversight is not being exercised effectively and efficiently. Munzhedzi (2021:490) adds that their contention was that some meetings end up not taking place because of connection failures, or that there is one interruption or the other. To this effect, Magazzino *et al.* (2020:115) argue that because of the COVID-19 pandemic there has been less functionality and operation of national and provincial parliament as well as municipal councils. This means less accountability for members of the executive at all spheres of government.

Oni and Dele-Dada (2022) indicate that legislative oversight on how the executive has implemented the regulations including spending the budget since the lockdown has not been exercised to full capacity. Waeterloos *et al.* (2021:90) reveal that COVID-19 pandemic has in a sense brought about less public participation in the activities and programmes of government. Public gatherings like community meetings, imbizos, large church and funeral gatherings and khorokgoro are prohibited from taking place until the levels of lockdown have gone down (Munzhedzi, 2021:67).

3.15.3 Transparency

Pomeranz and Stedman (2020:242) show that one of the fundamental tenets of good governance is the principle of transparency. The principle of transparency dictates that the public is informed of all relevant decisions and processes leading to those decisions

(Androniceanu, 2021:149). *Sections 195, 215 and 217 of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996* also make a provision that the public decisions and processes must be transparent, particularly to those that they affect directly and indirectly. Arshad and Khurram (2020) is of the view that one of the most common ways in which transparency is ensured in public institutions is through the use of technology including social media. The public and institutions dealing with state institutions are guaranteed rights that entitle them to ask reasons why certain decisions were taken through the *Promotion of Administrative Justice Act, 2000 (Act No. 3 of 2000)*. It is through this legislation that individuals concerned may challenge any decision taken by any public institution in the form of application for rescission of such decision which could be an appointment, promotion, demotion, transfer or dismissal (Ikenberry, 2018:27).

During the COVID-19 pandemic environment, Casady and Baxter (2022:6) state that the public procurement processes have not been as transparent as they should. Lack of transparency may negatively contribute towards fraud and corruption in public institutions including in procurement (Munzhedzi, 2016:7). Ruijer (2020:260) is of the view that those who are charged with the responsibility of taking government decisions are more likely to act better if the processes are transparent to those involved. Makokha (2020:46) states that most of the wrong actions including bribes, embezzlement and corruptions are often exercised in the far-flung areas where the public is not scrutinising such actions. Many corrupt practices which are alleged to have taken place during the lockdown in South Africa have been reported by the media and many other political parties (EFF, 2020). Mantzaris and Ngcamu (2020:461) add that allegations about such corrupt practices took place during the procurement of protective equipment and the construction of shelters for the homeless. Moreover, Mantzaris and Ngcamu (2020:461) view that this is because of the manipulation of legislative prescripts, which allows for such procurement without advertisement particularly in urgent situations like that of the COVID-19 pandemic.

3.15.4 Accountability

Sørensen and Torfing (2021:103) argue that public accountability goes beyond the participation and interaction of citizens in government activities and programmes, and the

answerability of leaders for their actions to the relevant structures. Buckley *et al.* (2021:43) refers to accountability as an obligation to answer to a higher authority regarding its authorisation and resource allocation. Munzhedzi (2021:492) states that a manager gives an account to his seniors not only for the budget allocated, but also for the regular decisions taken about policy, personnel, procedural and control matters. Accounting in the context of public office also has to do with answering on the progress, performance, failures, and successes and actual versus targeted performances (Argento *et al.*, 2020:204). The Section 56 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 has introduced measures, which enable public officials and institutions to account for their actions. Such mechanisms include parliament, public protector, auditor general and judicial institutions. Hamann *et al.* (2021) indicate that members of the executive including the president and his ministers at the national government and the premier with their MECs account to national parliament and provincial legislatures. Hazaea and Zhu (2022:360) show that the auditor general also audits books of all state institutions with a purpose of identifying deviations and corrective measures.

Beshi and Kaur (2020:337) mandate that public accountability plays a critical role in as far as good governance is concerned. In the context of COVID-19, Bollens, (2021:167) states that those who are charged with the responsibility to procure protective equipment must be held accountable for the budget, processes followed in procurement, nomination of food parcels beneficiaries and specific decisions regarding the management of COVID-19 in the country. Makoti and Odeku (2022:37) attest that those who suspect any maladministration and improper action on the part of state officials have a right to report such matters to the Public Protector and other relevant state institutions. Pomeranz and Stedman (2020:430) point that Public Protector may investigate, make a finding, and pronounce a remedial action commensurate with the alleged misconduct. However, oppositional political parties like the EFF have reported that 'some councillors' of the ruling party in South Africa were seen donating food parcels to members of their political organisation as well as their families (EFF, 2020). Such allegations were also reported in KwaZulu-Natal regarding the procurement of blankets for the homeless persons.

3.15.5 Decentralisation

Mueller and Hechter (2021:133) argue that governance theory as discussed above is against the notion of centralisation of powers at a national entity. One of the most important

components of good governance is decentralisation of decision-making powers and authority, a contingency that includes the powers to appoint, dismiss, promote, demote, discipline and transfer officials (Pomeranz & Stedman, 2020:431). *The Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act No. 1 of 1999)* and *Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act No. 56 of 2003)* respectively confers financial management powers and authority to the accounting officers who are the administrative heads of public and municipal entities. Sibanda *et al.* (2020:178) state that accounting officer's report to the director general in national and provincial departments, whilst in the municipalities they report to the municipal managers. In case of other public and municipal entities such as Eskom, Transnet and Joburg Power, Jamane (2020) indicates that an accounting officer is the chief executive officer because they possess the administrative powers even whilst they report to boards or municipal councils. However, Jamane (2020) indicates that accounting officers may delegate some of the powers they possess to other members of the administrative constituents, or the divisional managers for effective and efficient departmental operation.

Munzhedzi (2020:78) posits that there is a provision in the two mentioned policy frameworks for devolution of power and authority to departmental managers who otherwise had limited powers. In the context of a COVID-19 environment, Dufour *et al.* (2020:548) state that South African government in its different components has a responsibility to delegate to lower-level managers so that adequate accountability, efficiency and effectiveness could be ensured. The State Tender Board Act, 1968 (Act No. 86 of 1968) was finally repealed in the democratic era with a hope of decentralising public procurement in South Africa. Basheka (2021:113) show that decentralisation in public procurement brings with it local empowerment because contracts with the state are often awarded to local businesses where the capacity exists. During this time of the COVID-19 pandemic, Amankwah-Amoahv *et al.* (2021:602) stress that many municipalities particularly those that are largely rural lack the skills and capacity to function optimally. Such municipalities are often exposed to corruption and maladministration because of weaker accountability mechanisms. Municipal Public Accounts Committees (MPAC) possesses limited skills and capacity and lack in political will to scrutinise financial statements and municipal performance reports (Munzhedzi, 2019:29).

3.15.6 Effectiveness and efficiency

Sherren *et al.* (2020:912) state that the resources of the state are limited to an extent that they have to be used with care and meticulousness. This is contrary to the generally held view that resources of the state are unlimited and that it possesses capacity to do whatever the

community is requesting (Basheka, 2021:112). This view supports the assertion that the state may appoint whichever number of personnel it wishes to and fund as many projects and programmes as possible. Gåvertsson *et al.* (2020:353) view that effectiveness and efficiency are paramount if the limited resources of the state are to be spent in a sustainable manner. Section 195 of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996 shows that whenever resources of government are utilised, the principle of effectiveness and efficiency has to be applied. Makoti and Odeku (2022:1744) refer to effectiveness in the context of government as the achievement of the set goals and objectives whilst efficiency refers to such achievement with the use of the most limited resources as possible.

The Auditor General of South Africa (2018) has reported that there is a massive over-expenditure regarding the allocated budget without following due process. In essence, the budget that is approved through the legislative process is no longer used as a guide regarding financial expenditure. Phago (2020:181) shows that application of effectiveness and efficiency during the achievement of developmental local government mandates cannot be over emphasised during the COVID-19 pandemic in South Africa. This means that the provision of all protective equipment including masks, gloves and sanitisers should be undertaken with effectiveness and efficiency. Phago (2020:181) adds that this should not only be limited to protective equipment but also to all necessary assets that are needed the most during this COVID-19 pandemic era such as water tankers, fumigating and sanitising equipment. Such must not only be provided on time but within the most limited financial resources.

Furthermore, Magazzino *et al.* (2020:120) state that principles of governance are necessary for the effective and efficient implementation of government programmes and policies. Like many challenges of government, Oni and Dele-Dada (2022:190) attest that COVID-19 pandemic requires multiplicity of stakeholders to participate in finding a lasting solution. Aborisade (2022:14) points that affected communities, community-based organisations, private sector entities and traditional and religious leaders have a paramount role to play to ensure that the pandemic is managed adequately.

3.16 EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE ON THE EFFECT OF COVID-19 ON THE NDP 2030

On health, Bompat (2020:2) provides that substantial progress in expanding anti-retroviral coverage and treatment for tuberculosis has been made, and maternal mortality has decreased substantially since 2009. Bompat (2020:2) stresses that the COVID-19 pandemic has claimed tens of thousands of lives and placed an immense burden on the healthcare system, which has yet to be sufficiently quantified. Ngumbela *et al.* (2020:5) show that the NDP set out to achieve nearly 6% annual GDP growth, halve the unemployment rate and

eliminate food poverty by 2030. The available evidence from Ngumbela *et al.* (2020:5) suggests that South Africa is not any closer to achieving this goal than it was in 2012 and, in fact, some economic indicators have regressed since then. Fleetwood (2020:89) indicates that COVID-19 caused a shock to the economy, but unemployment was already at a record high and the economy in recession before the impact of the pandemic could be measured. Under lockdown, Pan and Zhang (2020:157) show that levels of food poverty have increased. Pan and Zhang (2020:157) further indicate that the pandemic will set the economy back by several years, but the pre-COVID economy was far below the expectations of the NDP.

The COVID-19 pandemic has claimed tens of thousands of lives and placed an immense burden on the healthcare system, which has yet to be sufficiently quantified (Khandelwal, 2020:64). Khetrpal and Bhatia (2020:395) point that the expansion of basic services such as electricity and piped water has declined in 2014 to 2018 and the quality of these services remains uneven. Perol *et al.* (2018:170) reveal that access to the internet, however, has expanded rapidly from 48% of households in 2014 to 64% in 2018. Perol *et al.* (2018:170) add that increased provision of social protection has reduced overall levels of hunger from 35% of households in 2002 to 16% in 2018. Khetrpal and Bhatia (2020:395) point that the pandemic has highlighted the need for social assistance that has sufficient value and is accessible.

According to the Stats SA 2020, Trading Economics indicated that at the end of 2017, 27% of the populations were unemployed while, in January 2018 to January 2019, this situation remained largely unchanged. However, unemployment had officially reached 30% by January 2020. Stiegler and Bouchard (2020:156) point that South Africa entered the lockdown with one of the highest unemployment rates (44.4%) this century. Amewu *et al.* (2020) indicate that falling export demand caused a 17% contraction in the economy from April to June 2020, which resulted in further job losses and reduced wages for those employed in March 2020. From April to June 2020, the hard lockdown impacted food imports, many of which are part of the staple diet of the poor, resulting in higher food prices and the inability to acquire basic foodstuffs (Hart *et al.*, 2022). Equally concerning is that in its definition of unemployment, Stats SA 2021 includes only those between the ages of 15 and 59 who are actively seeking employment but excludes those discouraged and no longer seeking employment. In December 2020, the unemployment figure, including discouraged individuals, was estimated at 43.1% compared to the official figure of 30.8% (Smith *et al.*, 2021:226).

Karanja *et al.* (2020:333) indicate that Non-government humanitarian aid organisations (NGOs), wholesalers and international donors, play a similar role in reaching those households and individuals not reached by the state. Despite these laudable programmes, Karanja *et al.* (2020:333) point that 20% of the population and 18% of households remained

chronically food insecure at the start of the COVID-19 lockdown. Rabbi *et al.* (2021:30) show that the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent lockdown measures illustrate increased intensities of household-level hunger and affected household food nutrition as incomes dropped and food choices were reduced. Alon *et al.* (2022:83) point that the initial lockdown in March to June 2020 resulted in the loss of 2.24 million jobs, and by the second quarter of 2021, total employment was still 1.44 million lower than at the onset of the lockdown.

A study by Pierce *et al.* (2020:883) show that Pre-pandemic, a 69% of white adults were employed as compared with 40% of black adults. By mid-2021, Pierce *et al.* (2020:883) add that these figures had fallen to 67% and 36%, respectively. Altman (2022:2) indicates that women in the informal sector were particularly hard hit, with an employment drop of 16% by mid-2021 as compared with a fall of 3% for men. Smith *et al.* (2021:65) point that low-paid workers earning less than R3000 per month were eight times as likely as top earners earning more than R24 000 per month to have lost their jobs in the initial lockdown of March/April 2020. Smith *et al.* (2021:65) add that black African workers had a 43% probability of losing their job, compared with 17% for white workers.

The pandemic hit youth employment disproportionately, with employment of workers under 35 falling by 14%; they accounted for two thirds of all formal-sector job losses between the first quarter of 2020 and the second quarter of 2021, despite having accounted for only one third of total formal employment pre-COVID. Thomas and Benjamin (2020:715) indicate that the NDP plans have been delayed and affect the implementation of the plan because the government has to focus on the damages caused by the pandemic. National Planning Commission (2013:54) states that part of the NDP policy is to eliminate poverty and reducing inequality by 2030. National Planning Commission (2013:54) adds other key objectives of the plan are to prioritise the country and to create a conducive environment for all the people that live in the country. Ngumbela *et al.* (2020:88) point that this has not yet been achieved because the country has a 29% of the unemployment rate, the education system was affected, the health system was not strong to maintain infected patients, corruption level is too high and become worse because of the pandemic.

Morabia (2021:2235) indicates that the pandemic is not selective on whom it is attacking hence the rich and the poor have the same and equal chances of being affected and infected. Morabia (2021:2235) adds that what displays the level of inequality is the level and type of treatment provided to patients in healthcare facilities. In addition, Pascarella *et al.* (2020:192) indicates that those who have medical aids are treated in private hospitals and the service is far better than those who are treated in free public hospitals. Blundell *et al.* (2020:291) point that inequalities in all sectors have been widely exposed by the pandemic; however, most

governments have failed to bridge the gap even before the pandemic. Blundell *et al.* (2020:291) add that education sector is an example of a sector that has affected the future of many countries. Basilaia and Kvavadze (2020:203) indicate that private schools have been able to improvise for their learners while government schools were closed, and no alternative was provided. Moreover, Basilaia and Kvavadze (2020:203) show that most private schools were able to conduct their lessons online and the syllabus continued despite the pandemic.

3.17 CONCLUSION

The preceding chapter provided COVID-19 and the implications on the National Development Plan, 2030. This chapter focused on the research provided by various scholars on the impact of COVID-19 on the implantation of NDP 2030. The chapter also provided, the theoretical framework supporting the implementation of the NDP 2030. Legislative framework regarding the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP was provided on this chapter. The impact of COVID-19 on the NDP was derived from the completed journals.

The chapter also provides the impact of COVID-19 on the objectives of the NDP 2030. The study shows that businesses are experiencing more pressure from the shutdown because there were no economic activities during the lockdown for them and the level of unemployment rose to 44.4% since the beginning of pandemic. This chapter further discussed economic recovery plan for South Africa and recommendations to achieve a successful NDP by 2030.

This chapter provided the impact of COVID-19 in other countries. COVID-19 pandemic is expected to affect economic growth severely in Less Developing Countries (LDCs), mainly because of their vulnerabilities to external factors, such as a drop in external demand, lower commodity prices and a sharp decline in tourism activities. Lessons for the future to control unforeseen aspects such as COVID-19 pandemic were also discussed in this chapter. The researcher focused mostly on providing the strategies to regain the pace of the implementation of the NDP 2030. Empirical evidence of other scholars on the impact of COVID-19 on the NDP 2030 is also provided in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this chapter was to provide information on research methodology used in the study on the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. Research is a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon about which the study is interested or concerned (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:2).

This section presents the research design and methodology that the researcher followed when conducting research. This section also presents the study area, population of the study, sampling method and sampling size, data collection methods, data analysis and ethical considerations.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Littlejohn and Foss (2010:78) define a research paradigm as a simple belief system that guides the way things are done, or more formally establishes a set of practices. Antwi and Hamza (2015:217) define a research paradigm as an all-encompassing system of interrelated

practice and thinking that defines the nature of enquiry along dimensions. The research paradigms consist of positivism, post positivism, critical theory and constructivism. To this study, the researcher chose the pragmatism research paradigm.

Denzin (2012:103) defines pragmatism as a deconstructive paradigm that advocates the use of mixed methods in research, sidesteps the contentious issues of truth and reality, and focuses instead on what works as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation. Biesta (2010:87) defines pragmatism as an outcome-oriented and interested in determining the meaning of things or focusing on the product of the research. Pragmatism has been chosen in this study because it offers several ways to bridge dichotomies that exist in mixed methods approaches to social science. Pragmatism is also chosen because it breaks down the hierarchies between positivist and constructivist ways of knowing in order to look at what is meaningful from both.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

MacMillan and Schumacher (2010:166) define research design as a plan for selecting subjects, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer the research question. Durrheim (2010:29) defines a research design as a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research strategy. The present study used the descriptive research design, exploratory research design and contextual research design.

According to Burns and Grove (2013:201), descriptive research design is research designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens. The descriptive research design is also defined by Polit and Hungler (2013:72) as research studies that have the accurate portrayal of the characteristics of persons, situations or groups as their main objective. Descriptive research design was used in this study because it is pre-cursor to future research as it can be helpful in identifying variables that can be tested. A descriptive research design was also used to collect accurate data and provide a clear picture of the phenomenon under the study.

The second research design is explorative research design. According to Polit (2013:19), explorative research design is the design that is undertaken when a new area is being investigated or when little is known about an area of interest. Explorative research design is

also defined by Burns and Grove (2010:313) as research conducted to gain new insights, discover new ideas and increase knowledge of a phenomenon. Exploratory research design is used in this study to assist in finding potential causes to the signs or symptoms conveyed by decision makers. Exploratory research design is also used because it uses secondary sources, such as, published literature.

The last research design that was followed in this study is contextual research design. Burns and Grove (2010:32) define contextual research design as the design that focuses on the specific events in naturalistic settings. Streubert and Carpenter (2011:363) define contextual research design as research done in a natural setting and refer to an enquiry done in a setting free from manipulation. Contextual research design is used in this study to consider the respondent's ethnic background, physical and cultural values as well as the occurrence of the event in a place where nature takes its course without interruption. Contextual research design is also used to describe and understand events within the concrete, natural context in which they occur.

4.4 RESEARCH METHOD

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:12), research methodology is defined as the researcher's general approach in carrying out the research project, while on the other hand, Burns and Grove (2010:581) define research methodology as the methodology that includes the design, setting, sample, methodological limitations and the data-collection and analysis techniques in a study. The researcher used mixed method in the research.

Creswell and Plano (2011:23) define mixed method as collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Mixed method is also defined by Cameron (2011:98) as the method that includes a qualitative and quantitative dimension in which difficulties arise when the researcher attempts to articulate how the two elements relate to one another. Mixed method is used because its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. The mixed method is also used to help in answering the research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative methods alone. The researcher used both the quantitative and qualitative method. The quantitative method assists to assess the relationship between COVID-19 and National Development Plan 2030, while on the other side, qualitative method assists to describe COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality.

Bryman (2012:35) defines quantitative research as a research strategy that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data, while, Edmonds and Kennedy (2010:4) define quantitative research as a type of educational research in which the researcher decides what to study, asks specific, narrow questions, collects quantifiable data from participants, analyses these numbers using statistics, and conducts the inquiry in an unbiased objective manner. Quantitative research is used in this study because the findings are likely to be generalised to the whole population or a sub-population as it involves the larger sample which is randomly selected. The quantitative method is also used to investigate the answers to the questions starting with 'how many', 'how much', and 'to what extent'.

Burns and Grove (2013:19) define the qualitative method as a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and situations, to give the meaning of such experience. On the other hand, Holloway and Wheeler (2010:30) define qualitative research as a form of social enquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experience and the world in which they live. The qualitative method is used in the proposed study to explore the behaviour, perspectives, experiences and feelings of people and emphasise the understanding of these elements. The qualitative method is also used because it is essential in the sense that it emphasises the participation of stakeholders, mutual learning and sharing of experiences.

4.5 STUDY AREA

A study area is geographical area for which data is analysed in a report and/or map (Du Plessis & Van Niekerk, 2014:12). Nilsson (2011:54) defines study area as previously mapped Palaeozoic sedimentary basins in the Baltic Sea Area. This study was conducted at the Vhembe District Municipality. The Vhembe District Municipality is the District Municipality which comprises four local municipalities, namely, Thulamela Local Municipality, Collins Chabane Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality and Makhado Local Municipality. The Vhembe District Municipality is situated 70 km east of Makhado and 180 km northeast of Polokwane, the capital city of Limpopo Province. It is the gateway to the Kruger National Park, which is the second largest national park in the world.

Figure 4.1 Vhembe District Municipality Map and surrounding areas.



(Source: Map data 2017 AfriGIS (Pty) Ltd)

4.6 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

A population is defined by De Vos (2014:193) as the term that sets boundaries on the study units, while on the other hand; Kumar (2011:13) defines population of the study as the aggregation of elements from which the sample is selected. Study population was drawn from the Vhembe District Municipality. The population of Vhembe District Municipality is +/- 1,295 million people. According to the Vhembe District Municipality IDP 2021/22 Review, there are +/- 382 357 households falling under Vhembe District Municipality and +/- 202 000 employees.

4.7 SAMPLING

Sampling refers to the selection of a subset of persons or things from a larger population, also known as a sampling frame with the intention of representing the population (Neuman, 2011:246). Kessio and Boit (2012:317) on the other hand define sampling as a process of selecting samples from a group or population to become the foundation for estimating and predicting the outcome of the population as well as to detect the unknown piece of information. The sampled group of the study was the Executive Mayor, Municipal Manager; Integrated Development Plan (IDP) officials; Local Economic Development (LED) officials; Community

Development Worker (CDW); Traditional leaders; members of South African National Civic Organisation (SANCO); Ward Councillors; and Selected Community Members.

4.7.1 Sampling method

The researcher used non-probability sampling method. Non-probability sampling method according to Etikan and Alkassim (2016:4) is defined as a sampling that represent a group of sampling techniques that help researchers to select units from a population that they are interested in studying. Ritchie and Elam (2013:111) define non-probability sampling method as a sampling technique where the odds of any member being selected for a sample cannot be calculated. The researcher used purposive sampling method.

Babbie (2010:179) defines purposive sampling as the process in which participants are selected based on the researcher's judgement about which ones will be most appropriate of the broader population. Johnson and Clark (2010:109) define purposive sampling as a strategy in which settings person or events are selected deliberately to provide important information that cannot be obtained from other choices. Purposive sampling is used in this study to allow the researcher to choose participants arbitrarily for their unique characteristics or experience and attitudes or perceptions. Purposive sampling is also used to select sample members to confirm criterion.

4.7.2 Sampling size

The sampling size of the study is 200 respondents, which were categorized as follows: 01 Executive Mayor; 01 Municipal Manager; 01 Manager of Integrated Development Plan, 10 IDP officials; 01 Managers of Local Economic Development, 10 LED officials; 01 Manager of Communication; 20 Community Development Workers (CDW); 20 Traditional leaders; 20 Ward councillors; 20 Members of SANCO; and 95 selected community members.

4.8 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes (Creswell, 2017:201). Sekaran and Bougie (2016:156) also define data collection as a process of collecting information from all the relevant sources to find answers to the research problem, test the hypothesis and evaluate the outcomes. The researcher used questionnaire and interview to collect data.

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions (or other types of prompts) for gathering information from respondents (Zohrabi, 2013:254). A questionnaire is

also defined by Fink (2012:372) as a structured form, either written or printed, that consists of a formalised set of questions designed to collect information on some subject or subjects from one or more respondents. The researcher used structured questionnaires because it enables the researcher to contact large number of people quickly, easily and efficiently using postal questionnaires. The researcher made appointment before collecting data. Two Hundred (200) respondents were given the questionnaires to respond to reach all the participants which are specified in this study. The questionnaire consisted of Five (5) Likert scale which includes strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree and strongly disagree.

For qualitative purpose, interviews were conducted. Interview is defined by Fink (2012:374) as the process that involves an interviewer, who coordinates the process of the conversation and asks questions, and an interviewee, who responds to those questions. Rubin (2011:65) defines interviews as a systematic way of talking and listening to people and as another way to collect data from individuals through conversations. The researcher used open-ended questions to interview the participants because it allows the respondents to include more information, including feelings, attitudes and understanding of the subject. Ten (10) participants who are: Executive mayor, Municipal Manager, Manager of communication, manager of IDP, manager of LED, 2 ward councillor, SANCO member, and 2 Traditional leaders were interviewed face-to-face based on their special characteristics and knowledge about the implementation of the NDP, and were asked open-ended questions. The researcher made appointments to interview participants.

4.9 DATA ANALYSIS

Schurink (2011:397) defines data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. Kantardzic (2011:15) defines data analysis as the process of systematically applying statistical and/or logical techniques to describe and illustrate, condense and recap, and evaluate data. The researcher used inferential statistical analysis and thematic analysis to analyse data.

Inferential statistical analysis is defined by Stevens (2012:145) as a measure to determine whether any differences observed between groups being studied are real or they are simply due to chance. Inferential statistical analysis is defined by Urdan (2011:264) as a measure of whether the research findings are meaningful. The data collected through questionnaires were analysed through International Business Machinery (IBM): Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 28.0 and the information was presented in the form of tables, followed by frequencies and percentages using inferential statistics. After the presentation of the data, the researcher provided the synthesis of the data through tables, figures and statistics.

Thematic analysis is defined by Turunen and Bondas (2013:398) as a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within the data. Schurink (2011:400) defines thematic analysis as a foundational method for qualitative analysis, as it provides core skills for conducting many other forms of qualitative analysis. Information collected through interviews was presented in a narrative form.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Daly and Farley (2011:87) define ethical considerations as an accumulation of values and principles that address questions of what is good or bad in human affairs. Fink (2014:87) defines ethical consideration as the norms or standards for conduct that distinguish between right and wrong. Ethical issues were strictly adhered to when conducting this study. The ethical issues that were respected are as follow:

4.10.1 Permission to conduct the study

The researcher was given the letter by the University of Venda to request permission to conduct a study at the Vhembe District Municipality. The researcher submitted the letter from the University of Venda to conduct the study at the Vhembe District Municipality. The researcher attached the letter of request for permission to collect information for study from the University of Venda as an annexure. When the researcher gets permission to conduct the study at the Vhembe District Municipality, the researcher attached the letter of permission to conduct the study as an annexure.

4.10.2 Informed consent

Flick (2014:96) defines informed consent as a voluntary agreement to participate in research. Under informed consent, research participants have the right to know the purpose of the study, the right to be informed about the nature of the research and the right to withdraw their participation at any time if they wish.

4.10.3 Voluntary Participation

Hart (2013:187) defines voluntary participation as a human research subject's exercise of free will in deciding whether to participate in a research activity. The researcher informed the participants that participation is entirely voluntary and that participants have the right to withdraw at any time.

4.10.4 Confidentiality and Anonymity

Amdur and Bankert (2010:278) define confidentiality as the treatment of information that an individual has disclosed in a relationship of trust and with the expectation that it will not be revealed to others without permission in ways that are inconsistent with the understanding of the original disclosure. The researcher avoided attribution of comments, in report or presentation, to identify participants, both the direct attribution (if specific comments are linked to a name or a specific role) and indirect attribution (by reference to a collection of characteristics that might identify an individual or a small group) which must be avoided.

Anonymity is defined as ethical requirement in which respondents are completely unknown to anyone associated with the survey (Flick, 2014:76). The researcher ensured that the names of research participants were kept strictly confidential so that they were not known to anyone except the researcher. The researcher informed the participants that their names in this study will not be known by anyone except the researcher and they must not be afraid when providing information.

4.10.5 No Harm to participants

Bankert (2010:312) defines No harm as a requirement that the researchers may not put participants in a situation where they might be at risk of harm because of their participation. The researcher ensured that participants are not in a situation where they might be at risk of harm because of their participation.

4.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter described the research design and the sub-divisions which are descriptive research design, explorative research design and contextual research design. The chapter also provides the research methodologies wherein the researcher has chosen mixed method for collecting and analysing data. The researcher also provided the reasons for using mixed method of collecting and analysing data.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four discussed the research design and methodology which also included data collection methods. The focus of this chapter is to present the findings and analyse the research data obtained. The views and opinions that are objective and factual from participants and respondents in this study that includes municipal officials, IDP officials, LED officials, members of SANCO, Traditional leaders, Manager of communication, and community members selected as a sample of the study are presented. The analysis is based on the data collected through quantitative and qualitative methods. Through these two mentioned methods, the researcher used of questionnaires and interviews to collect data. Responses to questionnaire items are presented in a graphical tabular form and followed by a brief explanation of the findings. On the other hand, responses to interview schedules are presented in a narrative form and are followed by a brief interpretation of findings.

5.2 PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA COLLECTED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRES

This section of the study present, interprets and analyses data collected through questionnaires and consist of two sub-sections namely, section A and B. In the first sub-section A, the researcher presents the biographical details of the respondents. In the second sub-section B, the researcher presents data which was developed from the questionnaire items distributed to and collected from the respondents by the researcher. A sample size of

200 respondents was targeted and a 100% response was attained. Respondents took longer than expected due to the application of lockdown regulations, however; the researcher had to be patient until getting completed questionnaires. The researcher used graphical tabular format, frequencies and percentages to present the data that was collected through questionnaire. Each table is followed by a brief discussion of the findings.

5.2.1 Section A: Biographical details of the respondents

Section A comprises questions that seek to establish the biographical information of respondents. This information is critical to determine the kind of respondents in terms of their gender, age, education qualifications, and status of employment. The information or data in this sub-section is presented in a graphical tabular form and followed by a brief explanation of the findings.

Table 5.1 Gender of the respondents

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Male	116	58%
2	Female	84	42%
	Total	200	100%

The table above indicates the respondent's biographical data in terms of gender. From the 200 respondents who took part in this study, 116 (58%) were males while 84 (42%) were females. This shows that most of the respondents were male with female respondents in minority. It can be concluded that most of the respondents in this study were males. This shows that affirmative action is not followed in the jurisdiction of Vhembe District Municipality to promote employment opportunity to the black women that were previously disadvantaged during apartheid government and neglected job opportunities.

Table 5.2 Age of the respondents

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Less than 21 years	9	4.5%
2	22 to 30 years	46	23%
3	31 to 40 years	59	29.5%
4	41 to 50 years	57	28.5%
5	51 years and older	29	14.5%

	Total	200	100%
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Table 5.2 presents the age of the respondents wherein the data shows that, majority at 59 (29.5%) were aged 31 to 40 years. As shown in the above table that 46 (23%) were aged 22-30, 57 (28.5%) were aged 41 to 50 years and 29 (14.5%) were aged 51 years and older. Nine (4.5%) respondents were less than 21 years. The conclusion can be made in this study that participation of the middle aged and old respondents was higher compared to youth participation. The reason could be that young people are more eager to participate and understand the purpose of the study. Participation of the youth in the NDP should be promoted so that they can gain interest on the goals of the plan and provides and suggest the mechanisms to assist the Municipality to achieve the objectives of the NDP by 2030.

Table 5.3 Category of the respondents

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Executive Mayor	01	0.5%
2	Municipal Manager	01	0.5%
3	Integrated Development Plan officials	11	5.5%
4	Local Economic Development officials	11	5.5%
5	Communication Manager	01	0.5%
6	Community Development Workers	20	10%
7	Traditional Leaders	20	10%
8	Ward councillor	20	10%
9	Members of SANCO	20	10%
10	Selected community members	95	47.5%
	Total	200	100%

Table 5.3 indicates the category of the respondents who took part in this study, by providing information through the questionnaire items. From the 200 respondents, majority at 95 (55%) were community members. This was because the aim of the National Development Plan 2030 is to improve the livelihood of the citizens of South Africa. The data also indicates that within the targeted number of the respondents, 01 (0.5%) was Executive Mayor, 01 (0.5) was a

Municipal Manager, 11 (5.5%) were the Integrated Development Plan officials, 11 (5.5%) were Local Economic Development Plan officials, 01 (0.5%) was a Manager of Communication, 20 (10%) were Community Development Workers, 20 (10%) of the respondents were the Traditional Leaders, 20 (10%) were the Ward councillors, and lastly 20 (10%) were members of SANCO. Findings from these participants showed that COVID-19 had major setbacks to the implementation of the NDP due to the affected budget and death of the officials responsible for the implementation of the plan.

Table 5.4 Educational qualifications of the respondents

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Grade 12 and below	65	32.5%
2	Bachelor's degree/National diploma	101	50.5%
3	Honours degree	24	12%
4	Master's degree	10	5%
5	Doctoral degree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

The insight and quality of data collected relies on the merits of qualifications of the respondents whereby the majority at 101 (50.5%) are holders of the Bachelor's degree or National diploma. Sixty-five (32.5%) are holders of Grade 12 and none had no qualification which is below grade 12. Twenty-four (12%) had Honours degrees whereas 10 (5%) held a Master's degree and none had a PhD degree. Therefore, a conclusion can be made that most of the Vhembe District Municipality officials; community members; traditional leaders; and members of SANCO have grade 12 and a bachelor's degree or diploma as the highest level of education. This contradicts the goals of the NDP on higher education which aims to increase university science and mathematics entrants to 450 000, increase graduation rates to more than twenty-five per cent (25%) by 2030, increase participation rates to more than thirty per cent (30%), and produce more than one-hundred (100) doctoral graduates per million per year by 2030,

which was discussed on Chapter 2 of the literature review on improving quality education, training and innovation.

Table 5.5 Employment status

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Unemployed	54	27%
2	Employed	97	48.5%
3	Self-employed	49	24.5%
	Total	200	100%

Table 5.5 indicates that majority of the respondents at 97 (48.5) are employed. Fifty-four (27%) are unemployed and 49 (24.5%) are self-employed. The conclusion can be drawn that although majority of the respondents are employed. Despite the majority of people who are employed, it was stressed in the problem statement of this study that the rate of unemployment rose to 44.4% due to the outbreak of COVID-19 which led to some businesses being closed. This indicates that the aim of the NDP which charts a course towards a decent life for all South Africans by 2030, with full employment, greater equality, and the elimination of poverty in the discussion in chapter 2 of the literature review under economy that will create more jobs, is not yet achieved.

5.2.2 Section B: The state of COVID-19 in South Africa

The researcher in this second sub-section presents the data on COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. The information is also presented in graphical tabular format with frequencies and percentages followed by a synthesis of the findings. This sub-section is divided into four themes which arose from the specific objectives of the study, namely; the state of COVID-19 in South Africa, the implication of COVID-19 in the National Development Plan 2030, COVID-19 related challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality, and the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

5.2.2.1 The State of COVID-19 in South Africa

In this theme, the researcher presents the data regarding the state of COVID-19 in South Africa. The data in this theme is presented in tabular format with frequencies and percentage followed by a brief synthesis.

Table 5.6: COVID-19 is having a major impact on South Africa's economy

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Strongly agree	135	67.5%
2	Agree	62	31%
3	Not sure	02	1%
4	Disagree	0	0%
5	Strongly disagree	01	0.5%
	Total	200	100%

With regard to the statement that COVID-19 is having a major impact on South African economy, 135 which constitute 67.5% strongly agreed with the statement, while 62 which

constitute 31% agreed. Two of the respondents which constitute 1% were not sure with statement, while none disagreed and only 01 which constitutes 0.5% strongly disagreed. Most of the respondents strongly agreed that COVID-19 is having a major impact on South African economy. It can be concluded that COVID-19 is having negative effects on the economy of South Africa due to the COVID-19 pandemic regulations such as lockdown to restrict large number of people in the working environment. This suggests that businesses were not making profit as employees were working from home due to rotational policy which limited the number of workers in the work place. The researcher also suggests that lack of skills of working from home and attendance of meetings through Microsoft teams as strategies to communicate with businesses stakeholder, affected the productivity of many businesses. COVID-19 restrictions affected the operation of small business as they were unable to operate and generate income and were closed down.

Table 5.7: Workers with low education levels are much more affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19

The above statement was adapted to overview employees that were mostly affected by the outbreak of COVID-19 and its regulations.

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Strongly agree	81	40.5%
2	Agree	103	51.5%
3	Not sure	08	4%
4	Disagree	06	3%
5	Strongly disagree	02	1%
	Total	200	100%

A total of 103 which constitute 51.5% agreed that workers with low education levels are much more affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19, while 81 which constitute 40.5 % strongly agreed with the statement. Eight which constitute 4% of the respondents were not sure, while 06 which constitute 3% disagreed and 02 which constitute 1% strongly disagreed with the statement. The figures indicate that majority of the respondents

agreed that workers with low education levels are much more affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19. This concludes that workers with low educational level are more vulnerable to the COVID-19 pandemic as they lost their jobs due to employment reduction and retrenchment. This suggests that the support groups in the workplace were no longer important and lost their jobs.

Table 5.8: Most permanent workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	100	50%
2	Agree	86	43%
3	Not sure	07	3.5%
4	Disagree	07	3.5%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

According to the results from the respondents in table 5.8 above, 100 respondents which constitute 50% strongly agreed that most permanent workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19, while on the other hand, 86 which constitute 43% agreed with the statement. Seven which constitute 3.5% of the respondents were not sure with the statement. Another 7 which constitute 3.5% of the respondents disagree and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. Looking from the above information,

conclusions can be drawn that majority of the respondents at 100 which constitute 50% agreed that most contract workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19 while on the other hand, 86% agreed with the statement. This suggests that Vhembe District Municipality reduced potential workers as a results of coping mechanism as the Municipality was unable to pay their workers due to lack of municipal revenues as the results of COVID-19 regulations.

Table 5.9 Inequalities within Vhembe District Municipality are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID 19, as poor and vulnerable are unable to protect them-selves.

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	70	35%
2	Agree	87	43.5%
3	Not sure	10	5%
4	Disagree	29	14.5%
5	Strongly disagree	04	2%
	Total	200	100%

The data presented in table 5.9 above, indicates that majority of the respondents at 87 which constitute 43.5% agreed that inequalities within Vhembe District Municipality are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID 19, as poor and vulnerable are unable to protect themselves, followed by 70 of the respondents which constitute 35% strongly agreed with the statement. Ten respondents which constitute 5% were not sure with the statement, while 29 which constitute 14.5% disagreed and 04 which constitute 2% strongly disagreed with the statement. Conclusion can be drawn based on the above data that majority of the respondents agreed that inequalities of access to service delivery within Vhembe District Municipality are

being exposed and exacerbated by COVID 19, as many communities are unable to protect themselves and relies on the government for sustainability. This was viewed by Laborde, Martin and Vos (2021:132) on the literature review of this study, who indicated that the COVID-19 crisis poses an additional threat to the food security of millions of South Africans who were already food insecure before the outbreak of COVID-19. This suggests that there has been inequality which mostly affects poor people in Vhembe District Municipality.

Table 5.10 Vhembe District Municipality is one of the municipalities with the highest number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strong agree	22	11%
2	Agree	16	8%
3	Not sure	08	4%
4	Disagree	51	25.5%
5	Strongly disagree	103	51.5%
	Total	200	100%

The statistics in the table 5.10 above indicates that the majority of the respondents at 103 which constitutes 51.5% strongly disagree that Vhembe District Municipality is one of the municipalities with the highest number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province, while on the other hand 51 which constitute 25.5% disagreed with the statement. Eight which constitute 4% of the respondents were not sure about the statement, while on the other hand 22 which constitute 11% strongly agreed and 16 which constitute 8% agreed with the statement. The statistics above shows that the majority at 154 which constitute 77% disagreed that Vhembe District Municipality is one of the municipalities with the highest number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province. This indicates that infections in the Vhembe District Municipality were

not high compared to other municipalities in Limpopo Province. The study suggests that the reasons for low infections might be because of many rural areas with limited number of residents in the Vhembe district Municipality.

Table 5.11 Capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Strongly agree	87	43.5%
2	Agree	101	50.5%
3	Not sure	05	2.5%
4	Disagree	07	3.5%
5	Strongly degree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

A total of 101 respondents which constitute 50.5% agreed that capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer, while 87 which constitute 43.5% strongly agreed with the statement. Five which constitute 2.5% were not sure about the statement, while on the other hand 07 which constitute 3.5% disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed. From the information above, conclusion can be drawn that majority of the respondents agreed that capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer. This suggests that local economy is mostly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic and it will take time for it to recover in the post COVID-19 pandemic. The study suggests that

the Municipality should focus on funding affected businesses to continue to operate and build economy through employment creation and reduce inflation rate.

5.2.2.2 The implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030

In this theme, the researcher presents the data regarding the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030. The data in this theme is presented in a graphical tabular format with frequencies and percentages followed by a brief synthesis.

Table 5.12 Municipal budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	106	53%
2	Agree	85	42.5%
3	Not sure	05	2.5%
4	Disagree	04	2%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

According to the results from the respondents on table 5.12 above, majority at 106 which constitute 53% strongly agreed that Municipal financial budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, while 85 which constitute 42.5% agreed with the statement. Five of the respondents which constitute 2.5% were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, 04 which constitute 2% disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with

the statement. Based on the above information, it can be concluded that majority of the respondents agreed that Municipal budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. This suggests that financial budget of the municipality was used to find solutions to overcome COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher also suggests that budget for the implementation of the NDP was affected by the COVID-19 as the Municipality had to finance software contractors to enable its employees to work from home and also provide data and cell phone allowances for the employees.

Table 5.13 The COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	81	40.5%
2	Agreed	110	55%
3	Not sure	05	2.5%
4	Disagree	04	2%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

Table 5.13 above indicates that majority of the respondents at 110 which constitute 55% agreed that COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, causing economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations, while 81 which constitute 40.5% strongly agreed with the statement. Five of the respondents which constitute 2.5% were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, 04 which constitute 2% disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. One can make a conclusion that majority of the respondents agreed that COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations. This contradict the statement of Du Toit and Neves (2014:833) which was discussed on the

literature review of this study, that the NDP proposes a development path that enables broader access to livelihood opportunities, either through employment or self-employment, on the back of a growing and more inclusive economy. This suggests that COVID-19 affected the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 due to the lockdown regulations which led to the closure of business and economic activities.

Table 5.14 Municipal revenue influence the implementation of the NDP

	Response	Frequencies	Percentage
1	Strongly agree	85	42.5%
2	Agree	85	42.5%
3	Not sure	10	5%
4	Disagree	20	10%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100

While 85 of the respondents which constitute 42.5% strongly agreed, while another 85 which constitute 42.5% agreed that municipal revenues influence on the implementation of NDP. Ten which constitute 5% of the respondents were not sure with the statement while, 20 which constitute 10% disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. The above data shows that majority of the respondents agreed that municipal revenues influence the implementation of the NDP. This suggests that revenues such as traffic fines and library fines were not active during lockdown regulation as the movement from one area to another was prohibited.

Table 5.15 COVID-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	106	53%
2	Agree	66	33%
3	Not sure	05	2.5%
4	Disagree	22	11%
5	Strongly disagree	01	0.5%
	Total	200	100%

The data presented in table 5.15 indicates that majority at 106 which constitute 53% strongly agreed that COVID-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated while on the other hand, 66 which constitute 33% agreed with the statement. Five which constitute 2.5% of the respondents were not sure with the statement while, 22 which constitute 11% disagree and only 01 which constitutes 0.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. The above data indicates that majority of the respondents at 172 which constitute 86% agreed that COVID-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated. This suggests that there were already challenges that were affecting the implementation of the NDP even before COVID-19 pandemic. The study maintains the statement which was indicated by the National Planning Commission (2013:32) on literature review on challenges of the NDP, that in 2018 since the NDP was adopted, progress towards achieving the NDP's main goals has been slow compared to what was expected. The

researcher concludes that there is incompetence within the officials who are given responsibility to achieve the goals of the NDP.

Table 5.16 The NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	95	47.5%
2	Agree	67	33.5%
3	Not sure	10	5%
4	Disagree	21	10.5%
5	Strongly disagree	07	3.5%
	Total	200	100%

The majority at 95 which constitute 47.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic while on the other hand, 67 which constitute 33.5% agreed with the statement. Ten which constitute 5% of the respondents were not sure with the statement while, 21 which constitute 10.5% disagreed and 07 which constitute 3.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. It can be concluded based on the above information that majority of the respondents agreed that the NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic. This suggests that the goals of NDP were not well implemented even before the outbreak of COVID-19. The researcher suggests that there were constraints that affected the implementation of the NDP before the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic. Kassegn and Endris (2021:188) in the literature review of this study, state that COVID-19 worsens the socio-economic dimensions that relate to hunger and malnutrition among the people due to the economic contraction, closure of businesses, and job losses which is the target of the NDP to achieve full employment by 2030.

Table 5.17 There has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	115	57.5%
2	Agree	43	21.5%
3	Not sure	05	2.5%
4	Disagree	26	13%
5	Strongly disagree	11	5.5%
	Total	200	100%

Table 5.17 indicates that majority of the respondents at 115 which constitute 57.5% strongly agreed that there has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before COVID-19 pandemic while, 43 which constitute 21.5% agreed with the statement. Five of the respondents which constitute 2.5% were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, 26 which constitute 13% disagreed and 11 which constitute 5.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. A conclusion can be drawn that majority of the respondents agreed that there has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. This suggests that there are inequalities between the communities of the Municipality. This contradict a statement which was discussed by Hedblom, Andersson and Borgström (2017:523) on the literature review of this study, indicating that the NDP 2030 propose to create vibrant urban settlements and revive rural areas by establishing new norms and a national spatial framework; reforming the planning system to resolve fragmented responsibility for planning in national government, poorly coordinated intergovernmental planning,

disconnects across municipal boundaries and the limitations of integrated development plans; and enabling citizens to participate in spatial visioning and planning processes.

5.2.2.3 COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality

In this theme, the researcher presents the data regarding the COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality. The data in this theme is presented in a graphical tabular format with frequencies and percentages followed by a brief synthesis.

Table 5.18 There is no proper implementation of the NDP due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	96	48%
2	Agree	73	36.5%
3	Not sure	04	2%
4	Disagree	26	13%
5	Strongly disagree	01	0.5%
	Total	200	100%

In response to the statement that there is no proper implementation of the NDP due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality in the table 5.20 above, majority of the respondents at 96 which constitute 48% strongly agreed while, 73 which constitute 36.5% agreed with the statement. Four of the respondents which constitute 2% were not sure with the statement. Twenty-six of the respondents which constitute 13% disagreed and only 01 which constitutes 0.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. Therefore, it can be concluded that majority of the respondents agreed that there is no proper implementation of the NDP due

to the lockdown regulations in the Vhembe District Municipality. This suggests that goals of the NDP such to create employment was not implemented during the effect of COVID-19 as lockdown regulations restricted the operation of businesses which resulted in the increase of unemployment rate to 44.4%. This is supported by the statement raised by the former South Africa's Statistician-General Dr Pali Lehohla (2019) which was discussed on the problem statement of this study, that since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, the NDP implementation has been slowed down and South Africa has faced a spike in unemployment rise to 44.4%, deep-set corruption, and an overwhelmed educational and health system that has struggled to dust-off apartheid legacy problems.

Table 5.19 Many people lost their jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed down in the jurisdiction of the Municipality

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	133	66.5%
2	Agree	59	29.5%
3	Not sure	02	1%
4	Disagree	06	3%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

Regarding table 5.19 above, majority of the respondents at 133 which constitute 66.5% strongly agreed that many people lost their jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed down in the jurisdiction of the Municipality while on other hand, 59 which constitute 29.5% agreed with the statement. Six of the respondents which constitute 3% disagreed and none strongly disagreed with the statement. Two respondents which constitute 1% were not sure with the statement. Based on the information above, conclusion can be drawn that majority of the respondents at 192 which constitute 96% agreed that many people lost their jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed in the jurisdiction of the Municipality. This suggests that many people lost their jobs as many businesses were closed due to the lockdown regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. It was revealed in the literature of this study by Bulled and Singer (2020:1231) that South Africa entered the pandemic after several years of low growth. Bulled and Singer (2020:1231) adds that in 2019, the economy grew by 0.2% (in 2018 it was 0.8%) partially caused by the resurgence of load shedding associated with operational and

financial difficulties at the energy utility Eskom. This suggests that the economic growth is low in South Africa.

Table 5.20 Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources are used to find solutions in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strong agree	95	47.5%
2	Agree	99	49.5%
3	Not sure	06	3%
4	Disagree	0	0%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

In terms of data presented in table 5.20, majority of the respondents at 99 which constitute 49.5% agreed that since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources are used to find solutions in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic while, 95 which constitute 47.5% strongly agreed with the statement. None of the respondents disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. Six which constitute 3% of the respondents were not sure with the statement. From the information above, it can be concluded that majority of the respondents agreed that since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources such as municipal budgets are used to find solutions in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic. This suggests that the budget of NDP was affected as funds were only utilised to find solutions to overcome the spread of COVID-19 pandemic and neglect the implementation of the NDP. The

researcher concludes that the regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic such as lockdown, also affected the implementation of NDP.

Table 5.21 The Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	105	52.5%
2	Agree	83	41.5%
3	Not sure	07	3.5%
4	Disagree	05	2.5%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

In response to the statement above that the Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic, majority of the respondents at 105 which constitute 52.5% strongly agreed while, 83 which constitute 41.5% agreed with the statement. Seven which constitute 3.5% of the respondents were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, 05 which constitute 2.5% disagreed and none strongly disagreed with the statement. Most of the respondents agreed that the Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic. This suggests that there is lack of funds in the municipality to finance the implementation of NDP as the funds were only utilised to find solutions to fight against the pandemic and the new system of working from home.

Table 5.22 Innovation is essential for effective response to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income areas within the Municipality

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	86	43%
2	Agree	95	47.5%
3	Not sure	09	4.5%
4	Disagree	10	5%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

Data collected on table 5.22 indicates that majority of the respondents at 95 which constitute 47.5% agreed that innovation is essential for effective response to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income areas within the Municipality while, 86 which constitute 43% strongly agreed with the statement. Nine of the respondents which constitute 4.5% were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, 10 which constitute 5% disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. It can be concluded that majority of the respondents agreed that innovation is essential for effective response to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income areas within the Municipality. This was advice by Haywood et al. (2019:560) in the literaturere view of this study, that a nation that does not recognise the need for innovation and does not put measures in place for this enhancement, will live a life of perpetual and never play a significant role in contributing something worthy of recognition to the global world. The study suggests that low and middle-income areas were mostly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic as they were vulnerable to the pandemic and mostly depend on government to sustain themselves.

5.2.2.4 Strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030

In this theme, the researcher presents the data regarding the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. The data in this theme is presented in graphic table with frequencies and percentages followed by a brief synthesis.

Table 5.23 The Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	120	60%
2	Agree	74	37%
3	Not sure	02	1%
4	Disagree	02	1%
5	Strongly disagree	02	1%
	Total	200	100%

According to the data in table 5.23 above, majority at 120 which constitute 60% of the respondents strongly agreed that the municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic while on the other hand, 74 which constitute 37% agreed with the statement. Two which constitute 1% of the respondents were not sure and another 02 which constitute 1% disagreed and 02 which constitute 1% strongly disagreed with the statement. It can therefore be concluded that Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after

COVID-19 pandemic. This suggests that Municipality should strive to achieve the goals of the NDP 2030 in short period of time after COVID-19 pandemic.

Table 5.24 Infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	123	61.5%
2	Agree	76	38%
3	Not sure	01	0.5%
4	Disagree	0	0%
5	Strongly agree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

Table 5.24 above indicates that majority of the respondents at 123 which constitute 61.5% strongly agreed that infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic while on the other hand, 76 which constitute 38% agreed with the statement. Only 01 which constitutes 0.5% of the respondents was not sure with the statement while, none disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement. Most of the respondents agreed that infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. This was discussed in the literature review of this study by National Planning Commission (2012:135) that the NDP aims to improving and providing quality infrastructure. This suggests that the Municipality must maintain the existing infrastructure such as roads, bridges and power line and ensure that communities always have access to municipal services. The researcher also suggests that tariff policy should be adhere to, when

rendering municipal services as many people lost their jobs during COVID-19 pandemic and can no longer afford municipal services.

Table 5.25 Employment creation through public employment programs should be promoted by the Municipality

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	115	57.5%
2	Agree	79	39.5%
3	Not sure	04	2%
4	Disagree	02	1%
5	Strongly disagree	0	0%
	Total	200	100%

Data presented in table 5.25 above, indicates that majority of the respondents at 115 which constitute 57.5% strongly agreed that employment creation through public employment programs should be promoted by the Municipality while, 79 which constitute 39.5% agreed with the statement. Four which constitute 2% of the respondents were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, 02 which constitute 1% disagreed and none of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. The statistics above shows that most of the respondents agreed that employment creation through public employment programs that can create large numbers of jobs in the shorter term must be promoted by the Municipality. This suggests that Expanded Public Works Program (EPWP), Community Work Program (CWP) should be made permanent employment creation to avoid temporary employment and assist to achieve full employment by 2030.

Table 5.26 The Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	127	63.5%
2	Agree	69	34.5%
3	Not sure	03	1.5%
4	Disagree	0	0%
5	Strongly disagree	01	0.5%
	Total	200	100%

Based on table 5.26 above, majority of the respondents at 127 which constitute 63.5% strongly agreed that Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities while, 69 which constitute 34.5% agreed with the statement. Three of the respondents which constitute 1.5% were not sure with the statement while on the other hand, none of the respondents disagreed and only 01 which constitutes 0.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. It can be concluded that majority of the respondents agreed that Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities. This suggests that the goals of the NDP should not only be implemented in urban areas but also in rural areas. The researcher also suggests that Municipality should balance employment opportunities in rural and urban areas through developmental program to achieve the goals of the NDP 2030.

Table 5.27 The Vhembe District Municipality must strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP

	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1	Strongly agree	136	68%
2	Agree	60	30%
3	Not sure	0	0%
4	Disagree	03	1.5%
5	Strongly disagree	01	0.5%
	Total	200	100%

Regarding the information above, majority at 136 which constitute 68% of the respondents strongly agreed that Municipality should strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP while, 60 which constitute 30% agreed and none were not sure with the statement. Three of the respondents which constitute 1.5% disagreed and only 01 which constitutes 0.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. Therefore, conclusion can be drawn that most of the respondents agreed that Municipality must strengthen public-private partnerships within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP. This was revealed by Naidoo and Maré (2015:407) indicating that one of the key challenges of the NDP is a failure to implement policies and extended absence of partnerships with civil society and the private sector. This suggests that slow progress of the implementation of the NDP is due to the absence of contribution of the private sector.

5.2.3 SAMMATION OF THE DATA COLLECTED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRE

People-centered development theory which was adoted in this study was contradicted even before the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic as participants reveal that COVID-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated. Many people lost their

jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed down in the jurisdiction of the Municipality. Participants argue that COVID-19 has a major impact on South African economy. The researcher discovered that Vhembe District Municipality is not one of the municipalities with the high number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province. This shows that Stats SA (2022) of COVID-19 infection declares that Vhembe District Municipality was not recording many infections compared to the other municipalities within Limpopo Province. The available budget for the successful implementation of the NDP 2030 was no longer used for the goals of the plan but to find solution to fight against the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The revenues of government were not in operation during the lockdown regulation.

5.3 AN ANALYSIS OF THE DATA COLLECTED THROUGH THE INTERVIEWS

This section presents the data collected through interviews. This study was conducted to answer the research questions that arose from the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP 2030; the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030; COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits the effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality; and the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. The data is presented in narrative form, followed by a brief synthesis.

Table 5.28 Theme and sub-theme of the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030

	Themes	Sub-theme
1	What is the state of COVID-19 in South Africa?	1.1 What are the causes of the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development 2030 in the Municipality?
2	What is the implication of COVID-19 in the National Development Plan 2030?	
3	What are the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?	
4	Which strategies could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030?	

5.3.1 What is the state of COVID-19 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

The first question sought to find the state of COVID-19 in South Africa. The way that participants expressed their views is presented below:

Participant A:

With regard to the state of COVID-19 in South Africa, participant A mentions that the Municipality is affected by the pandemic which resulted with high level death to community members and municipal employees and new infection are still recorded. There are Covid-19 regulations that prohibit the movements and gathering of people to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant B:

The economy closed down which affected employment opportunities in many businesses and the government as many employees were reduced as a result of employment reduction and retrenchment. Local Economic Development programs such as service delivery were not in action due to the lockdown regulations. Municipal officials responsible for the implementation of the NDP died with their skills and knowledge which could help the implementation of the plan.

Participant C:

COVID-19 had major impact in the Municipality such as job losses which led to increased level of unemployment, retention and maladministration. The movement of people is prohibited from one place to another and the gathering of people in numbers is forbidden during lockdown regulations to control the spread of the pandemic.

Participant D:

The infections for COVID-19 is low compared to the infections which were recorded in the beginning of the pandemic. Although the infections are getting low, many municipal officials died with the skills and knowledge that could be used in the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

Participant E:

COVID-19 impacted the lives of many people during the beginning of pandemic. The current status of COVID-19 is very low and there is little number of people who are hospitalised. Municipal employees were working from home which led to absence of time to focus on the implementation of the NDP 2030. This was done to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant F:

The infections of COVID-19 pandemic have dropped as people are being vaccinated to fight against the virus. Things are getting back to normal as the regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic are suspended. New infections are low compared to the beginning of the pandemic.

Participant G:

COVID-19 had its effects in most people and employees of the Municipality however, vaccination program by the government saved lives of the many and the virus is under control with few numbers of new infections. Business activities are back to normal and all regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 are suspended.

Participant H:

COVID-19 increased unemployment rate in the jurisdiction of the Municipality through the reduction of employment and retrenchment as a coping mechanisms by the businesses. The economy collapsed during the effect of COVID-19 as economic activities such as mining tourism and industries were restricted to control the spread of the pandemic.

Participant I:

COVID-19 impacted the lives of many people in the Municipality as many people died with the skills and knowledge that can be used for successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Services delivery such as the construction of roads, water, electricity and housing is not taken into consideration as the Municipality is focusing on the solution to fight against the pandemic.

Participant J:

Although the issue of COVID-19 slowed down, there are still some reported cases which are less than the first wave. Some employees in different institution are still working from home to reduce the risk of infecting other employees, mostly old ages employees whom are vulnerable to the virus. Death caused by the COVID-19 pandemic is no longer a major issue.

Participant A, D, E, F, G and J indicate that many people died due to the COVID-19 pandemic and new infections are still recorded but its only few per day within the jurisdiction of the Municipality. Participant B, D and I reveal that most of the municipal officials that are responsible for the implementation of the NDP, died with their skills and knowledge that could be used for effective implementation of the NDP by 2030. Participant B, C and H show that COVID-19 pandemic increased unemployment rate within the jurisdiction of the Municipality due to the lockdown regulations which affected some businesses to reduce staff and other businesses to closed as they were not generating income to sustain their operations. Participant H adds that the economy of South Africa collapsed during the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic and economic activities such as mining, tourism and industries were not operating during the lockdown regulations.

Participant A and B indicate that movement of people from one area to another were restricted. Gathering of many people in a single place is also not accepted. Participant B and I stress that Local Economic Development (LED) programs such as service delivery were not in action due to the lockdown regulations. Participant E shows that Municipal officials were working from home and there was no time to focus on the implementation of the NDP 2030. Participant E adds that the reason for working from home was to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. Participant J further adds that some employees in different institutions are still working from home, and mostly old age employees. Participant F and G accede that business activities are getting back to normal and COVID-19 regulations are suspended. From the information above, it can be concluded that COVID-19 affected the lives of the communities within the Vhembe District Municipality and unemployment is the major challenge that communities are facing due to the outbreak of the pandemic. It is of the researcher view that although business activities and freedom of communities are back to normal, there are many job sickers in the community with few job opportunities as the country's economy was negatively impacted by the pandemic. It is suggested that the Municipality should focus mostly on creation of employment as there is high level of unemployment caused by the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic.

5.3.2 What is the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030?

The second question sought to find out the implication of COVID-19 on the NDP 2030, and participants revealed the following:

Participant A:

The implementation of the NDP 2030 requires a health nation for human resource and economic development. The goals of NDP 2030 were affected by the outbreak of COVID-19 as the focus of government was only on finding solutions to control the spread of the pandemic. It suffices to note that the pace of the implementation was slow before the outbreak of COVID-19. Although the pace towards achieving the goals of the NDP 2030 was slow, it was worsened by the lockdown regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant B:

COVID-19 limited the standards which were set to meet the goals of the NDP 2030. Funds which were budgeted to implement the goals of the plan were affected as the government was focusing on using available resources to fight against the spread of the pandemic. Many people lost their jobs and cannot afford municipal services. This also affected the target of NDP 2030 on creating full employment by 2030 as many people lost their jobs and become job seekers. Business which was making enough profits and increase employment opportunities were affected by the pandemic and many of them are closed down. During lockdown regulations, infrastructure developments were not taking place as the movement and gathering of the people were forbidden. COVID-19 provided a skill of working from home for the Municipal employees and be able to provide the best performance without being at the office.

Participant C:

COVID-19 disturbed the implementation of the NDP as there was no time to focus on development during the pandemic. Funds which were allocated to implement the goals of the NDP 2030 were used to find solutions in fighting against the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. Due to lack of income in the Municipality, Local Economic Development (LED) is no longer able to provide infrastructure, which is entitled to, because of the outbreak of COVID-19. The pandemic saved the budget of the meetings which were arranged to take place outside the office as Microsoft teams was the channel of the meetings in the Municipality.

Participant D:

The COVID-19 pandemic affected economic growth which led to job losses to people who were employed before the outbreak of the pandemic. COVID-19 slowed down the key priorities of the NDP 2030 such as education, health and human settlement as the Municipality used funds to find solutions to control the spread of the pandemic. Lockdown regulations affected the implementation of the successful NDP by 2030 as there is no time to focus on achieving the goals of the NDP.

Participant E:

COVID-19 affected the implementation of the NDP which was aimed to be achieved by 2030 in Vhembe District Municipality and South Africa. The budget of the municipality to achieve the goals of the NDP is affected by COVID-19 pandemic and it will take time for the municipality to recover its budget after the pandemic.

Participant F:

COVID-19 impacted the implementation of the goals of the NDP which were aimed to be implemented in all spheres of government. The targets of the NDP were being achieved before the pandemic although they were not fully implemented. The outbreak of COVID-19 worsens the situation as the Municipality was using available resources to fight against the pandemic and not focusing on the implementation of the NDP 2030.

Participant G:

COVID-19 impacted the implementation of the goals of NDP 2030 as there was lack of time to achieve the goals during lockdown regulations. Private companies which were making profit before the pandemic are closed because of lockdown regulations which impacted the process of many businesses. Many people lost their jobs as businesses were closing and the standard of living was low as people was restricted to move from one area to another as a mechanism to control the spread of disease.

Participant H:

COVID-19 found the NDP with more vulnerabilities as the goals were not implemented properly even before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Most of the skilled officials who are responsible for the implementation of the NDP died in the Municipality which will affect the continuation of the implementation of the NDP 2030. Although the pandemic was limiting the time for proper implementation of the NDP, employees in the Municipality gained the skills of working from home without physical supervision and attending meetings online.

Participant I:

COVID-19 came with emergency disaster which is needed to control the spread of COVID-19. In Vhembe District Municipality, the budget which was allocated to achieve the goals of the NDP was re-directed to COVID-19 disaster management to find solutions to control the spread of the pandemic.

Participant J:

COVID-19 affected the Municipal budget which was aimed at achieving the goals and objectives of the NDP 2030. The municipal budget is used to compensate affected businesses so that they can continue to operate during lockdown regulations.

Participant A, G, C, F and H indicate that although the goals of the NDP 2030 were not implemented accordingly, COVID-19 worsen the situation due to the lockdown regulations which resulted with lack of time to focus on the goals of the plan. Participant B and D show that COVID-19 pandemic affected economic growth which led to the increased in unemployment rate due to the collapse of many businesses due to the lockdown regulations. Participant D adds that COVID-19 pandemic slowed down the key priorities of the NDP 2030 such as education, health care and human settlements. Participant A, D, E and F indicate that there was no time for the implementation of the NDP as the focus of the government was on finding solutions to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. Participant A, D, E F, I and J reveal that the budget for implementing NDP 2030 was re-directed to fund COVID-19 emergency disaster to fight against the spread of the pandemic. Participant J adds that the Municipal budget is also used to compensate businesses that are to close, so that they can continue to operate.

Participant B reveals that infrastructure development was not taking place as gathering of people were forbidden during lockdown regulations. Participant C adds that due to the lack of

municipal revenues during the lockdown regulations, Local Economic Development (LED) is unable to provide services to meet the needs of the communities. Participant C further indicates that COVID-19 pandemic saved the budget which were arranged to be attended outside the Municipality as Microsoft teams was the channel of meetings. Participant B and H view that although COVID-19 pandemic limited the time for effective implementation of the NDP, Municipal employees gained the skills of working from home without supervision and produce the best results for the operation of the Municipality. Participant H further stresses that some officials responsible for the implementation of the NDP died which affect the continuation of the effective implementation of the plan. From the above information, a conclusion can be drawn that the budget of the Municipality was only used to finance disaster management to find solution to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic and for health care facilities to accommodate large number of patients who were infected day by day. It can be suggested that there was no time to focus on the implementation of the plan due to the outbreak of COVID-19 which resulted with regulations that stopped all business activities and focus on fighting against the pandemic. The researcher suggests that lockdown regulations provided skills of working from home to the Municipality employees.

5.3.3 What are the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

The third question sought to find the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality and the participant revealed the following:

Participant A:

Lockdown regulations such as the restriction of people moving from one place to another and gathering of large number of people affected the profit of many businesses in the jurisdiction of the Municipality. Many affected businesses are closed, and many people lost their jobs. Some businesses reduced staff as they were unable to pay their employees during national shutdown. Level of poverty amongst the communities increased as the result that many people became jobless and depend on government to sustain their lives.

Participant B:

The regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic led to job losses in many communities as the businesses were closed and other were reducing staff as they were unable to pay their employees during national lockdown. COVID-19 affected the standard of education as learners were attending in a rotational policy in higher and lower education. Health care services and infrastructure were not coping as many people were hospitalised and hospitals were not fully capacitated to accommodate and treat large number of patients.

Participant C:

COVID-19 regulations such as lockdown affected the implementation of the NDP as the available resources were only utilised to fight against the pandemic and living the goals of the plan aside. Exports and imports of goods and services were forbidden which affected the economy. Tourism sectors were not making profit as movement of people from one area to another and gathering of people in one place were restricted during lockdown regulations.

Participant D:

Many people lost their job as businesses were closed. Many people died because of COVID-19 pandemic and others are traumatised by the pandemic. Many companies were not making profit as they were not operating during national lockdown. Dropouts in primary, secondary and tertiary education increased as learners were scared to go to school during the outbreak of COVID-19. Rotational attendance of classes in primary and secondary schools affected the quality of education as there was not enough time for teachers to cover everything on the syllabus.

Participant E:

The budget for successful implementation of the NDP 2030 was re-directed to be used to find solutions in controlling the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The level of unemployment increased as many people lost their jobs during national lockdown.

Participant F:

The resources of the Municipality have been diverted to fund health care services to fight against COVID-19 pandemic. Employment creation is affected as many people lost their jobs during the national lockdown.

Participant G:

Restriction of social gathering and suspension of curfew affected many businesses, and many people lost their jobs. The budget constrains as most of funds were utilised precisely in health department. Death rate increment affected the government to use funds to make funeral arrangements for those who passed away as results of COVID-19.

Participant H:

There is lack of time due to lockdown regulations to achieve the goals of NDP 2030. Many skilled officials who are responsible for the implementation of the NDP died due to the infections of COVID-19 pandemic. The increase in level of unemployment due to employment reduction in many businesses affected the achievements towards achieving the goal of NDP of full employment by 2030.

Participant I:

Financial budget of the Municipality was used to purchase sanitisers and masks to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic instead of implementing NDP. Unemployment and poverty have been an issue for decades however, the COVID-19 resulted in rapid increase to unemployment rate and poverty. The government was supplying food parcels to some areas while neglecting others.

Participant J:

People were scared that they may die any time and they were not effective in their workplace. COVID-19 caused the budget to be shifted to adjust health issues and neglecting development projects. Gathering of people was not allowed and participation of people on municipal decision making was not taken into consideration during national lockdown. Businesses were closed due to non-operation during the lockdown regulations and many people lost their jobs.

All the participants indicate that lockdown regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 affected profit generation in businesses of which some of them were reducing staff and others were retrenching staff which led to the increase in unemployment rate and poverty. Participant J adds that gathering of people was restricted and community participation in municipal decision making was not taken into consideration during national lockdown. Participant B and D mention that standard of education was affected due to the regulation of COVID-19 pandemic as learners from primary to secondary school were attending in accordance with rotational policy which ensured that learners are rotating with one another when attending classes as a coping mechanism to control the spread of the virus. Participant D adds that tertiary students were attending online however, some of them were unable to afford online classes which led high number of dropouts in tertiary education. Participant B reveals that some learners in primary and secondary were afraid to go to school due to the fear of COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant B stresses that there are few hospitals in the Vhembe District Municipality and were unable to accommodate large number of patients. Participant B adds that available hospitals were incapacitated to treat many patients at a reasonable time. Participant C, D, E, F, G, I and J view that the budget for successful implementation of the NDP 2030 was used only to fund health care services to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. Participant C adds that imports and exports were forbidden which led to collapse in the economy due to the lack of foreign exchange. Participant H stresses some of the skilled officials who are responsible for the implementation of the NDP 2030 died due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Participant J indicates that workers were scared that they may die and were not effective in conducting their tasks as they were focusing on protecting their health standard.

Participant I show that the government were supplying food parcels to some disadvantaged areas while neglecting the other as people were unable to sustain their lives. Therefore, it can be concluded that the standard of education in primary in secondary education were affected due to the rotational policy of learners to attend classes which affected the teachers not to cover everything on the syllabus. It is pointed that there is high level of dropouts of learners and students as they were afraid to go to school due to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. It was also stressed that there is the increase in level of unemployment as businesses were closed which affected the workers to lose their jobs due to the lockdown regulations to control the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic. The study suggests that available resource should be used to fund the businesses that are closed so that they can operate and re-employ their workers. Learners and students should be encouraged to go back to school and further their education as it one of the objectives on the NDP to improving the quality of education, training and innovation.

5.3.3.1 What are the causes of the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

The fourth question is the sub-theme that emerged from the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. This sub-theme sought to find out the causes of the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the NDP 2030 in the Municipality and participant revealed the following:

Participant A:

Lockdown regulations affected Integrated Development Plan (IDP) targets due to lack of time to focus on developmental projects as planned before the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant B:

COVID-19 regulations to control the spread of virus caused the challenges which affected the implementation of the NDP 2030. There was no time to focus on the goals of NDP during national lockdown. Municipal employees and private companies' staff within the jurisdiction of the Municipality were infected by COVID-19 and some experienced employees have died and they have the necessary skills to be used on the implementation of the NDP 2030. Employees had a fear on COVID-19 and were no longer focusing on NDP but their health.

Participant C:

The use of the Municipal budget to purchase the protective measures against COVID-19 pandemic caused challenges to the implementation of the NDP as there was no funds to achieve the goals of the plan. The focus of the Municipality was on finding solutions to COVID-19 rather than the goals of the NDP 2030.

Participant D:

The levels of lockdown regulations caused many employees within the jurisdiction of the Municipality to lose their jobs as many businesses were closing. Inadequate health facilities led to death in many patients as the hospitals were unable to accommodate large number of patients. Lack of access to online classes in tertiary institutions led to dropouts of the students and low pass rate.

Participant E:

Re-directing of Municipal budget to focus on funding the mechanisms to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic caused the challenges in the implementation of the NDP as there was no funds to focus on the achieving the goals of the plan.

Participant F:

The mechanisms in place to control the spread of COVID-19 such as lockdown regulations affected the implementation of the NDP 2030. The Municipality was only focusing on fighting the spread of COVID-19 and leave the implementation of the NDP aside. Funds were utilised only to find solutions against COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant G:

Increase in unemployment rate due to employment reduction and retrenchment in many businesses affected the goal of employment creation of NDP 2030. The use the budget only to fight against COVID-19 led to lack of funds to the Municipality to implement the goals of NDP. Compliance with COVID-19 regulations such as lockdown led to poor economic growth.

Participant H:

The budget of the Municipality was used to finance the mechanisms to fight against the spread of COVID-19 pandemic except for the implementation of the NDP.

Participation I:

Lockdown regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 affected the process of implementing the goals of NDP as there was no time to focus on the goals of the plan. Funds were only used to fight against the spread of COVID-19 rather than the goals of the NDP 2030.

Participant J:

The hospitals are incapacitated to treat and accommodate large number of patients and this led to unattended of other infected people at a reasonable time. Many communities cannot afford sanitisers and masks that reduce the chance of being infected by COVID-19 pandemic. Death increment in Municipality lead to poor implementation of the NDP as qualified staff died with their skills which were used for the proper implementation of the plan.

Participant A, B, D, F, G and I state that lockdown regulations affected the targets of NDP 2030 due to lack of time to focus on the plan as it was planned before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Participant G with the support of participant D attests that the increase in unemployment rate due to employment reduction and retrenchment in many businesses

affected the aim of full employment rate by 2030 which is the priority of the NDP. Participant C, E, F, G, H and I stress that COVID-19 found the Municipality lack sufficient funds to fight against the pandemic which led to the re-directing of the budget which was aimed at implementing the NDP 2030 to fund the mechanisms in place to fight against the spread of the virus. Participant B and J show that Municipal workers and private companies' staff within the Jurisdiction of the Municipality died with their skills which were used for successful implantation of the NDP 2030. Participant B adds that workers were afraid and traumatised by the outbreak of COID-19 pandemic and they are focusing on their health rather than strategies to be used for proper implementation of the NDP 2030.

Participant D and J mention that inadequate health care facilities led to death in most of the patients as hospitals were unable to accommodate large number of patients. Participant D adds that lack of access to online classes in tertiary institutions led to the increased number of dropouts and low pass rate of the students. Participant J reveal that many communities could not afford masks and sanitisers which the scientist advice that they reduce the chance of being infected by the COVID-19 pandemic. From the information provided above, it can be concluded that lockdown regulation affected the availability of time to implement the goals of the NDP 2030. It was also revealed that the need for funds to find solutions to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic affected the budget which was set aside for successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher suggests that the goals such as employment creation were not easy to achieve as operation of businesses and economic activities were restricted.

5.3.4 Which strategies could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030?

The last question sought to find out the strategies that could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 and participants revealed the following:

Participant A:

The economic and policy advisers at political level should give support to all municipalities and provide enough budgets for proper implementation of the NDP 2030 and sustain long-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. The government should assist the businesses which are closed with a relief funds to re-open so that people can be employed in a short period of time.

Participant B:

The government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) to support small business so that they can re-open and provide employment opportunities and self-employment opportunities.

Participant C:

The revenues of the government should be strictly used to finance the implementation of NDP 2030. The government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) so that the lives of people get back to normal with high level of job opportunities. The government should partner with non-government organisation to raised funds for successful implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

Participant D:

Government budget should focus on sustaining small business that can create job opportunities in short period of time as many people lost their jobs during lockdown regulations. The Municipality should improve financial internal control system to fight again corruption for proper implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. Municipality should promote community policy forums to build safer communities. Municipal Budget of service delivery through Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Local Economic Development (LED) should be adjusted for proper implementation of the goals of NDP 2030. The Municipality should provide bursaries for its employees so that they can further their education and gain proper skills that can be useful for the implementation of the NDP 2030.

Participant E:

National, Provincial and Local spheres of government must be given enough budgets to finance the implementation of National Development Plan 2030.

Participant F:

The Municipality should focus on building on existing infrastructure in post COVID-19. The Municipality should partner with the private companies so that they can donate for the proper implementation of the NDP by 2030.

Participant G:

The government should revise the goals of National Development Plan 2030 and focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) for proper implementation of the plan. The government should maintain infrastructure which were built during COVID-19 pandemic.

Participant H:

The Municipality should strengthen partnerships with private sectors within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. Municipality should enforce strict policies to deal with corrupt officials for the proper implementation of NDP 2030.

Participant I:

The government avoid working with tenders and hire permanent qualified youth who are skilled. The government should support the development of small businesses to promote self-employment of the communities and be able to sustain their lives without depending on government. The municipality should hire employees that are highly qualified and skilled to deal with the implementation of NDP 2030.

Participant J:

Monitoring and evaluating of the goals that the Municipality has currently achieved. The government must focus on implementing the NDP and avoid the challenges brought by the COVID-19 pandemic. Policies to deal with corrupt officials should be adjusted to use the remaining funds strictly to the implementation of the NDP 2030.

Participant B, C, I and G are of the view that the government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) and finance small business to re-open and provide employment opportunities and self-employment opportunities successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Participant A and D maintain that the government should assist the businesses which are closed with a relief funds to re-open and re-employ their workers who lost their jobs due to COVID-19 pandemic. Participant C and D indicate that the budget of service delivery through Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Local Economic Development (LED) should be

adjusted for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Participant E maintains that national, provincial and local sphere of government must be financed with enough budgets for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

Participant C, F and H are of the view that the government should partner with private sector for a successful implementation of the NDP by 2030. In addition, participant J view that the government must focus on the successful implementation of the NDP by 2030 and avoid challenges which are caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Participant A suggests that economic and policy advisers at political level should give support to all municipalities and provide enough budgets for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030 and sustain a long-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. Participant D, H and J suggest that the government should improve internal control system for financial management and develop strict policies to deal with corruption so that funds should be strictly used for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030 and not for a personal gain.

Participant D suggests that Municipality should provide staff bursaries so that workers can further their studies and gain proper skills that can be useful for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Participant G suggests those infrastructures that were developed during the effect of COVID-19 pandemic should be always maintain and sustained. Participant I is of the view that Municipality should hire highly qualified and skilled workers to focus on a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Participant I add that where necessary, the government should avoid giving work to tendering companies and hire permanent qualified youth that are effective in the implementation of the NDP 2030. Participant J suggests that Municipality should monitor and evaluate the goals that have been achieved so that the direction of what to start with, can be adopted. Conclusion can be made that the government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan to sustain the standard of living within the communities and create job opportunities. This suggests that full operation of businesses and economic activities should continue to improve economic growth and create employment for the job seekers.

5.3.5 SUMMATION OF THE DATA COLLECTED THROUGH INTERVIEW

The sustainable development theory which is adopted in this study agrees that the idea of sustainable development has shifted its focus to economic progress, social progress and preservation of the environment for future generations. Participants conclude that COVID-19 affected the development of the communities within the Vhembe District Municipality and unemployment is the major challenge that communities are facing due to the outbreak of the pandemic. It is of the researcher view that although business activities and freedom of communities are back to normal, there are many job sickers in the community with few job

opportunities as the country's economy was negatively impacted by the pandemic. A conclusion can be drawn that the budget of the Municipality was only used to finance disaster management to find solution to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic and for health care facilities to accommodate large number of patients who were infected day by day. It can be suggested that there was no time to focus on the implementation of the plan due to the outbreak of COVID-19 which resulted with regulations that stopped all business activities and focus on fighting against the pandemic. Participants stress that there is high level of dropouts of learners and students as they were afraid to go to school due to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher discovered that there is the increase in level of unemployment as businesses were closed down which affected the workers to lose their jobs due to the lockdown regulations to control the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the analysis and interpretation of the collected data by discussing the sampled population's responses as a way of providing an understanding of the nature of the research findings to the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. In this chapter, synthesised discussions of findings, recommendation for the impact of the COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP 2030, as well as to establish the framework that can assist towards the development of all-inclusive

strategies to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030 in the post-COVID-19 era, and recommendations for future research study on a related subject, were documented.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The study was about the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. This study was conducted to answer the research questions that arose from the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality; the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030; the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality; and the strategies that could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. The researcher reviewed the literature which is relevant to the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP 2030. The study applied a mixed method where quantitative and qualitative research methodologies were used. The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030, and recommend the mechanisms that can be used to regain the pace of the National Development Plan 2030. Non-probability sampling technique and its sub-type called purposive sampling method were used. The researcher used questionnaires and interview schedule to collect data from the respondents. Data was analysed with the aid of two data analysis methods, namely; inferential statistical analysis and thematic analysis and the information was presented in graphical table to present respondents' perceptions in terms of frequencies and percentages as well as narrative form followed by a brief synthesis. The specific objectives of the study were:

- To determine the state of COVID-19 in South Africa.
- To assess the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030.
- To describe COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality.
- To recommend the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

The critical research questions of the study attempted to answer the following:

- What is the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality?
- What is the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030?
- What are the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

- Which strategies could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030?

6.3 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

In this section, the researcher presents the major findings of the study which focused on the specific objectives of the study. The following specific objectives of the study benchmarked the realisation of the main aim of the study and they sought to determine the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality; the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030; describe COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality; and recommend the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. From the interview schedule, the researcher decided to add a posing question which addresses the causes of COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality.

6.3.1 Major findings on the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality

The first objective sought to determine the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality and 135 (67.5%) of the respondents' stress that COVID-19 has a major impact on South African economy. This indicates that the economy of South Africa is negatively affected by the pandemic which result in increased level of unemployment rate and rise in inflation rate. Findings of the study shows that 103 (51.5%) of the respondents point that workers with low education levels are much more affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19. This shows that most of unskilled labours were retrenched in the workplace as they were no longer important, and businesses were not generating income to pay their workers. The researcher found that 100 (50%) of the respondents agreed that most contract workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19. This is an indication that most potential workers lost their jobs through reduction of employment in many businesses. The study findings revealed that majority of the respondents at 87 (43.5%) revealed that inequalities within and among nations are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID 19, as poor and vulnerable are unable to protect themselves. This reveals that there was inequality before the pandemic hence the pandemic worsened inequality within the communities under Vhembe District Municipality as rural community cannot afford protect themselves against the COVID-19 pandemic and depend on government for proper protection against the pandemic.

The researcher discovered that majority of the respondents at 103 (51.5%) refused that Vhembe District Municipality is one of the municipalities with the high number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province. This shows that Stats SA of COVID-19 infection declares that Vhembe District Municipality was not recording many infections compared to the other municipalities within Limpopo Province. Findings of the study shows that majority of the respondents at 112 (56%) agreed that the operation of the banking sector, payments system, pension and medical aid activities in Vhembe District Municipality, continue during the time of lockdown. This indicates that community members could go to the banks and also to seek their medical attention during the stages of the lockdown. The researcher found that 101 (50%) of the respondents point that capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer. The above statement shows that the COVID-19 pandemic is impacting the economy and it will take time to recover after the pandemic.

From the interview conducted to determine the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality, the study findings revealed that many people died due to the COVID-19 pandemic and new infections were still record but its only few per day within the jurisdiction of the Municipality. The researcher discovered that most of the municipal officials that are responsible for the implementation of the NDP, died with their skills and knowledge that could has been used for effective implementation of the NDP by 2030. The study found that COVID-19 pandemic increased unemployment rate within the jurisdiction of the Municipality due to the lockdown regulations which affected some businesses to reduce staff and others to close down as they were not generating income to sustain their operations. It was found by the researcher that the economy of South Africa collapsed during the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic and economic activities such as mining, tourism and industries were not operating during the lockdown regulations.

Study findings revealed that movement of people from one area to another were restricted during the lockdown regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic from one person to another. The researcher discovered that gathering of many people in a single place was not accepted during the lockdown regulations. The study findings reveal that Local Economic Development (LED) programs such as service delivery were not in action due to the lockdown regulations. Findings of the study show that Municipal officials were working from home and there was no time to focus on the implementation of the NDP 2030. The reason for working from home was to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher discovered that some employees in different institutions were still working from home, and mostly old age employees. Findings of the study discovered that business activities are getting back to normal

and COVID-19 regulations are suspended. The study found that COVID-19 affected the lives of the communities within the Vhembe District Municipality and unemployment is the major challenge that communities are facing due to the outbreak of the pandemic.

6.3.2 Major findings on the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030

The second objective of the research study sought to assess the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030, and collected data found that majority at 106 (53%) stress that Municipal financial budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The available budget for the successful implementation of the NDP 2030 was no longer used for the goals of the plan but to find solution to fight against the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The study findings discovered that majority of the respondents at 110 (55%) point that COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations. There is high level of unemployment rate and rise in poverty amongst communities due to the outbreak of COVID-19 and there was no proper attendance of schools as a way to control the spread of pandemic.

The researcher found that 108 (54%) of the respondents revealed that COVID-19 crisis has had lasting financial effect on the provision of the health care services. This indicates that funds were only raised for health care purposes rather than the implementation of the NDP 2030. It was found in this study that 170 (85%) of the respondents while another 85 show that fiscal revenues in South Africa remain insufficient to finance the implementation of the NDP 2030. The revenues of government were not in operation during the lockdown regulation. The researcher found that majority at 106 (53%) reveal that COVID-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated. There was no proper implementation of the NDP 2030 even before the outbreak of COVID-19. The findings of the study show that majority at 95 (47.5%) of the respondents agreed that NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic. The study found that majority of the respondents at 115 (57.5%) reveal that there has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before COVID-19 pandemic. This indicates that there are communities which do not have access to service delivery within the Municipality.

From the interview that were carried to assess the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030, the study found that although the goals of the NDP 2030 were not implemented accordingly, COVID-19 worsen the situation due to the lockdown regulations which resulted in lack of time to focus on the goals of the plan. The researcher discovered that

COVID-19 pandemic affected economic growth which led to the increased in unemployment rate due to the collapsed of many businesses during the lockdown regulations. The researcher found that COVID-19 pandemic slowed down the key priorities of the NDP 2030 such as education, health care and human settlements. It was found that in this study that there was no time for the implementation of the NDP as the focus of the government was on finding solutions to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The study findings revealed that budget for implementing NDP 2030 was re-directed to fund COVID-19 emergency disaster to fight against the spread of the pandemic. Municipal budget was also used to compensate businesses that were about to close, so that they can continue to operate.

The researcher found out that infrastructure development was not taking place as gathering of people were forbidden during lockdown regulations. The researcher discovered that due to the lack of municipal revenues during the lockdown regulations, Local Economic Development (LED) is unable to provide services to meet the needs of the communities. The study found that the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic saved the budget which were arranged to be attended outside the Municipality as Microsoft teams was the channel of meetings. Findings of the study discovered that although COVID-19 pandemic limited the time for effective implementation of the NDP, Municipal employees gained the skills of working from home without supervision and produce the best results for the operation of the Municipality. The researcher found that some of the officials responsible for the implementation of the NDP died which will affect the continuation of the effective implementation of the plan.

6.3.3 Major findings on the COVID-19 related challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality

The third objective of the study sought to describe the COVID-19 related challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality, and study findings revealed that majority of the respondents at 96 (48%) indicated that there is no proper implementation of the NDP due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality. This indicates that lockdown regulation to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic affected the implementation of the NDP 2030. The study found that majority of the respondents at 133 (66.5%) reveal that many people lost their jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed in the jurisdiction of the Municipality. The increase in unemployment rate within the Municipality is due to the

businesses which were closed during the lockdown regulations due to the lack of income generation to sustain their operations.

The researcher discovered that majority of the respondents at 99 (49.5%) indicate that since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources are used to find solutions in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic. There was no time to focus on the achievements of the implementation of the NDP 2030 and the focus was only on finding solutions to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The study findings discovered that majority of the respondents at 105 (52.5%) indicate that the Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic. The municipality has insufficient funds to use in fighting against the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The study found that majority of the respondents at 95 (47.5%) agreed that innovation is essential for effective response to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income areas within the Municipality. The Municipality should focus more in low and middle-income areas as they are more vulnerable to the effects of COVID-19 pandemic.

From the interview that were carried to describe the COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality, the study findings discovered that lockdown regulations to control the spread of COVID-19 affected profit generation in businesses of which some of them were reducing staff and others were retrenching staff which led to the increase in unemployment rate and poverty. The study found out that gathering of people was restricted and community participation in municipal decision making was not taken into consideration during national lockdown. The researcher discovered that standard of education was affected due to the regulation of COVID-19 pandemic as learners from primary and secondary school were attending in accordance with rotational policy which ensured that learners are rotating with one another when attending classes as a coping mechanism to control the spread of the virus. The study findings show that tertiary students were attending online although some students were unable to afford online classes which led high number of dropouts in tertiary education. The researcher discovered that some learners in primary and secondary were afraid to go to school due to the fear of COVID-19 pandemic.

The study findings reveal that there are few hospitals in the Vhembe District Municipality and were unable to accommodate large number of patients. Available hospitals were incapacitated to treat deal with number of patients at a reasonable time. The researcher found that budget for successful implementation of the NDP 2030 was used to fund health care services aimed to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. The study discovered that imports and exports

were forbidden which affected the economy to collapse due to the lack of foreign exchange. Findings of the study reveal that skilled officials who are responsible for the implementation of the NDP 2030 died due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher discovered that workers were scared that they may die and were not effective in obeying their tasks as they were focusing on protecting their health standard. The researcher discovered that there is high level of dropouts of learners and students as they were afraid to go to school due to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic.

6.3.3.1 Major findings on the causes of COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality

The fourth question from the interview was the sub-question that emerged from the third question that was carried to describe the COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality. This sub-question sought to identify the causes of COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality and the researcher found that revealed that lockdown regulations affected the targets of NDP 2030 due to lack of time to focus on the plan as it was planned before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. The study found that the increase in unemployment rate due to employment reduction and retrenchment in many businesses affected the aim of full employment rate by 2030 which is the priority of the NDP. It was discovered by the researcher that COVID-19 found the Municipality with lack of funds to fight against the pandemic which led to the re-directing of the budget which was aimed at implementing the NDP 2030 to fund the mechanisms in place to fight against the spread of the virus. The study found that Municipal workers and private companies' staff within the Jurisdiction of the Municipality died with their skills which should have been successfully used to implement the NDP 2030. Workers were afraid and traumatised by the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic and they are focusing on their health rather than strategies to be used for proper implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher found that inadequate health care facilities led to death in most of the patients as hospitals were unable to accommodate large number of patients. The study discovered that lack of access to online classes in tertiary institutions led to the increase number of dropouts and low pass rate of the students. Findings of the study reveal that many communities could not afford masks and sanitisers which the scientist advice that they reduce the chance of being infected by the COVID-19 pandemic.

6.3.4 Major findings on the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030

The last objective of the study sought to make recommendations towards strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030, and the study found that majority at 120 (60%) of the respondents strongly suggest that the Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. The focus of the Municipality should be on the economic recovery that will ensure a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study findings confirmed that majority of the respondents at 123 (61.5%) indicate that infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. This is an indication that LED programs such as employment creation through projects should be enhanced to improve the standard of living of the communities and services delivery through IDP should be strengthened.

The researcher discovered that majority of the respondents at 115 (57.5%) believe that employment creation through public employment programs that are able to create large numbers of jobs in the shorter term should be promoted by the Municipality after the pandemic. Municipality should promote EPWP and funding small businesses that are able to employ large number of people to reduce the level of unemployment rate in its area of jurisdiction. It was also discovered in this study that majority of the respondents at 127 (63.5%) suggest that Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities. The investment of the Municipality should be based on achieving the goals of the National Development Plan 2030 that will improve the standard of living of the communities. The study findings highlighted that majority at 136 which (68%) of the respondents point that Municipality should strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP. The Municipalities should partner with the private companies so that they can donate funds to achieve the successful implementation of the NDP by 2030.

From the interview that were carried to explore the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030, the researcher discovered that the government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) and finance small business to re-open and provide employment opportunities and self-employment opportunities and for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study findings revealed that government should assist the businesses which are closed down with a relief funds to re-open and re-employ their workers who lost their jobs due to COVID-19 pandemic. Findings of the study indicate that the budget of service delivery through Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Local Economic Development (LED) should be adjusted for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher discovered that national, provincial and local

sphere of government must be financed with enough budgets for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

The researcher found that government should partner with private sector for a successful implementation of the NDP by 2030. The study findings affirm that government must focus on the successful implementation of the NDP by 2030 and avoid challenges which are caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. It was stated that economic and policy advisers at political level should give support to all municipalities and provide enough budgets for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030 and sustain a long term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. The findings suggested that government should improve internal control system for financial management and develop strict policies to deal with corruption so that funds should be strictly used for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030 and not for a personal gain.

The information collected suggested that Municipality should provide staff bursaries so that workers can further their studies and improve their skills so that they can be useful for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study findings suggested that those infrastructures that were developed during COVID-19 pandemic should be always maintain and sustained. Participants highlighted that the Municipality should hire highly qualified and skilled workers to focus on a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. It was found that where necessary, the government should avoid hiring tendering companies and hire permanent qualified youth that are effective in the implementation of the NDP 2030. The study findings revealed that Municipality should monitor and evaluate the goals that have been achieved so that the direction of what to start with, can be adopted.

6.4 SYNTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The most important findings of this research study from the research questionnaire can be summarised as follows:

- COVID-19 has a major impact on South African economy.
- Workers with low education levels are much more affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19.
- Most contract workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19.
- Inequalities within and among nations are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID 19, as poor and vulnerable are unable to protect themselves.
- Vhembe District Municipality is not one of the municipalities with the high number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province.

- Capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer.
- Municipal financial budget has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic.
- COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations.
- Municipal revenues influence the implementation of the NDP 2030.
- COVID-19 found the NDP 2030 with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated.
- NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic.
- There has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before COVID-19 pandemic.
- There is no proper implementation of the NDP due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality.
- Many people lost their jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed down in the jurisdiction of the Municipality.
- Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources are used to find solutions in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic.
- The Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic.
- Innovation is essential for effective response to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income areas within the Municipality.
- The Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic.
- Infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic.
- Employment creation through public employment programs that are able to create large numbers of jobs in the shorter term should be promoted by the Municipality after the pandemic.
- The Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities.
- The Municipality should strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030.

The most important findings of this research study from data collected through interviews can be summarised as follows:

- Many people died due to the COVID-19 pandemic and new infections are still recorded but its only few per day within the jurisdiction of the Municipality.
- COVID-19 pandemic increased unemployment rate within the jurisdiction of the Municipality due to the lockdown regulations which affected some businesses to reduce staff and some closed as they were unable to generate income to sustain their operations.
- Although the goals of the NDP 2030 were not implemented accordingly, COVID-19 worsens the situation due to the lockdown regulations which resulted with lack of time to focus on the goals of the plan.
- There was no time for the implementation of the NDP as the focus of the government was on finding solutions to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.
- There is high level of dropouts from school due to rotational polices and online classes to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.
- The budget for successful implementation of the NDP 2030 was used only to fund health care services to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic.
- The government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) and finance small business to re-open and provide employment opportunities and self-employment opportunities, and for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

6.5 RECOMMENDATION OF THE STUDY

The following section recommends the strategies that can be used for a successful implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 which are based on the findings of the study. The recommendations emanated from the major findings on the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality, the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030, COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality, the, and the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

6.5.1 Recommendation on the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality

The study recommends that Economic Recovery Plan should be fostered to address the impact of COVID-19 on the South African economy. This indicates that the Municipality should focus on employment creation and reduction of the inflation rate. The researcher recommends that employment creation should be based on the workers with low education levels as they are much more affected by COVID-19 than workers with secondary or tertiary education. The

Municipality should fight against inequalities within and among nations and provide adequate service delivery to the communities. The researcher recommends that the Municipality should strive to find the cure for COVID-19 pandemic to fight against the daily cases that are recorded within its jurisdiction. The operation of the banking sector, payments system, pension and medical aid activities should continue even during the stages of lockdown so that communities can seek their medical attention and banking transactions for sustainability. The study recommends that capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 pandemic should be improved to achieve a successful implementation of the NDP by 2030.

The researcher recommends that municipal officials should be trained to gain skills for proper implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that the Municipality should fund businesses that are closed so that they can re-open and contribute on the economic recovery to achieve the implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher recommends that Local Economic Development (LED) programs such as service delivery should be taken into action and continues to achieve the goals of the NDP 2030. It is recommended in this study that municipal officials should get back to the offices and suspend working from home policy so that they can focus more on the successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that a relief fund should be given to the households that lost their jobs during the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic so that they can meet their needs. Business activities should get back to normal and COVID-19 regulations must be suspended to achieve the successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

6.5.2 Recommendation on the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030

The researcher recommends that Municipal revenues should be aimed at improving financial budget of the Municipality that has been severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The available budget should be strictly used to achieve the successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that full time attendance of schools should be taken into consideration to cover everything that was left out during rotation policy which was in effect to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic amongst learners. The researcher recommends that the Municipality should have a security budget for health care services and disaster management so that budget for the implementation of the NDP 2030 can only be used to achieve the goals of the plan. The study recommends that the Municipality should prioritise to deliver services to the communities that were lacking access to service delivery before COVID-19 pandemic.

The study recommends that maximum time should be provided for the implementation of the NDP 2030 and the deadlines of achieving the plan should be adjusted to achieve the goals by 2030. It is recommended in this study that the saved budget for attending conferences and meetings should be used to fund the implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that skills of working from home which were gained during the lockdown regulations should be used to achieve the implementation of the NDP 2030 even if the workers are outside the office. The researcher recommends that the Municipality should recruit skilled and highly qualifying officials to replace those who died due to the COVID-19 pandemic for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

6.5.3 Recommendation on COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality

The researcher recommends that proper implementation of the NDP 2030 should be promoted to achieve a successful implementation of the plan. The study recommends that Municipality should fasten the implementation of the NDP 2030, and available resources should be used to achieve the successful plan by 2030. The Municipality should overcome pressure which was brought by the COVID-19 pandemic and focus on the mechanisms to achieve the successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The Municipality should focus more in low and middle-income areas as they are more vulnerable to the effects of COVID-19 pandemic. It is recommended in this study that gathering of people should be allowed to enable community participation in municipal decision making for a proper implementation of the NDP 2030.

The researcher recommends that full time classes should resume so that schools can cover everything on the syllabus and improve the standard of education which was affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The full-time attendance in tertiary education should resume so that every student can have access to the lecture halls and library and improve the pass rate which was affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The study recommends that hospitals should be constructed to accommodate large number of patients. It is further recommended in this study that imports and exports should be promoted so that government can earn foreign exchange and improve economic growth. The researcher recommends that wellness programs should be provided to the workers to deal with the trauma which was brought by the COVID-19 pandemic as workers were scared that they may die and were not effective in obeying their tasks for successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

6.5.4 Recommendation on the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030

The Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. The focus of the Municipality should be on the economic recovery that will ensure a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. This is an indication that LED programs such as employment creation through projects should be enhanced to improve the standard of living of the communities and services delivery through IDP should be strengthened.

The researcher recommends that employment creation through public employment programs that can create large numbers of jobs in the shorter term should be promoted by the Municipality after the pandemic. Municipality should promote EPWP and funding small businesses that are able to employ large number of people to reduce the level of unemployment rate in its area of jurisdiction. It is recommended in this study that Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities. The investment of the Municipality should be based on achieving the goals of the National Development Plan 2030 that will improve the standard of living of the communities. The Municipality should strengthen partnerships between private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030. The Municipalities should partner with the private companies so that they can donate funds to achieve the successful implementation of the NDP by 2030.

The study recommends that the government should focus on Economic Recovery Plan (ERP) and finance small business to re-open and provide employment opportunities and self-employment opportunities which can ensure successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The government should assist the businesses which are closed with a relief funds to re-open and re-employ their workers who lost their jobs due to COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher recommends that the budget of service delivery through Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Local Economic Development (LED) should be adjusted for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. It is recommended in this study that national, provincial and local sphere of government must be financed with enough budgets for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

The study recommends that government must focus on the successful implementation of the NDP by 2030 and avoid challenges which are caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher recommends that economic and policy advisers at political level should give support to all municipalities and provide enough budgets for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030 and sustain a long-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic. The government should improve internal control system for financial management and develop strict policies to deal with corruption so that funds should be strictly used for successful implementation of the NDP 2030.

The researcher recommends that Municipality should provide staff bursaries so that workers can further their education and gain proper skills that can be useful for successful implementation of the NDP 2030. It is recommended in this study that infrastructures that were constructed during the effect of COVID-19 pandemic should be maintained and sustained. The Municipality should hire highly qualified and skilled workers to focus on successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher recommends that the government should avoid working with tender men and hire permanent qualified youth that will be effective in the implementation of the NDP 2030. The Municipality should monitor and evaluate the goals that have been achieved so that the direction of what to start with, can be adopted.

6.6 RECOMMENDATION ON THE PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

This section present the recommendation of the generic functions of Public Administration and such recommendation arose from the findings on the state of COVID-19 in Vhembe District Municipality, the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030, COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality, and the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.

6.6.1 Recommendation on policy and policy making

The researcher recommends that the Municipality should make strict policies to fight against corruption so that each official who misuse public funds or who use public funds on his/her own interest must be punishment and dismissed from the workplace. This will ensure that municipal budget will be strictly used to achieve the goals of the National Development plan 2030. The study findings recommend that the Municipality must also take into consideration the views of the community members when making the policy for proper implementation of the NDP 2030. The policy maker should be aware of the challenges that prohibit the implantation of the NDP 2030 to develop policies that will ensure the successful implementation of the plan.

6.6.2 Recommendation on organising

Organising entails the establishment of institutions to achieve pre-determined objectives of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that there must be grouping and classification of the functions as well as allocating these functions and officials in an orderly pattern to achieve the successful implementation of the NDP by 2030. The researcher recommends that the officials must be grouped based on the position they hold in the workplace. Officials must be given position based on the qualification and experience they have and knowledge to achieve the implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher also recommends that channels of communication in the municipality must be arranged to ensure that functionaries are kept informed about the activities taking place and progress made towards achieving pre-determined objectives of the NDP 2030.

6.6.3 Recommendation on financing

The researcher recommends that the municipality should have a year financial budget for the successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher recommends that the municipality must work with the Non-Government Organisation so that they can donate funds that can be used for successful implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that municipal officials who are responsible for the engagement of community members such as ward councillor and community development worker must encourage community members who can afford municipal service to pay so that municipality can have extra income to finance the implementation of the NDP 2030. The researcher recommends that municipality must outsource financial resources to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030.

6.6.4 Recommendation on personnel administration

The researcher recommends that the Municipality should employ qualified and skilled officials for proper implementation of the NDP 2030. The study recommends that creation of posts must consist of the qualification required and successful candidates must meet all the requirements of the post. The researcher recommends that promotion in the Municipality must be based on the merit and qualities of official. The researcher recommends that Municipality must recruit qualified candidates in the provision of basic services and should always transfer these officials from one section or division to another so that they do not get used to their work and get advantage of it.

6.6.5 Recommendation on work method and procedure

The researcher recommends that there must be the means and ways to be followed in obeying the job to achieve the objectives of the NDP 2030. The researcher recommends that private entities should serve as a guide to the municipal officials on how they should go about doing

their work to achieve pre-determined objectives of the NDP 2030. The study findings recommends that the methods and procedure of doing the job should always be changed so that officials may not get used to single system of doing the job.

6.6.6 Recommendation on control

The researcher recommends that the policy maker must ensure that policies and objectives of the NDP 2030 are implemented. The study recommends that Municipality should measure and correct the performance of officials to ensure that pre-determined objectives of the NDP 2030 are achieved. The researcher recommends that the Municipality should have standards that represent the desired performance and comparison of actual results with the desired standards.

6.7 ESTABLISHMENT OF FRAMEWORK TO IMPROVE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

This section presents the theoretical framework that the study developed to achieve a successful implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. The theoretical framework is the structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study. The theoretical framework introduces and describes the theory which explains why the research problem under study exists. In this study, Public/Private Collaboration theory is adopted to allow collaboration of the government and private companies to achieve the pre-determine objectives of the NDP 2030.

6.7.1 Public/Private Collaboration theory (PPC)

The researcher suggests that government should review infrastructure projects in the sectors most affected by the COVID-19 pandemic such as airports, ports, roads, transport, and energy to understand demand and supply-side impacts and collaborate with private companies to find solutions on how to address those impacts for successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Municipalities should do this with private companies and other relevant stakeholders such as financiers and regulators and come up with a plan of action with a view to ensure continuity of the implementation of the NDP 2030 and mitigate the impacts on projects caused bay COVID-19 pandemic.

Private companies in collaboration with municipalities should examine performance vis-à-vis contractual clauses, consider restructuring and bridge financing, renegotiate contracts, and manage distressed assets to achieve a proper implementation of the NDP by 2030. The National Development Plan states that infrastructure investment as a percentage of GDP needs to grow from 21% in 2015 to 30% by 2030. This requires public and private sectors to

work together to fund and build infrastructure. Greater use of PPC financing can contribute to better decision-making, discipline, accountability and rigor in the NDP 2030 and assessment of infrastructure projects.

Public-Private collaboration is a mechanism for municipalities to work with private companies to implement public infrastructure and/or services using the resources and expertise of the private sector. Where municipalities are facing ageing or lack of infrastructure and require more efficient services, a partnership with the private sector can help foster new solutions and bring finance for a successful implementation of the NDP 2030. Goals of NDP should not be the priority of municipalities only, but also for the priority of the private companies to ensure a successful implementation of the plan. PPC combine the skills and resources of both public and private sectors through sharing of risks and responsibilities to achieve the goals of NDP 2030. This enables municipalities to benefit from the expertise of the private sector, and allows them to focus instead on policy, planning and regulation by delegating day-to-day operations to achieve the objectives of NDP 2030.

To achieve a successful PPC, a careful analysis of the long-term development objectives and risk allocation is essential. The legal and institutional framework in the country also needs to support this new model of achieving the goals of NDP 2030 and provide effective governance and monitoring mechanisms for PPC. Building modern, sustainable, and reliable infrastructure is critical for meeting the rising aspirations of billions of people globally. Infrastructure investment helps raise economic growth rates, offers new economic opportunities, and facilitates investment in human capital. PPC can be a tool to deliver much needed infrastructure services that will improve the implementation of the NDP 2030.

6.8 RECOMMENDATIONS OF FUTURE STUDIES

The aim of the study was to investigate the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 and recommend the mechanisms that can be used to regain the pace of the National Development Plan 2030. The study intended to empirically establish the framework that can assist towards the development of all-inclusive strategies to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030 in the post-COVID-19 era. This research focused only in Vhembe District Municipality in the Limpopo province. The researcher recommends that the research like this one should be conducted in all municipalities within South Africa to detect problems and challenges of the National Development Plan 2030. The findings in the studies that must be conducted will assist the municipalities to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030. Community members and municipal officials should provide accurate information to the future researchers to help them find ways to promote the implementation of the NDP and give

recommendation on those who will conduct studies after them. The future researchers must keep and protect the confidentiality of the participants.

6.9 CONCLUSION

This study was about the impact of COVID-19 on the implantation of the National Development Plan 2030. In the first chapter the study presented the introduction, historical background, problem statement, aim of the study, specific objectives of the study, critical research question, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, and definition of operational concepts and organisation of the study. The objectives of this study were to determine the state of COVID-19 in the Vhembe District Municipality; to assess the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030; to describe COVID-19 related challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality; and to recommend the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. This study was conducted to benefit the Vhembe District Municipality and the communities around Vhembe through the implementation of the NDP 2030. The benefits include among others the advancement of strategies that can be used to improve the implementation of the NDP 2030.

In Chapter Two and Three, the researcher discussed literature review on the challenges of the NDP 2030 and COVID-19 with its effect on the implementation of the plan. In Chapter Four, the researcher applied research paradigm wherein the researcher chose pragmatism research paradigm. Chapter three presented research methodology in which mixed method (integrating quantitative and qualitative research methods) was applied to collect data. This study focused on the Vhembe District Municipality. The researcher chose to conduct the study at the Vhembe District Municipality looking at the availability of participants who have characteristics that the researcher was looking for. Non-probability sampling was appropriate in this study, because the researcher selected the participants based on their availability, convenience, or representing some characteristics features the researcher wanted to study. The researcher used two methods of collecting data which are questionnaire and interview. For this study, the two methods of data analysis were used, namely inferential statistics and thematic analysis. The ethical issues which were followed in this study indicated the appropriateness of the study's methodology and highlighted all the morality of humankind.

The researcher indicated that descriptive research method was used. Executive mayor, Municipal manager, Integrated Development Plan officials, Local Economic Development officials, ward councillors, community development workers, SANCO members, traditional leaders, and community members were sampled in this chapter. On this chapter the researcher presented study area, population of the study, sampling, data collection and data

analysis. Ethical consideration was also indicated in this chapter to inform the participants about the safety of their contribution in this study.

Chapter Five in this research study discussed data presentation, interpretation and analysis of data collected by discussing the sampled population's responses as a way of providing an understanding of the nature of the research findings to the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP 2030. It has been indicated that analysis of data involves what has been seen, heard, and read to use the data collected. The chapter focused on reporting the empirical investigation by providing answers to the perceptions and understanding of the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP 2030. The data regarding the impact of COVID-19 was collected by using quantitative and qualitative methods which involved the application of questionnaires and interview from the respondents. The response to the questionnaire items were presented in a tabular form followed by a brief synthesis of the findings and the responses to the interview items are presented in a narrative form followed by a brief synthesis of the findings. The chapter was divided into two sections, namely: the analysis of data collected through questionnaire and the analysis of data collected through interview.

In the final chapter, the study presents findings, recommendation, establishment of framework and conclusion. The major findings of the study that arose from the research objectives of the study which are, to determine the state of COVID-19 in the Vhembe District Municipality; to assess the implication of COVID-19 on the National Development Plan 2030; to describe COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality; and to recommend the strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030. The recommendation of the study also arose from the research objectives of the study. This study also presented recommendations on the principles of Public Administration, recommendations on the future research, and lastly concludes the study on the impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the NDP 2030.

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Annexure A

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA

OFFICE OF THE DVC: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

TO : MR/MS E. MAEMU
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT, COMMERCE AND LAW

FROM: PROF. N.N FEZA
DVC: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

DATE : 29 AUGUST 2022

DECISIONS TAKEN BY UHDC OF 29TH AUGUST 2022

Application for approval of Thesis Proposal Report in the Faculty of Management, Commerce and Law: E. Maemu (14014756)

Topic: "Covid-19 in the Implementation of the National Development Plan 2030: A Case of Vhembe District Municipality."

Supervisor	UNIVEN	Dr. P.H Munzhedzi
Co-supervisor	UNIVEN	Dr. N.E Mathebula

UHDC approved Thesis proposal



PROF. N.N FEZA
DVC: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE **RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR**

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:
Mr E Maemu

STUDENT NO:
14014756

**PROJECT TITLE: The impact of covid-19 on the implementation of
the national development plan 2030: A case of Vhembe district
municipality.**

ETHICAL CLEARANCE NO: FMCL/22/PDN/03/0107

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

NAME	INSTITUTION & DEPARTMENT	ROLE
Dr PH Munzhedzi	University of Venda (Public and Development Administration)	Supervisor
Dr NE Mathebula	University of Venda (Public and Development Administration)	Co - Supervisor
Mr E Maemu	University of Venda	Investigator - Student

Type: Doctoral Research
Risk: Minimal risk to humans, animals, or environment (Category 2)
Approval Period: June 2022 – June 2025

The Research Ethics Social Sciences Committee (RESSC) hereby approves your project as indicated above.

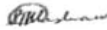
General Conditions

While this ethics approval is subject to all conditions, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The project leader (principal investigator) must report in the prescribed forms to the REC.
- Annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project, and upon completion of the project.
- Minor delays in case of any adverse event (or any other that contravenes sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
- Annually a number of projects may be considered for an ethical audit.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Should any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the REC. Should there be deviation from the protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Should the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the REC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility, the REC retains the right to:
 - Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
 - To ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process.
 - withdraw or postpone approval if
 - Any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected.
 - It becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the REC or that information has been false or misrepresented.
 - The required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately.
 - New institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

ISSUED BY:
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
Date Considered: May 2022


Name of the RESSC Chairperson of the Committee: Prof TS Mashau

Signature 

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR
RESEARCH AND INNOVATION

2022 -07- 0 4

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Thohoyandou 0950


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Annexure C

LETTER TO THE RESPONDENTS

Enquiry: Maemu E

P.O. Box 623

Cell : 0796008634

Lwamondo

Email : maemuemmanuel@gmail.com

0985

01 October 2019

Dear Sir or Madam

I, Maemu Emmanuel, am a student at the University of Venda, registered for Doctor of Administration (MSPDA), at the Department of Public and Development Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences. I am conducting research on “Evaluation of the impact of Covid-19 on the National Development Plan 2030: A case of Vhembe District Municipality.

I humbly request that you be part of the study by providing your understanding of the research topic as written above. The information that you will provide will be used only for the purpose of this study.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely

.....

Maemu E

Student Number: 14014756

Annexure D

INFORMED CONSENT

I, Maemu Emmanuel, am a registered student at the University of Venda, at the School of Management Sciences. I am conducting research on the impact of Covid-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan 2030: A case of Vhembe District Municipality. In this study, the researcher will provide informed consent to the respondents for them to provide information regarding the research topic. This will enable the respondents to understand the study and be free to decide to participate in it or decline participation voluntary. Identities of participation will be kept secret during and after the research study. In additional, participants will remain anonymous.

Participation in the study is voluntary and respondents may withdraw at any time without any penalty. All questionnaires and interview data will be handled with confidentiality by the researcher. Participants can refuse to answer certain questions if they feel uncomfortable during the process of collecting data. Furthermore, respondents will not be exposed to harmful situations or positions where they would be comprised. The respondents will be informed that they will not be exposed to physical threats during the process of the research. The information that will be provided by the respondents will not be used for any other purpose except to help the researcher to meet the academic comprises. Any questions or any further clarification concerning the study can be directed to:

.....
Maemu E (Mr.)

.....
Date

Cell: 0796008634

Email: maemuemanuel@gmail.com

ANNEXURE E

INSTRUMENT - QUESTIONNAIRE

THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030: A CASE OF VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

This study seeks to investigate the impact of COVID-19 in the implementation of the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality. I humbly request you to be part of the study, by providing your perspective on the impact of COVID-19 in the implementation of the NDP 2030. Note that there is no right or wrong answer. The responses provided will only be used for the purpose of this study. For any enquiries you may have, you may contact the researcher at 079 600 8634 or alternatively contact the supervisors at 015 962 8059/8022. Please put a cross (X) where you fill it is appropriate.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF RESPONDENT

1. Gender of respondent

Male	1
Female	2

2. Age of respondent

Less than 21 years	1
22 to 30 years	2
31 to 40 years	3
41 to 50 years	4
51 years and above	5

3. Category of respondent

1	Executive Mayor	1
2	Municipal Manager	2
3	Integrated Development Plan (IDP) official	3
4	Local Economic Development (LED) official	4
5	Communication Manager	5
6	Community Development Worker (CDW)	6
7	Traditional leader	7
8	Ward councilor	8
9	SANCO Member	9

10	Selected community member	10
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4. Educational qualification of the respondent

National senior certificate (Grade 12) and below	1
Bachelor's degree/ National diploma	2
Honors degree	3
Master's degree	4
Doctoral degree	5

5. Employment Status of the respondents

Unemployed	1
Employed	2
Self-employed	3

SECTION B: THE STATE OF COVID-19 IN SOUTH AFRICA

Item No. 1	The state of covid-19 in South Africa	Strong Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6	COVID-19 (coronavirus) is having a major impact on South Africa's economy.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Workers with low education levels are much more strongly affected than workers with secondary or tertiary education by COVID-19.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Most permanent workers in the Municipality have been pushed out of permanent jobs to informal or temporary contracts as a coping mechanism for businesses affected by COVID-19	1	2	3	4	5
9	Inequalities within and among nations are being exposed and exacerbated by COVID-19, as the poor and vulnerable are unable to protect themselves.	1	2	3	4	5

10	Vhembe District Municipality is one of the municipalities with the high number of COVID-19 cases in the Limpopo Province.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Capacity of the local economy at the end of the COVID-19 tunnel will be significantly impaired and recovery will take longer	1	2	3	4	5

Item No. 2	The implication of COVID-19 in the National Development Plan 2030.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
12	Municipal financial budget has been severely affected by the Covid-19 pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5
13	The COVID-19 crisis has put more pressure on the goals of the NDP by increasing unemployment, economic decline, corruption and nonattendance of schools through lockdown regulations.	1	2	3	4	5
14	The COVID-19 crisis has had lasting financial utilization only to the health care facilities.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Fiscal revenues influence to finance the implementation of the NDP.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Covid-19 found the NDP with pre-existing vulnerabilities that are now being exacerbated.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The NDP would not be fully implemented even in the absence of the Covid-19 pandemic	1	2	3	4	5
18	There has been inequality within and among communities in the Vhembe District Municipality even before COVID-19 pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5

Item No. 3	COVID-19 related challenges that prohibits effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
19	There is no proper implementation of the National Development Plan due to the lockdown regulations in Vhembe District Municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Many people lost their jobs and economy declines during the pandemic as companies reduced staff or closed down in the jurisdiction of the Municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic in the Municipality, the NDP implementation has been slowed down because available resources are used to find solutions in fighting against the Covid-19 pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5
22	The Municipality is under considerable pressure, with financial sustainability and the COVID-19 pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Innovation is essential for an effective response to and recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income within the Municipality.	1	2	3	4	5

Item No. 4	Strategies that can be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
24	The Municipality should develop policies dealing with social and economic effects, as well as ensuring a secure and sustainable longer-term recovery after COVID-19 pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Infrastructure investment, municipal service delivery and maintenance of the existing infrastructure should be improved to boost economic reconstruction and recovery after COVID-19 pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Employment creation through public employment programs that are able to create a large number of jobs in the shorter term should be promoted by the Municipality after the pandemic.	1	2	3	4	5
27	The Municipality should ensure a balanced and inclusive recovery through strategic investment, regional development and improving living standards of its communities.	1	2	3	4	5
28	The Municipality should strengthen partnerships between the private sector and local municipalities within its jurisdiction to improve the implementation of the NDP.	1	2	3	4	5

“THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION”

INSTRUMENT - INTERVIEW-SCHEDULE

THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030: A CASE OF VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

This study seeks to investigate the impact of COVID-19 in the implementation of the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality. I humbly request you to be part of the study, by providing your perspective on the impact of COVID-19 in the implementation of the national development plan 2030. Note that there is no right or wrong answer. Please put a cross (X) where you fill it is appropriate. Participation is entirely voluntary and participants have the right to withdraw at any time. Participant's names in this study will not be known by anyone except the researcher and they must not be afraid when providing information.

SECTION A: PERSONAL INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANT

1. Gender of participant

Male	1
Female	2

2. Age of participant

Less than 21 years	1
22 to 30 years	2
31 to 40 years	3
41 to 50 years	4
51 years and above	5

3. Category of participant

1	Executive Mayor	1
2	Municipal Manager	2
2	Integrated Development Plan (IDP) officials	3
3	Local Economic Development (LED) officials	4
4	Communication Manager	5
5	Community Development Workers-(CDW)	6
6	Traditional leaders	7

7	Ward councilors	8
8	SANCO Member	9
9	Selected community members	10

4. Qualification of the participant

National senior certificate (Grade 12) and below	1
Bachelor's degree/ National diploma	2
Honors degree/ B-Tech	3
Master's degree/ M-Tech	4
Doctoral degree/ D-Tech	5

5. Employment Status of the respondents

Unemployed	1
Employed	2
Self-employed	3

SECTION B: THE IMPACT OF COVID-19 IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN 2030

6. What is the state of COVID-19 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

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7. What would you say is the relationship between COVID-19 and National Development Plan 2030 in the context of your Municipality?

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8. What are the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

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8.1 What are the causes of the COVID-19 challenges that prohibit effective implementation of the National Development Plan 2030 in the Vhembe District Municipality?

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9. Which strategies could be used to improve the sustainable implementation of the National Development Plan 2030?

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“THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION”

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES, SOCIAL SCIENCES AND EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH, MEDIA STUDIES AND LINGUISTICS

08 March 2023

To whom it may concern

This serves to certify that I have been requested by Mr Emmanuel Maemu (Student Number 14014756) to proofread the final research dissertation for Doctor of Administration. The student is attached to the Department of Public and Developmental Administration in the Faculty of Management Sciences.

The title of the study is: **The impact of COVID-19 on the implementation of the National Development Plan: A case study of Vhembe District Municipality**. I have read the whole document and made suggestions reflected through track changes software and highlighted general errors.

Yours Sincerely




Mzamani J. Maluleke



PRIVATE BAG XS050, THOHoyANDOU, 0950, SOUTH AFRICA
TEL +27 15 962 8291

VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY
PRIVATE BAG X5006, TSOHOVANDOLI, 0950
TEL: 015 960 2000, FAX: 015 962 1017
Website: www.vhembe.gov.za




Ref: 4/2/1
Enq: Tshikovha N.C
Date: 07 June 2022

Attention: Maemu E

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH: YOURSELF

1. Your undated application refers.
2. It is with pleasure to inform you that your application to conduct research on **"The impact of covid-19 in the implementation of the national development plan 2030: A case of Vhembe District Municipality"** is hereby granted to you.
3. Please contact Mrs Tshivhinda M (Development Planning General Manager) at 015 960 3599 in order to arrange the starting date.
4. Should there be anything you need clarity on, feel free to call our office at 015 960 3558/015 960 3541.

Kind Regards



MUNICIPAL MANAGER
NDOU T.S

9/6/2022
DATE

"Developmental municipality in using an sustainable service delivery and socio-economic development towards an equal society"





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maemu

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