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DEVELOPING A PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP GOVERNANCE FRAMEWORK TO DRIVE INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT: THE ZIMBABWE INVESTMENT AND DEVELOPMENT AGENCY.

BY

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DECLARATION

I, AGNES JAVA Student Reg Number B231629B, do hereby declare that this dissertation is a result of my own investigation and research, except to the extent indicated in the acknowledgments, bibliography, references, and comments included in the body of the report, and that it has not been submitted in part or in full for any other degree to any other university.

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DEDICATION

To my precious daughters: Kutenda Eleora Yamikani and Kuvimba Arial Yana Java. You were deprived of your mother daughters' times, your patience, and understanding made the journey easier. The overwhelming moments you had to endure with your mother during the journey of this work. The work is entitled to Agnes Java, but it also belongs to you Kutenda and Kuvimba.

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ABSTRACT

Zimbabwe has been characterised by a continuous deterioration in existing public infrastructure due to the decade-long economic downturn. Despite persuasive heuristics and pragmatic promotion for the use of Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) to infuse dynamism into public sector infrastructure development, little is known about their progress in Zimbabwe's state universities. The study intended to develop a Public-Private Partnership Governance Framework for Zimbabwe to Drive Infrastructure Development. A mixed research methodology was adopted, pragmatism was the research philosophy and case study of ZIDA. Abductive research approaches and concurrent transformative research designs were used and were collected using questionnaire and interview. The population was 123 employees at head office in different departments; the researcher used purposive sampling to determine simple size of 80 people. 75 questionnaires were returned out of the 80 questionnaires distributed and as a result the response rate was 93.75%. SPSS 20.0 package was used to analyse the data**.** The study concluded that the existing PPP models of ZIDA, included Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT), Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO), and Equity. The major challenges for the current PPPs were regulatory uncertainty, financial constraints, corruption and governance issues, stakeholder engagement, political and economic conditions. The study recommended that to develop a framework that includes the voices of all relevant stakeholders—government entities, private sector players, civil society, and local communities, there should be defined clear roles and responsibilities for ZIDA and other governmental agencies. It was further recommended that further research be undertaken on the factors affecting the drive for Infrastructure Development in the public sector in an unstable environment such as in Zimbabwe.

Keywords: Public infrastructure, Zimbabwe state universities, Public-Private Partnerships, Build-Operate-Transfer

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ACRONYMS

PPP ..... Public private Partnership

ZIDA ..... Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency

PFI..... Private finance initiative

NLB..... New Limpopo bridge

BBR..... Beitbridge Bulawayo Railway

BT.....Bilateral Transfer

BOT.....Build operate transfer

NRZ.....National Railways of Zimbabwe

DB ..... Design-Build

BTS ..... Build-and-Transfer Scheme

DBFO ..... Design-Build-Finance-Operate

BOOT ..... Build-Own-Operate-and-Transfer Scheme

BLT ..... Build-Lease-and-Transfer

BTO.....Build-Transfer-and Operate

ROT.....Rehabilitate-Operate and Transfer

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

The periods of economic downturn in Zimbabwe saw continued deterioration in existing public infrastructure, which were worsened by the Government's inability to allocate a significant portion of the national budget towards capital projects due to absence of fiscal space. Following the general acknowledgement from the government they made private sector to become the engine of infrastructure development, there was need for more investment in growth-enhancing sectors such as power, transport and water sectors, there was consensus among all stakeholders that the private sector had to contribute. The Government then took a stance to adopt public-private sector partnerships (PPPs), under which the private sector would be invited into partnering the Government, mostly through funding, for the development of infrastructure as well as ensuring the necessary technological transfer. The Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA) was established to attract investment and promote economic development. However, the success of ZIDA in achieving its mandate depended heavily on creating a conducive environment for PPPs. A well-structured governance framework for PPPs under ZIDA could serve as a cornerstone for infrastructure development and, ultimately, economic recovery. The research sought to develop a comprehensive PPP governance framework tailored to ZIDA's context.

The study was intended to develop public-private partnership governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development, a case study of Zimbabwe investment development agency. It was because of periods of economic downturns and infrastructure development issues that had been noted and observed in Zimbabwe. The introductory chapter discussed the background of the study, which in turn brought out the statement of the problem of carrying out the research followed by the objectives. The chapter went on to give the research questions, justification, scope of the study, assumptions, delimitations, definition of terms and chapter summary.

1.1 Background of the Study

According to Maposa, and Munanga, (2021), Public private partnerships involved contracts between a public-sector authority and a private party, in which the private party provided a public service or project and assumed substantial financial, technical and operational risk in the project. They could be defined as legally binding contracts between government and business for the provision of assets and the delivery of services that allocated responsibilities and business risks among the various partners (Partnerships British Colombia, 2013). PPPs were intended to obtain more "value for money" than under traditional public procurement options, and when correctly implemented, they produced reduced life-cycle costs, better risk allocation, faster implementation of public works and services, improved service quality and additional revenue streams (Renda, and Schrefler, 2016). PPPs were generally proposed for mobilizing funding and expertise for infrastructure that was considered key for infrastructure development, at a time when government had limited resources, and the assets involved were considered too critical and placed in the hands of the private sector. In the process, they produced a win-win situation to both the private sector and government as both parties stood to benefit. For the government, they resulted in improved service delivery in comparison with the situation where government was operating alone. They also resulted in improved cost effectiveness, as the private sector came in with innovative ideas and experience. PPPs were said to also increase investment in public infrastructure (where traditionally the source of funding would be the financially handicapped public sector), such as public hospitals, schools, highways and utility infrastructure. In addition, which reduced public sector risk as it was shared with the private sector and resulted in better use of government assets (Maposa, and Munanga, 2021).

Meaney, and Hope, (2019) stated that for the private sector, opportunities also existed, albeit some risks were also present. They gained revenues in the form of fees collected from users (for instance, tollgates), fees paid by government, as well as profitability following the use of their innovative approaches and gain in efficiencies making the entity more profitable. Infrastructure development is pivotal for economic growth, particularly in emerging economies like Zimbabwe. The need for robust infrastructure—spanning transport, energy, telecommunications, and water supply—had become more pronounced

in the wake of the country's economic challenges. Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) had emerged as an essential tool for bridging the gap between public sector funding limitations and the need for rapid infrastructure development (Nhabinde, and Fischer, 2018)

1.1.1 The global state of Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs)

According to Dube, and Chigumira, (2018), Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) had gained appreciation as a strategic method to tackle infrastructure deficits and enhancing public service delivery across the globe. The World Bank (2021) defined PPPs as collaborative arrangements between public authorities and private sector entities, designed to finance, build, and operate public infrastructure projects. Globally, PPPs had been utilized in various sectors, including transportation, healthcare, and education, to increase efficiency and mobilize private investment. For instance, the United Kingdom's Private Finance Initiative (PFI) had successfully facilitated numerous infrastructure projects, demonstrating how effective PPPs could lead to improved public services (World Bank, 2020). Similarly, countries like Australia and Canada had harnessed the potential of PPPs to modernize infrastructure, effectively reducing public expenditure while enhancing service quality (OECD, 2019). The global trend indicated that well-structured PPP frameworks could lead to sustainable development outcomes, if governance mechanisms ensured accountability, transparency, and stakeholder engagement.

In Africa, infrastructure development was critical for infrastructure development, with the African Development Bank (2020) estimated that the continent required between $130 billion and $170 billion annually to close the infrastructure gap. Given the significant financing needs, PPPs had emerged as a viable solution to mobilize private investment and expertise for public projects. Countries such as South Africa and Kenya exemplify successful PPP initiatives, particularly in sectors like renewable energy and transportation. The Renewable Energy Independent Power Producer Procurement Program in South Africa had attracted substantial private investments and had been a model for sustainable energy projects (Deloitte, 2020). However, the implementation of PPPs in Africa faced several challenges, including weak regulatory frameworks, political instability, and insufficient institutional capacity (World Bank, 2020). These issues often hindered the effective execution of PPP projects, which resulted in delays and cost overruns.

Despite these challenges, many African nations were actively seeking to improve their PPP frameworks. The African Union emphasized the importance of enhancing governance structures to promote transparency and accountability in PPP arrangements (Bloughton, 2019). By learning from both successful and unsuccessful experiences across the continent, African countries could develop tailored strategies to optimize the impact of PPPs on infrastructure development.

1.1.2 The Zimbabwe state of Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs)

Dube, and Chigumira, (2018), stated that Zimbabwe's infrastructure landscape presented a unique context for the implementation of PPPs, particularly in the wake of extensive infrastructure deterioration and fiscal constraints. The Zimbabwe Investment Development Agency (ZIDA) was established to facilitate investment and drive economic recovery through partnerships with the private sector. The country's infrastructure, particularly in transportation, energy, and water supply, had seen significant decline over the years, adversely affecting economic productivity and quality of life (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2021).

Furthermore Dube, and Chigumira, (2018), highlighted that although PPPs were propounded preceding from 1998, it was only in 2014 that the Government made the first attempt of a framework on PPP investment in the country. That was in the form of the Public Private Partnership in Zimbabwe Policy and Guidelines of 2014, which sought to provide the parameters for the development of an appropriate legal and regulatory framework to protect investors and consumers. The Guidelines however never really took off in a significant fashion, even though some PPP projects had been done in the country. Among those that could be found were three projects that involved PPPs, namely the Beitbridge Bulawayo Railway (BBR), the New Limpopo Bridge (NLB) and the Newlands By-Pass (NBP) (ZNCC, 2019).

The Newlands Bypass was completed in 2007 and was done on a Bilateral Transfer (BT) basis with the constructor handing over to the government upon completion. It consisted of a four-lane highway that started from the south of Newlands shopping centre and then

re-joins Enterprise Road at the intersection with Kew Drive and Glenara Avenue North (Dube, and Chigumira, 2018)

The NLB involved the financing and building of a toll bridge over the Limpopo River and was awarded to a private player in 1993 by the Governments of Zimbabwe and South Africa on a Build Operate Transfer (BOT) basis. The project was the first BOT project of that nature in the African continent. The PPP saw the birth of a new company, the New Limpopo Bridge (Pvt) Ltd., a private company, incorporated and registered in Zimbabwe, and a subsidiary of NLPI Ltd, an investment holding company, whose main investment focused on infrastructure-related projects on the continent of Africa. The construction of the bridge was completed in a record time of thirteen months and was officially commissioned by the Presidents of Zimbabwe and South Africa on 24 November 1995. The company to date still operates the bridge, and managed to computerize its systems to ease procedures for crossing the border and aid the promotion of trade and development (Zimbabwe National Road Agency Report, 2014)

The BBR was a project also implemented in Zimbabwe on a BOT basis by Beitbridge Bulawayo Railway (PVT) Limited (BBR), a subsidiary of NLPI Ltd, (just like in the NLB), established to implement the project. BBR was a 350km railway line from Beitbridge to Bulawayo, which was also built in record time for such a project, with the construction phase lasting only 18 months. The BBR line linked an essential corridor of development in Zimbabwe and also shortened the time of the journey between the South African border and Bulawayo from a matter of days to only nine hours, which provided seamless rail service from the South African ports to Bulawayo and other destinations along that line. One motivation factor behind the BBR was the transportation of fuel into the southern parts of Zimbabwe from South Africa; hence optimal use of the system depended on availability of funds to source fuel (Dube, 2016).

Recognizing the potential of PPPs to revitalize infrastructure, the Zimbabwean government began to promote these partnerships to attract foreign and local investment. However, the effectiveness of PPPs in Zimbabwe was often undermined by several factors, including inadequate governance frameworks, lack of transparency, and bureaucratic inefficiencies

(ZIDA, 2021). Additionally, the historical context of economic instability and policy inconsistency led to investor scepticism regarding the sustainability of such partnerships.

A robust governance framework was essential for the successful implementation of PPPs in Zimbabwe. The framework was to address specific local challenges, ensuring equitable partnerships, transparency in operations, and mechanisms for stakeholder engagement. By drawing on best practices from global and African contexts, Zimbabwe could create a PPP governance framework that not only drives infrastructure development but also contributes to broader economic recovery (Mhlanga, 2015).

The development of a Public-Private Partnership governance framework in Zimbabwe would be critical for addressing the infrastructure deficit and fostering economic recovery. By analysing global and African perspectives, along with the unique challenges faced within Zimbabwe, the study aimed to propose a comprehensive framework that enhanced the effectiveness of PPPs. Such a framework would facilitate sustainable infrastructure development while promoting accountability and transparency in public-private collaborations (ZIDA, 2021).

Zimbabwe had faced significant economic challenges over the past two decades, marked by hyperinflation, political instability, and a decline in public service delivery. The deterioration of the country's infrastructure was one of the most visible and damaging consequences of the economic downturn (Mudzonga, &Mupunga, 2019). With dilapidated roads, unreliable electricity supply, inadequate water systems, and outdated telecommunications infrastructure, Zimbabwe's ability to sustain economic growth and attract investment was severely compromised.

Infrastructure was widely recognized as a key driver of economic development, providing the foundation for commerce, industry, and the overall functioning of society. The World Bank (2016) emphasized that infrastructure investments can stimulate economic growth, create jobs, and improve the quality of life. However, the Zimbabwean government's fiscal constraints made it increasingly difficult to finance the necessary infrastructure projects. As a result, Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) emerged as a viable mechanism to bridge the infrastructure financing gap (Mupunga, 2019).

PPPs were collaborative agreements between the public and private sectors to design, finance, build, and operate infrastructure projects. Globally, PPPs were successful in mobilizing private sector resources and expertise to deliver public goods and services (Hodge & Greve, 2007). In Africa, countries like South Africa and Kenya utilized PPPs to develop essential infrastructure, demonstrating the potential of these partnerships in contexts similar to Zimbabwe (Fourie, 2015). Despite their promise, PPPs were regarded as complex arrangements that required robust governance frameworks to ensure their success.

In recognition of the importance of PPPs, the Zimbabwean government established the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA) in 2019. ZIDA's mandate included promoting investment and facilitating PPPs to drive infrastructure development and economic recovery. However, ZIDA faced significant challenges in fulfilling their mandate. The existing legal and regulatory framework for PPPs in Zimbabwe was underdeveloped, lacking the clarity and structure needed to manage these complex partnerships effectively (Mutambudzi, 2021). Additionally, the country's governance environment had been characterized by corruption, political interference, and a lack of transparency, further undermining investor confidence and the successful implementation of PPP projects (Mudzonga, &Mupunga, 2019).

Given these challenges, there was a pressing need to develop a comprehensive PPP governance framework tailored to Zimbabwe's specific context. Such a framework would provide clear guidelines for project selection, risk allocation, contract management, and dispute resolution, ensuring that PPPs are managed transparently and efficiently. That framework was particularly critical for ZIDA, as it pursued to attract both domestic and international investment in infrastructure projects (Mudzonga, &Mupunga, 2019).

The development of a PPP governance framework at ZIDA was not only essential for infrastructure development but also for Zimbabwe's broader economic recovery. Infrastructure deficits were a significant impediment to growth, and without improvements in that area, the country's economic prospects could remain limited. A well-structured PPP framework could help unlock the potential of the private sector, drive infrastructure development, and support Zimbabwe's long-term development goals (Littlewood, 2016)

1.1.3 Need for PPPs in Zimbabwe

1.1.3.1 Railway Transport System Infrastructure

The rail track in Zimbabwe was owned by the Government through the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ), which owned and operated a 2 760km line with an estimated capacity to move 18 million tonnes of goods per year, with a significant proportion of that capacity no longer available. That is shown in Table 1.1, which shows how capacity utilisation has fallen over the years hence calls for PPPs intervention.

Tables 1 Capacity utilisation in the railway sector in Zimbabwe

Tonnage (Millions)	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Design capacity	18	18	18	18	18	18
Tonnage moved	3.7	3.5	3	2.7	2	1.9
Capacity utilisation	20.5%	19.4%	16,7%	15%	11.1%	10.5%

Source: National Railways of Zimbabwe, (2023)

NRZ officials disclosed that NRZ's capacity to move bulk cargo deteriorated drastically during the last decade (Dube, 2023). That was at a time when about 42% of NRZ's infrastructure was used to transports energy and mining cargo, followed by agriculture that used 33%, industry using 16% and transit goods at 9%. However about 17% of the country's railway network was marred with restrictions or cautions, which limited the speed at which goods were moved. In addition, about 32% of NRZ's locomotives were in service and about 46% of the wagons (which were close to 9 000 in all) were also in service.

1.1.3.2 The power sector in Zimbabwe

Furthermore, the power sector Zimbabwe was struggling to meet its energy requirements, at a time when industrial demand for electricity, for the resuscitation of the economy had

increased. Aging infrastructure and lack of spares was given as the reasons for the incessant outages and blackouts, while limited generation capacity was cited as the reason for the extensive load shedding programme, a reaction to excess demand over supply. There was no significant heavy investment in internal electricity generation in Zimbabwe since 1984, at a time when the demand for electricity had been increasing, estimated to be at an average annual rate of 2.5% (Batidzirai,2022). In 2019, it was estimated that about US$3.6 billion was needed to invest in electricity generation projects needed for adequate supplies of electricity (ZNCC, 2019). The lack of capacity for the government to invest in the sector pointed to the need for well managed PPPs.

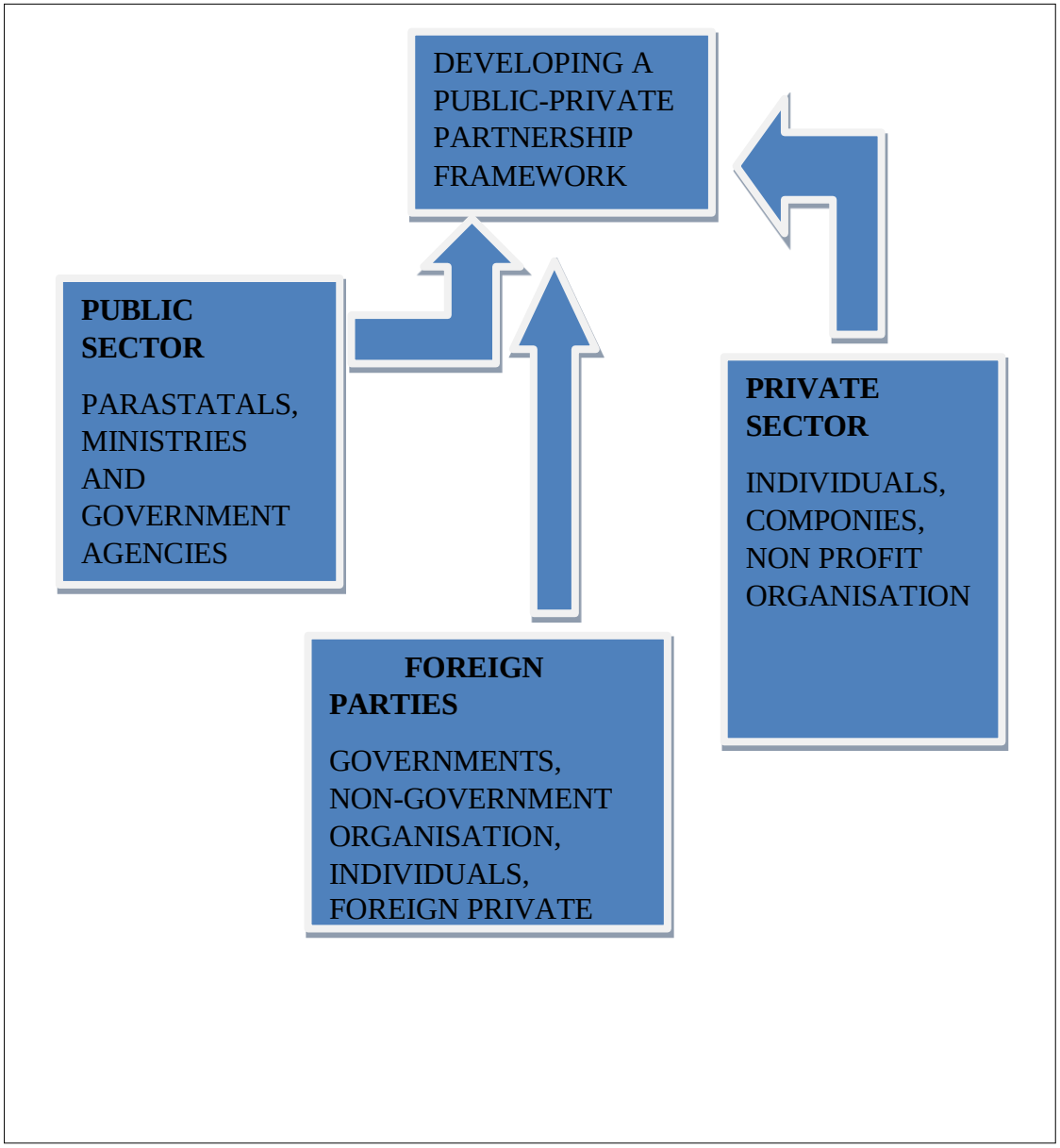
Tables 2 Installed and available electricity capacity in Zimbabwe

Power Plant	Installed capacity (MW)	Available Capacity (MW)	Capacity utilisation (%)
Kariba	750	620	83
Hwange	920	252	27.4
Harare	100	0	0
Bulawayo	90	0	0
Munyati	100	30	30
Total	1960	902	46

(Source: ZESA report, 2023)

According to Mhlanga (2022) with ZEPARU, NRZ and ZESA they disclosed that PPPs were mostly needed in locomotives, wagon refurbishment, and increasing power capacity as currently they were not enough to allow NRZ and ZESA to perform their roles in economic stabilisation. In addition, the private sector could also come in for the upgrading and modernisation of signalling and telecommunications systems, where PPPs were needed mostly to repair the existing infrastructure, with replacement mostly needed where the equipment were vandalised. However, ZEPARU, NRZ and ZESA cautioned that the nature of PPPs in the railways sector in Zimbabwe must be carefully structured for them to be effective. Firstly, NRZ and ZESA only needed financing from the private sector as it had the necessary expertise, and under PPPs, they would still continue to be in control of all operations.

Figures 1 GENERIC MODEL OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP FRAMEWORK IN ZIMBABWE



(Source: Researchers Survey 2024)

Since ZIDA was a service agency, there was need to adopt service quality models that worked for the survival of the investment opportunities in Zimbabwe.

1.1.4 CHALLENGES FACED BY ZIDA

In examining Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) in Zimbabwe, the frameworks of SWOT, PESTLEG, and VUCA reveal critical insights into the challenges and opportunities present in that context.

- **SWOT Analysis**

The SWOT analysis highlighted several significant issues for PPPs in Zimbabwe. Strengths of the Zimbabwean landscape included its abundant natural resources and strategic geographic location, which could attract foreign investment (Moyo, 2022). However, these strengths are countered by notable weaknesses, such as political instability, corruption, and a lack of clear regulatory frameworks. These weaknesses undermined investor confidence and hindered the establishment of effective partnerships (Chikozho, 2023). Opportunities for PPPs were particularly pronounced in infrastructure development, especially in sectors like energy and transportation, where urgent investment was needed to address service delivery challenges (Mlambo, 2021). On the other hand, threats such as economic instability, hyperinflation, and inadequate funding mechanisms posed significant risks that could derail PPPs initiatives (Mlambo, 2021).

- **PESTLEG Analysis**

The PESTLEG framework further elucidated the external factors that influenced PPPs. Political factors were critical, as governance issues, inconsistent policies, and a lack of accountability created an uncertain environment for potential investors (Masukume, 2023). Economic conditions, marked by hyperinflation and currency volatility, exacerbate risks, complicating financial projections and sustainability of PPP projects (Sibanda, 2022). On the social front, there was a pressing demand for improved infrastructure, which offered opportunities for PPPs to meet these needs, though public scepticism about private sector motives remained as a barrier (Nyoni, 2023). Technologically, while advancements could enhance project execution and efficiency, challenges such as a digital divide and insufficient technological infrastructure persisted (Nyoni, 2023). Regarding legal aspects, the absence of a comprehensive legal framework for PPPs could deter investments due to fears of arbitrary governmental decisions (Dube, 2022). Environmental considerations were increasingly significant, as projects were supposed to align with sustainability goals

to gain public and investor support. Finally, global perceptions of Zimbabwe's political and economic climate could significantly influence foreign investment decisions, which were often driven by risk assessments (Gumbo, 2023).

- **VUCA Analysis**

The VUCA framework—Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, and Ambiguity—captured the challenging environment for PPPs in Zimbabwe. Volatility is evident in the frequent fluctuations in economic conditions and political landscapes, making it difficult for private partners to establish stable investment plans (Chirisa, 2023). Uncertainty stemmed from inconsistent governmental policies and the potential for abrupt changes in the political environment, creating apprehension among investors (Masukume, 2023). The complexity of navigating multiple stakeholders involved in PPPs projects complicated coordination and execution, often resulted in delays and increased costs (Gumbo, 2023). Lastly, ambiguity surrounding the regulatory environment and legal protections created further challenges for stakeholders trying to navigate the PPP landscape (Ndlovu, 2023).

- **Effects of the challenges on PPPs in Zimbabwe**

The combined effects of these analysis indicated that while there were substantial opportunities for PPPs to contribute to Zimbabwe's development, significant challenges persisted. The overarching issues of political and economic instability, a lack of regulatory clarity, and public scepticism hindered the effective establishment and execution of PPPs. Investors were often deterred by the high levels of risk associated with these factors, which complicated their decision-making processes. Addressing these critical issues—by strengthening regulatory frameworks, enhancing transparency, and fostering a stable political climate—would be essential for creating a more favourable environment for PPPs in Zimbabwe (Ndlovu, 2023). Ultimately, without a concerted effort to mitigate these challenges, the potential of PPPs as a tool for sustainable development would remain largely untapped.

The study aimed to address the gap in Zimbabwe's current PPPs framework by developing a governance model that aligned with ZIDA's objectives and the country's unique socio-economic conditions. By doing so, it sought to enhance ZIDA's capacity to manage PPPs

effectively and contribute to Zimbabwe's infrastructure development and economic recovery.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

According to Gumbo (2018), Zimbabwe's infrastructure was in a state of significant decline, with an estimated $34 billion needed to restore and develop critical infrastructure across sectors such as transport, energy, water, and telecommunications (African Development Bank, 2020). The country's deteriorating infrastructure was becoming a major impediment to economic growth, with the World Bank (2020) noting that Zimbabwe's infrastructure deficit reduced the nation's GDP growth potential by up to 3% annually. Given the government's constrained fiscal capacity, Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) had emerged as a crucial mechanism to bridge the infrastructure financing gap. However, the success of PPPs in Zimbabwe was limited due to an underdeveloped governance framework. Existing PPPs initiatives had faced challenges related to weak regulatory structures, lack of transparency, and political interference, which had discouraged private sector investment (Mutambudzi, 2021). The Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA), established in 2019 to attract investment and facilitate PPPs, lacked a comprehensive governance framework tailored to Zimbabwe's unique socio-economic and political context. That gap had resulted in inefficiencies in project implementation and further eroded investor confidence. Developing a robust PPP governance framework was essential to enhance ZIDA's capacity to drive infrastructure development and support Zimbabwe's broader economic recovery efforts vision 2030.

1.3 Research Objectives

The main objectives of the research were:

1.3.1 Analyze the current Public-Private Partnership (PPP) models implemented by the Zimbabwe Investment Development Agency (ZIDA).

1.3.2 Identify the challenges and weaknesses within Zimbabwe's existing PPP governance framework.

1.3.3 Examine and evaluate the PPP policies adopted by ZIDA to determine their effectiveness and areas for improvement.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 What are the existing PPP models of ZIDA?

1.4.2 What are the challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe?

1.4.3 What are the PPP policies adopted by ZIDA?

1.5 Hypothesis

H1: Developing a comprehensive Public-Private Partnership (PPP) governance framework for (ZIDA) can contribute to Zimbabwe's Infrastructure Development.

H0: The development of a comprehensive Public-Private Partnership (PPP) governance framework for ZIDA cannot contribute to Zimbabwe's Infrastructure Development.

1.6 Research Assumptions

- **Availability of Data and Information:**

It was assumed that relevant data and information regarding previous Public-Private Partnership (PPP) projects in Zimbabwe, including successes and failures, would be accessible. That included data from government agencies, international organizations, and private sector partners.

- **Stakeholder Cooperation:**

The research assumed that stakeholders, including ZIDA officials, government representatives, private sector investors, and international development agencies, would cooperate and provide insights, experiences, and recommendations necessary for developing the PPP governance framework.

- **Stability in the Political Environment:**

The research assumed that the political environment in Zimbabwe would remain stable enough to implement the proposed PPP governance framework without significant disruption from political interference.

- **Legal and Institutional Framework:**

Furthermore, it was assumed that the legal and institutional frameworks in Zimbabwe were flexible enough to incorporate modifications or the introduction of new governance structures without significant legal obstacles.

- **Investment Climate:**

The research assumed that Zimbabwe's economic conditions would continue to improve gradually, making it a more attractive destination for private sector investment through PPPs.

- **Relevance of Global Best Practices:**

It was assumed that global best practices in PPPs governance could be adapted to Zimbabwe's socio-economic context and that lessons learned from other countries' experiences would be applicable in the Zimbabwean setting.

- **Resources Availability:**

It was assumed that the necessary financial, human, and technical resources required to develop and implement the PPPs governance framework would be available to ZIDA and relevant stakeholders.

- **Public Acceptance:**

The research assumed that the public would support the use of PPPs for infrastructure development, recognizing their potential to improve service delivery and contribute to economic recovery.

- **Commitment from Government**

The study assumed that the Zimbabwean government would remain committed to supporting PPPs initiatives and ZIDA's role in facilitating these partnerships.

1.7 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to develop a comprehensive Public-Private Partnership (PPP) governance framework specifically tailored for the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA). The framework aims to enhance the effectiveness, transparency, and sustainability of PPPs initiatives in Zimbabwe, with a focus on driving infrastructure development and supporting the country's economic recovery. By addressing the existing gaps in governance, regulatory structures, and investor engagement, the study sought to provide ZIDA with a practical and adaptable model that could facilitate successful partnerships between the public and private sectors.

The study also aimed to contribute to the broader understanding of how PPPs could be effectively managed in emerging economies facing fiscal constraints and governance challenges. Ultimately, the research intended to offer actionable recommendations that would not only strengthen ZIDA's capacity to implement PPPs projects but also promote long-term economic growth and development in Zimbabwe.

1.8 Significance of the study

The study was significant for several reasons:

- **Enhancing Infrastructure Development:**

Developing a robust Public-Private Partnership (PPP) governance framework for the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA) was crucial for overcoming the country’s severe infrastructure deficits. Effective infrastructure was essential for economic growth, industrial development, and improved quality of life. By providing a clear and efficient governance structure, the study aimed to facilitate the successful implementation of PPP projects, which would directly address infrastructure gaps and support economic development.

- **Stimulating Economic Recovery:**

Zimbabwe’s economic recovery was closely linked to its ability to revitalize and expand its infrastructure. A well-designed PPP governance framework would attract private sector investment, reduce the financial burden on the government, and stimulate economic

activity. Improved infrastructure would enhance productivity, create jobs, and foster a more conducive environment for business growth, contributing to the broader economic recovery of the country.

- **Building Investor Confidence:**

One of the critical challenges faced by Zimbabwe was the lack of investor confidence due to perceived risks and uncertainties in the PPP process. The study sought to provide a governance framework that addressed these concerns by establishing clear guidelines, reducing risks, and ensuring transparency and accountability. By doing so, it purposed to enhance the attractiveness of Zimbabwe as an investment destination, encouraging both domestic and international investors to participate in infrastructure projects.

- **Providing a Model for Other Developing Countries:**

The findings of the study had broader implications beyond Zimbabwe. The proposed PPPs governance framework could serve as a model for other developing countries with similar challenges. By demonstrating effectively managed and governed PPPs in a challenging context, the study offered valuable lessons and best practices that could be adapted to other settings, contributing to the global discourse on public-private partnerships.

- **Strengthening Institutional Capacity:**

The development of a comprehensive PPP governance framework sought to help build ZIDA's capacity to manage and facilitate PPPs projects effectiveness. That, in turn, would strengthen institutional capabilities within the Zimbabwean government and enhance the overall efficiency of public service delivery. Improved governance led to better project outcomes and more effective management of public-private collaborations.

- **Addressing Policy Gaps:**

The study would identify and address existing policy and regulatory gaps in Zimbabwe's current PPPs framework. By proposing actionable recommendations for policy improvements, the study would support the government in creating a more conducive environment for PPPs, aligning with best practices and international standards.

In summary, the study was important because it addressed critical issues related to infrastructure development in Zimbabwe. By developing a tailored PPP governance framework, it aimed to enhance infrastructure investment, stimulate economic growth, and provide a valuable reference for other developing nations.

1.9 Justification

Justification for Research on the PPP Governance Framework for ZIDA on Infrastructure Development in Zimbabwe

- **To Stakeholders (Private Investors, Government, Communities, NGOS)**

Zimbabwe was facing significant economic challenges, characterized by infrastructure deficits, high unemployment rates, and declining foreign investment. The need for effective governance frameworks to facilitate Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) in infrastructure development had never been more urgent. The Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA) played a crucial role in promoting investment and fostering economic recovery, making it imperative to develop a robust PPP governance framework that could enhance infrastructure projects and stimulate economic growth.

The country's infrastructure was in dire need of modernization and expansion. Poorly maintained roads, inadequate energy supply, and insufficient public transport systems hindered economic productivity and reduced the quality of life for citizens. Research into a PPPs governance framework tailored for ZIDA could provide actionable guidelines and best practices that could ensure effective collaboration between the public and private sectors. By addressing infrastructure gaps through well-governed PPPs, Zimbabwe could improve its economic outlook and enhance service delivery.

The COVID-19 pandemic had exacerbated existing economic challenges, making recovery efforts critical. Infrastructure development through PPPs could serve as a catalyst for economic recovery by creating jobs, stimulating local economies, and improving essential services. The proposed research sought to identify how a strong PPP governance framework could facilitate the process, enabling ZIDA to implement projects that not only address immediate infrastructure needs but also contribute to long-term economic resilience.

- **Enhancing Partners' Confidence**

A transparent and efficient PPPs governance framework was essential for attracting both local and foreign investors. As the study was carried out it noted that, the lack of clear regulations and inconsistent policies contributed to uncertainty in the investment climate. By establishing a governance framework that outlined roles, responsibilities, and processes, ZIDA could enhance investor confidence. The clarity would encourage more private sector participation in infrastructure projects, ultimately leading to better financing options and improved project execution.

- **Aligning with National Development Goals**

Zimbabwe had set ambitious national development goals, including the Vision 2030 framework, which aimed to achieve upper middle-income status by 2030. The integration of PPPs governance framework aligned with these goals by promoting sustainable infrastructure development. Research in that area would provide insights into how ZIDA could leverage PPPs to meet national objectives while ensuring that projects are economically viable and socially beneficial.

- **To Scholars**

Studying existing PPPs governance frameworks from successful global contexts could provide valuable lessons for Zimbabwe. Understanding what has worked well in other countries could inform the design of ZIDA's framework, helping to avoid common pitfalls and enhance the effectiveness of PPP initiatives. The research included comparative analyses that offered practical recommendations tailored to Zimbabwe's unique socio-economic landscape.

1.10 Delimitations of the study

1.10.1 Geographical Delimitations

The research was confined to ZIDA in Harare. Data was gathered from respondents who work in Harare and are within the age range of twenty-four (24) to Sixty-Five (65). Those are believed to be the age range for employees at ZIDA.

1.10.2 Time delimitations

The research was also confined to activities that came about between 2020 and 2024. The reference point for the research was the mentioned years.

1.10.3 Theoretical delimitations

The researcher was informed by literature on the existing PPPs governance frameworks textbooks and journals, specifically those that had to do with private sector participation in infrastructure projects.

1.11 Dissertation Layout

Chapter 1 – Introduction and background

The Chapter set the tone of the research by means of introducing the research problem and its origins. It also looked at the objectives of the study, research questions, research delimitations, and assumptions underlying the research.

Chapter 2 –Literature review

The chapter looked at major literature published that concerned issues to do with developing public-private partnerships governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development. It also investigated the already posted articles on public-private partnership governance framework. The chapter revealed preceding research that had been posted on the existing PPPs governance frameworks.

Chapter 3 –Methodology

The chapter glanced at the research methods that had been utilised within the research. It presented elements as to how the studies was accomplished. It explained and justified the research design used and also the population, sample and sampling techniques that were used.

Chapter 4- Results and discussion

The chapter peered at the research findings from both the questionnaire and interviews. The findings were provided using pie charts, histograms, and bar graphs. The consequences were analysed using descriptive and inferential records.

Chapter five -Conclusions and implications

The chapter gazed at the conclusions of the research by means of looking at every objective's' findings, then subsequently provided suggestions to various stakeholders. The chapter additionally opened opportunities for extra research. The chapter began with an introduction of the chapter and then gave a quick short conclusion that observed with the aid of recommendations, contributions to knowledge and any barriers, value of the study, areas for future research studies and a concluding paragraph of the complete dissertation.

1.12 Chapter Summary

Chapter one (1) emphasized the problem, scrutinized it and came up with research objectives, importance of the study and delimitations of the study. The subsequent chapter took a guise at the global perspective regarding PPPs and literature on developing a public-private partnership governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development in Zimbabwe and other nations. The chapter examined the origins and improvement of PPPs in Zimbabwe and other countries.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The chapter reviewed relevant literature from other researchers who had conducted research in the same field. It contained opinions, attributes, research outcomes and conclusions thereon from previous research work done by other researchers and organizations. The section discussed the conceptual framework, theoretical framework, the empirical literature and summary of the literature review. According to Ruddy (2021), literature review is a comprehensive summary and assessment of the existing research and scholarly literature on a particular topic or research question. The literature review provides an overview of what has been studied and published on a particular topic, helping to identify the key themes, concepts, and debates within the existing research.

2.1 Public Private Partnerships (PPPs)

Public private partnerships (PPPs) are defined as the coming together of the public sector (government) and private companies to undertake a developmental project. Usually the public sector contributes, but not limited to, the legal ownership of factors such as lands while the private sector is usually required wholly or partly financing the project, providing expert skills and technology/machinery. These PPPs had been a model for development in both developed and developing countries hence their continued applause in fostering such. Private players use PPPs projects to manage political risk on projects (Fourie, 2015). A solo run on big projects exposed the private players to the risk involving the "long arm" of governments whereas having the government involved in the project diffuses any irrational political decisions on these projects. *Fescues inadequacies* were the major factors that forced many governments to engage in PPPs, hence these PPPs were a win-win undertaking for both parties (Mutambudzi, 2021).

The political environment in Zimbabwe since the late 1980s had deteriorated thereby making it unconducive for the private sector to prosper. PPPs had been very scarce in the local market while infrastructure had also been dilapidating (World Bank. 2015). The absence of these PPPs had resulted in the infrastructure not being maintained to the

required levels since independence in 1980. While the deterioration of infrastructure had been a public outcry over the years, the government failed to raise funding for upgrade. While national frameworks on PPPs were not consolidated, there were fragmented frameworks which looked into PPPs under certain institutions. Zimbabwe Investment Authority (ZIA) now ZIDA had a marketing tool in which it encouraged Built Own Operate & Transfer (BOOT) with foreign investors. The expired inclusive Government also adopted a PPPs model for specific sectors. However, all these were fragmented and had not been passed into law (Batidzirai, 2022)

Construction projects played a vital role in resuscitating infrastructure. Infrastructure development was key to economic growth and development. It was until 1998 that the government of Zimbabwe made some renewed and more focused stride to embrace the PPPs model to development. The setting up of PPPs guidelines in 2004 ushered in a new era in development. In the history of Zimbabwe, post-independence, the problem of poor road network was the major factor identified as a drawback of economic development. While there had been comprehensive documentary review pertaining to the regulations on PPPs in Zimbabwe, there was not much empirical investigation of these issues where the actual players in the construction industry were used as a source of information (Batidzirai, 2022). It was critical to establish how relevant and practical the regulations put in place were. The research sought to reconcile these regulations and practice. The low uptake of PPPs in Zimbabwe may not be as a result of the assumed political decay only, but an array of other factors could be at play. According to Mavhunga, (2020) the use of PPPs models that conform to the environment and legislative structures was more critical as a driving force of PPPs than political situation. It was therefore of zenith to investigate the PPPs models that existed in Zimbabwe and how they fitted or not fit in the existing environment and the sufficiency of the legal framework was also scrutinised in the research (Mutambudzi, 2021).

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework underpinning the research involved the integrated Agency Theory, Transaction Cost Economics, and Institutional Theory to inform the development

of a Public-Private Partnership (PPP) governance framework for the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA).

2.2.1. Agency Theory

Agency Theory posits that there was an inherent conflict of interest between principals (the government) and agents (private sector partners) in PPPs arrangements. The theory emphasized the need for mechanisms to align the interests of both parties (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). The application of the agency theory in Zimbabwe involved aligning the Interests of all stakeholders. The governance framework should include contractual agreements that ensure alignment of goals between ZIDA and private partners. Clear performance metrics that could help mitigate conflicts of interest (Eisenhardt, 2019). There was need for regular audits and performance evaluations that could enhance accountability and minimize opportunistic behaviours by agents (Fama & Jensen, 1983). The framework should incorporate incentives for exceeding project benchmarks, encouraging collaboration and commitment from private partners (Laffont &Tirole, 2018).

2.2.2 Transaction Cost Economics (TCE)

Transaction Cost Economics focused on the costs associated with economic transactions and the efficiency of various governance structures (Williamson, 2015). TCE emphasized that organizations aim to minimize transaction costs in their contractual relationships. The application in Zimbabwe included the Cost-Benefit Analysis. A thorough evaluation of potential projects was to be conducted to ensure that the benefits outweigh the associated transaction costs (Williamson, 1991). Contracts needed to be explicit and detailed to minimize ambiguities and potential disputes. That included defining roles, responsibilities, and risk-sharing provisions (Klein, 2016). The governance framework should allow for adaptability in contracts to address unforeseen circumstances, reducing the costs related to renegotiation (Hart, 2015).

2.2.3. Institutional Theory

The institutional Theory examined how established rules, norms, and laws influence the behaviour of organizations and individuals (DiMaggio & Powell, 2017). The theory underscored the importance of a strong regulatory environment in facilitating effective

PPPs. The application in Zimbabwe involved the robust Regulatory Framework. The governance framework was to prioritize the establishment of clear regulations that promoted transparency and trust in PPPs arrangements (North, 2019). It was key to Invest in the institutional capacity of ZIDA and relevant stakeholders for effective PPPs management and oversight (Meyer & Rowan, 2017). Stakeholder Engagement facilitated active participation from diverse stakeholders—such as local communities, civil society, and the private sector it was crucial to ensure that the governance framework was inclusive and responsive (Scott, 2001).

The major theory underpinning the study was the institutional theory. The institutional theory propounded those institutions operated in an open environment that consisted of other institutions, called the institutional environment (Donald, 2021). Powell & DiMaggio, (2019), stated that conflicting institutional expectations allowed entrepreneurs to manoeuvre creatively. Powell &DiMaggio, (2018) argued that organisations were not supposed to be seen as passive but actively involved in the open operational environment. The institutional theory therefore determined the extent to which organisations shaped managerial decision making to initiate the social responsibility process. As pointed out by Bloor, (2017), institutions meant rules, the predetermined patterns of conduct that were generally accepted by individuals. According to (Rowan, 2019), the institutional theory sought to explain why nations were committed to scientific institutions and the different forms they took. Meyer and Rowan, (2017) further pointed out that many formal organisational structures arose as reflections of institutional rules which were rationalised societies.

Stern, (2016) highlighted that the analysis of these factors helped to understand the relationship between PPPs and economic recovery within which a company operated as well as allowed determining company's impact on the environment. Tihanyi, Devinney and Pedersen, (2019) stated that from the point of view of institutional theory, corporate behaviour was formed by the external environment, in order to meet public expectations and achieve better results, a company had to be responsive. Therefore, if a company contributed to higher levels of citizen trust, through being highly accountable in all its operations, it increased its chances of survival and successful operation.

The Banker (2017) stated that under the institutional theory, there were informal rules, such as norms, habits and customs. There were also formal rules, these included written laws, regulations and standards (North, 2018). Organisations devised strategies on how they would survive in society and expand through acting in accordance with the set rules (Meyer, 2017). These strategies devised by organisations were the ones that determine their levels of environmental accountability. Songini& Piston, (2017) stated that certain institutional theories were used to explain company's motivation for sustainability reporting. According to Scholl, Janssen, Wimmer, Moe & Flak, (2013), institutional theory focused on the external factors of social and economic environment and their impact on company's performance.

2.2.3 The Role of ZIDA and the Institutional Theory

According to Kmenry, (2018), several international organisations had recently adopted innovative, proactive strategies to capture the opportunities associated with sustainability, In the case of Zimbabwe, ZIDA did not fall under the banking sector, the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe nor the Ministry of Finance, it fell under The Office of the President. These international banks had developed new products such as ethical funds or loans specifically designed for PPPs businesses to capture new market opportunities associated with sustainability (IISD, 2018). In the near future, only companies that relied on sustainability as their main strategic objective would manage to develop a decisive competitive advantage and ZIDA was advised to implement the sustainability strategy (Garry, 2016).

ZIDA would be the most trusted sources of advice and information on environmental issues. In addition, the 'Edelman Trust Barometer 2016' Edelman, (2018), stated that ZIDA would be the most trusted institute as compared to businesses, government, and media. However, the most recent Edelman barometer data Edelman, (2017) also showed that trust in ZIDA, similarly to other institutions had decreased. It was therefore plausible for ZIDA, as an actor within a larger network of relationships, to call for sustainability in their internal operations, increasing the need to explicitly consider their own sustainable conduct as part of their legitimacy and how they walk their talk. ZIDA, together with educational establishments are the major driving forces creating and improving methodologies, guidelines and principles of improved environmental accountability, (Ekanyake and Vlacic,

(2018). Moreover, ZIDA had to actively participate in discussions about the standardization of environmental management reports and the need to integrate financial and non-financial information, they also performed an educational function (Vogt, Larson, Gordon and Fanzeres, 2019). Bellows, Valente, Lemke and de-Lara, (2016), stated that in the past decade the activity of United Nations Global Compact (UNGC) had a huge impact on environmental accountability. (Bellows, et al., 2016), added that UNGC principles were not only considered to be the principles of socially responsible business, but could also serve as methodological principles of sustainability reporting. ZIDA had to share a common goal to promote socially responsible business, reinforce corporate accountability, and create disclosure methodologies.

The most common classification of ZIDA was by orientation and level of operation (Xavier, 2019:12). Wang, (2019:77) pointed out that orientation referred to the type of activities ZIDA took on, these could include human rights, environmental protection or development works. Wang, (2013:77) further added that level of operation referred to whether it was community based, citywide, and national or international. ZIDA which operated internationally was leading in the role of promoting environmental management accountability (Tilt, 2017).

Hart, (2017) stated that there was an increase in the number and types of PPPs that had impact on PPPs in the last decades in Zimbabwe. The number and influence of active international organisations in PPPs had grown significantly, from a few hundred in 1951 to over 50,000 in 2011 (UIA 2018, Section 2.9). It made ZIDA to be recognized in a business context as influential key actors in promoting PPPs in Zimbabwe (Lewis, 2016). Boulding, (2017:21) pointed out that ZIDA played different roles in society. They acted as social, cultural, legal, and environmental advocates and/or operational groups. ZIDA therefore aimed to serve and promote economic development, societal interests, addressing causes such as environmental issues, human rights, or other areas. According to Satterthwaite, Reid and Bass (2019), ZIDA was given influential roles of infrastructure development and promoting environmental accountability because they were acting highly accountable.

2.2.4 How southern African institute for development and accountability （SAIDA） Institutional Theory

According to the World Economic Forum Global Competitiveness Report (2017), Southern Africa had the largest economy in Sub-Saharan Africa as well as one of the most advanced banking systems globally. According to the United Nations Environmental Programme Finance Initiative (UNEP-FI) African Task 2 Force report (2017), South Africa was the economic powerhouse of Africa, with a gross domestic product (GDP) comprising around 25% of the entire continent. South Africa's PPPs were highly consolidated (SARB, 2019) and was also host to the five biggest banks in Africa. These dominate South Africa's market, accounting for close to 90% of the banking assets (The Banker, 2017). '

As at the end of June 2019, SAIDA reported data to the office of the Registrar of PPPs being locally controlled. In addition, international PPPs had authorised representative offices in South Africa (SARB, 2019). The South African financial sector was recognised as world class in terms of its skilled workforce, adequate capital resources, infrastructure and technology, as well as being considered a global leader in the product innovation space (WEF, 2017). Within South Africa, the Services Board oversees the regulation of PPPs and institutions, including insurers, fund managers and broking operations, but excludes banks, which fall under the South African Reserve Bank. The Banks Act (No 94 of 1990) was primarily based on legislation similar to that of the United Kingdom, Australia and Canada. The WEF (2014) stated that the South African PPPs compared favourably with industrialized countries in terms of the strength of its banking systems, legislation, central bank and the overall structure of the sector. Investment and merchant banking remained the most competitive front in the industry, with many major South African banks competing for business throughout Africa. While not a direct driver, the relative size and sophistication of the South African SAIDA implied that it had a critical leadership role to play in forwarding the sustainability agenda in the banking industry across Africa (UNEP-FI, 2017).

Blowers &Glasbergen, (2016), stated that SAIDA, together with Environmental institutions and the government operated within the regime of PPPs policy and management. Through the institutional theory, they made sure that society expectations were met and gained by institutionalising norms and rules (Blowers &Glasbergen, 2016). Rahim, (2019) pointed out that the institutional theory provided some code of behaviour to earn, nurture and maintained social expectations and had created a positive organisation-society interface. Ritchie, (2016) alluded that SAIDA played part in the institutional theory by influencing the broader environment (institutional peer pressure). According to Papadakis, (2016), new institutional sociology explained how the operations of organisations were affected by political, economic, social and other environmental factors. As organisations operated in their surrounding environments, they were not environmentally accountable.

The UNEP-FI (2017) argued that a sustainable bank considered the impact of its operations, products and services on the ability of the current and future generations to meet their needs, which implied that banks could be deemed to have direct and indirect impact on the environment. Direct impact was to those related to the banks "operations and would include issues such as: energy efficiency, waste recycling and ecological footprint. Indirect impacts were those that followed from the banks" products and services, typically those impacts were associated with the finance and investment activities of banks (UNEP-FI, 2017).

Rapporteur, (2018) pointed that there had been an increase in PPPs disasters despite several efforts by the government to make organisations more accountable through legislation. Enz, (2010:126) added that there was a big gap between the advocated environmental attitudes of business leaders and how their companies operated. The institutional theory was therefore applied in an effort to reduce PPPs disasters.

2.2.5 The Pillars of Institutional Theory

The three pillars of Institutional Theory that affected the role played by ZIDA in promoting PPPs as stated by Lovei& Weiss, (2018:15), ZIDA, under the institutional theory, encouraged organisations to observe PPPs requirements during operations to ensure sustainable development. Scott, (2017) put forward that Institutions are comprised of three

pillars (regulative, normative and cultural- cognitive pillar) which affected the role that ZIDA played in trying to influence organisation behaviour. Previously, other researchers recognised institutional influences as influential for sustainable conduct, though often in a corporate context (Kant & Berry, 2016:30). Institutional theory is a valuable lens that could explain ZIDAs' distinctive institutional influences due to its specific position of 'walking the talk'.

2.2.5.1 The Regulative Pillar

According to Supriadi, (2017), the regulative pillar stressed on 'a stable system of rules, whether formal or informal, backed by surveillance and sanctioning power that was accompanied by feelings of fear/guilt or innocence/incorruptibility'. Scott, (2001) stated that the pillar represented legally enforced rules that influenced behaviour. Under the regulative pillar, corporations were more likely to act in socially responsible ways as they encounter strong state regulations and collective industrial self-regulations (Scott, 2017). Under the regulative pillar, Westra, Gray and Karageorgou, (2015) stated that ZIDA played an important role of promoting access to justice in environmental matters with the aim to entitle individuals and the environment through ZIDA challenging decisions through effective judicial mechanisms. Westra, et al., (2015), added that a regulative framework could be set up to look into environmental issues like:

- Refusal or improper handling of relevant requests for access to environmental information by public authorities.
- Decisions, acts and omissions on issues subject to public participation regarding seeking authorizations of installations of projects relating to infrastructure.

Warry (2016) forwarded that violation of the national environmental law provisions which were omitted in the first 2 categories which, under the regulative framework, corporations could, for example, adopt new pollution control technologies to conform to the environmental regulations and ZIDA assisted in ensuring adherence to regulations through its Monitoring and Evaluation department.

2.2.5.2 The Normative Pillar

The normative element of institutional theory emphasized 'the stabilizing influence of social beliefs and norms that were both internalized and imposed by others' (Scott, 2018). Sorge, (2015), stated that normative systems included values, norms and roles which worked as constraints to social behaviour, while certification and accreditation were important instruments that somehow attested to the compliance with such values and norms. Since the institutional environment in PPPs is comprised of normative, legal, and regulatory elements, organisations had to conform to them if they were to achieve the legitimacy that was necessary for survival (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983:147). Regarding normative influences, corporations were likely to act in socially responsible ways if they operated in an environment where normative called for such behaviour and were institutionalized , for example, important business publications, business school curricula, and other educational venues in which corporate managers participated, or if they belonged to trade or employer associations, which promoted socially "The Advocate's Own Challenges' to behave in a responsible behaviour (Camilleri, 2016). All of these could cause a normative climate that is morally governed and that dictated how we were supposed to do things (Geels, 2014). Under Normative drivers, ZIDAs' role was to promote environmental management accountability which was affected as ZIDA tried to balance between the perceived vulnerability of needing to walk the talk and the sense of immunity due to lack of external scrutiny.

2.2.5.3 The Cultural Cognitive Pillar

ZIDA experienced cultural –cognitive institutional influence. The cultural cognitive influence, as stated by Scott, (2018), provided stability and meaning to social life. Its drive was particularly high, with sustainable conduct as an internally 'taken-for granted' behaviour by communities they operate within and the employees. The cultural-cognitive conception of institutions stressed 'the central role played by the socially mediated construction of a common framework of meaning' (Scott 2018). That included taken-for-granted routines, or shared conceptions and common beliefs that tended to lead to isomorphism (DiMaggio and Powell 2013). Taken-for-granted routines were based on the notion of 'the way we do those things' as stated by Scott, (2018) and routines that were natural to the organisation. Because of such cultural-cognitive influences organisational

subunits were likely to encounter greater challenges to establish and maintain legitimacy in their host environments in comparison with domestic firms, which was due to stereotyping and different standards applied to foreign firms by their host environment.

2.2.6 How Organisations React to Institutional Demands

Multinational organisations faced complexities when they attempted to influence practices on a worldwide basis (Buckley &Ghauri, 2015). Buckley &Ghauri, (2015) added that multinationals organisations faced the tension between the need for internal objectives and norms for global integration, on the one hand, and adaptation to local norms and expectations on the other. An organisation's position within a field influenced the complexity that it would encounter (Demchak, 1991:3). Organisational characteristics like its structure and identity could make it particularly sensitive to certain prescriptions (like external norms and expectations), and less so to others. Koster, et al., (2017) stated that some highly visible organisations might be especially scrutinized by stakeholders advancing particular prescriptions. On the other hand, Tolba, (2017) stated that some organisations, because of their size and resources, might be insulated from institutional pressures in a way that was unavailable to other organisations, resulting in a kind of immunity. According to Una (2019), ZIDA's primary mission was related to certain sustainability issues (such as environment, human rights) in particular and it might influence the focus of those organisations' approach toward sustainability. Koster, (2017) stated that ZIDAs' advocacy work might raise internal and external expectations about their own internal behaviour and make those organisations vulnerable in case their behaviour was not aligned with what they told others to do (such as potential accusations of hypocrisy). Therefore, from the discussions made above it was evident that as organisations try to cope with conflicting institutional demands, which included demands coming from the regulative, normative, and cultural cognitive pillars they faced a situation called 'institutional complexity'.

2.2.7 Integrating Institutional Sociology with idea of strategic responses to institutional processes.

The ZIDA role in promoting PPPs accountability needed to be integrated with ideas of strategic responses to institutional processes (Fuleka, Pathak and Kale, 2013). Gunningham, (2017) stated that Institutional forces within the PPPs influenced NGO environmental accountability relations. However, institutional pressures played a very big role in influencing the operations and principles implemented by ZIDA. Gallagher, (2019) postulate that ZIDA might adopt environmental management accountability systems which might not be completely rational but could have been influenced by the institutional environment within which they operated. Nizam, (2016) indicated that the institutional environment within which ZIDA operated was also determined by governments, regulatory agencies and professional bodies. Decker, Riley and Siemer (2017), argued that under the new institutional sociology (NIS), ZIDA was not able to play a significant role in promoting environmental management accountability because it was assumed that they were passive conformers to institutional pressures. ZIDA's respond to upward accountability pressures from the government (Lake and Stein, 2017). According to Tujil& Jordan, (2016), if ZIDA conformed to the institutional pressures imposed on them it warranted and promote legitimacy and survival. ZIDA, in a bid to satisfy the government and play a significant role in communities of promoting environmental management accountability applied different strategies (Tujil&Jordan, 2019). ZIDA, however, was not passive in its responses to institutional pressures, the application of strategic responses suggest that ZIDA adopted strategies and tactics to deal with institutional pressures.

2.3 Empirical review

2.3.1 The existing PPPs models and frameworks

There were a couple of PPPs schemes that could be adopted, depending on the nature of the infrastructural project in question. Those included the following:

2.3.1.1 Common PPP Models

Creswell, (2017) noted that there were a couple of PPPs schemes that could be adopted, depending on the nature of the infrastructural project in question. Clark, (2017), concurred with that view when they noted that PPPs for transportation projects took a wide variety of forms. The types of contracts used depended upon the type of projects, as well as the level

of risk and ownership the public agency would accept. The common types of contracts for new projects were discussed below.

2.3.1.2 Design-Build (DB)

Grosvold, & Caldwell, (2014) stated that on a design-build (DB) contract, the design and construction phases were combined into one contract and were implemented by the private partner for a fixed fee. These contrasts the more typical "design-bid-build" contract model wherein potential contractors gave proposals of varying prices. The public partner-maintained responsibility for financing, operating and maintaining the project. The DB contract was the most common type of contract for transit PPPs, though some states prohibit them. The model was beneficial when the public agency wanted more rapid project completion and when there was sufficient public funding available. However, in most developing economies where public funding is a nightmare, which form of arrangement was not ideal (Creswell, 2017)

2.3.1.3 Build-and-Transfer Scheme (BT)

Guilford, (2018) stated that under a BT scheme, the private sector player sourced the finance and constructed the infrastructure. Upon completion, the company handed the infrastructure to government or responsible government agency, which then took over all the roles (ownership and operation roles). In turn, the government would pay the company an agreed sum, together with reasonable returns negotiated beforehand. Under the scheme there was potential to accelerate construction and transfer of design and operating risk since the private player sourced the finance and constructed the infrastructure and upon completion hands the infrastructure to the government. Guilford (2018) further stated that the scheme was suitable to projects that involved a significant operating content, particularly roads, water and waste projects.

However, a BT scheme required some funding on the part of Government to be able to pay the private agent, which might be a challenge to most governments of developing countries. Another weakness of the scheme was that in most developing and under-developed nations it did not attract private finance and as a result commits the public sector to providing long

term finance. That meant, a BT scheme may not be the best option for most developing nations at the moment considering the global economic environment.

2.3.1.4. Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO)

Morgan, (2017) affirmed that with the DBFO model, the private partner was responsible for designing, constructing, financing and operating of the project. They went on to note that the model was mainly employed when the public sponsor wanted to retain ownership of the project but was reasonably sure that it could generate a revenue stream sufficient to give the investors a return. As such, that method was best suitable to projects such as toll roads and transit. Such projects generated income which in turn would be used to pay off the investors (Chikozho, 2016).

2.3.1.5 Build-Operate-and-Transfer Scheme (BOT)

Vartanian (2019) stated that under a BOT model, a private sector player undertook the construction of the infrastructure, financing the construction as well as the operation maintenance. The company would then operate the facility for a fixed term, during which the private player would be allowed to impose on users of the infrastructure fees or rates, such as user fees, rentals etc. The charges to consumers would be expected to be exactly as captured in the contract and should enable the company to recover its costs as well as earn a reasonable return. At the end of the fixed term contract, the facility would be transferred to the government agency or local government unit concerned.

According to Panneerselvam (2020), in a BOT model, operational and investment risks could be substantially transferred to the concessionaire. More so, by retaining ultimate ownership, the government controlled the policy and could allocate risks to parties that were best suited to assume or remove them. However, the government had explicit and implicit contingent liabilities that might arise due to loan guarantees and subordinate loans provided, and default of a sub-sovereign government and public or private entity on non-guaranteed loans. BOT projects also required direct government support to make them commercially viable (Chikozho, 2016).

The concessionaire's revenue in a BOT project came from managing and marketing of the users' facilities (for example, toll revenue in a toll road project) and renting of commercial

space where possible. Concessions for BOT projects could be structured on either maximum revenue share for a fixed concession period or minimum concession period for a fixed revenue share, a combination of both, or only minimum concession period. That model was most suitable for road infrastructure project, building construction projects, water and waste projects.

2.3.1.6 Build-Own-Operate-and-Transfer Scheme (BOOT)

Kumar, (2019), put forward that his is a scheme where the private sector company finances, constructs, own and operates the infrastructure for a fixed term, asset transfer occurs after a specified operating period when the private provider transfers ownership to a public agency. Ownership implies that the company is allowed to make any decisions it sees fit during the ownership tenure, with minimal or no government interference. It also gets the opportunity to recover its total investment, operating costs, etc. as well as a reasonable return. That would be done through collecting tolls (for instance for highways), fees, rentals or other charges. At the expiry of the fixed term, the infrastructure is handed over to government, which would then take all responsibilities (Chikozho, 2016).

2.3.1.7 Build-Lease-and-Transfer (BLT)

Under a BLT model, the private sector constructed the infrastructure and once complete, it would hand the operation issue to the government on a lease arrangement, where the government/government agency would be paying for the lease (Scott, 2021). The lease payments would give the company an opportunity to recover its costs, and after an agreed term, the government stopped paying the lease and assumed ownership and had control over the facility (transfer). In a BLT type of arrangement, the concessionaire made investments and operated the facility for a fixed period of time after which the ownership reverts back to the public sector. One of the major weaknesses the model had was noted by Kumar, (2019) that it did not attract private finance and contracts were more complex.

2.3.1.8 Build-Transfer-and Operate (BTO)

A BTO scheme entailed the private sector company building the infrastructure and upon completion, transferred the infrastructure to the government. However, despite not having ownership, the company was allowed to operate the infrastructure on behalf of the

government, with proceeds being distributed as per contract agreement. Just like in the BLT model, the model had the same weakness noted by Kumar, (2019) that it did not attract private finance and contracts were also complicated.

2.3.1.9 Rehabilitate-Operate and Transfer (ROT)

According to African Development Bank (2020), ROT involved a system where the infrastructure that was already in existence was in a sorry state, the infrastructure was handed over to the private sector player for refurbishing, maintenance and reconditioning. The private player was allowed to operate the infrastructure for a period, recoup investment costs and get a reasonable return, following which the facility was handed back to the government. Fourie, (2015) noted that other authors referred to the ROT as Build-Rehabilitate-Operate-Transfer (BROT) and in that arrangement, the concessionaire made investments and operated the facility for a fixed period of time after which the ownership reverted back to the public sector (Scott, 2021)

The model had the strength of promoting private sector innovation and improved value for money, improved quality of operation and maintenance and resultantly the government would be able to focus on core public sector responsibilities. However, there was a need for contract management and performance monitoring system to be put in place. More so, possible conflict between planning and environment considerations could arise (Grimsey & Lewis, 2017).

2.3.1.10 Lease, Develop and Operate (LDO)

Under an LDO scheme, the public sector player leases an existing facility to the private player. The private player would renovate, modernise or expand it before assuming operation rights for a fixed term. In that process, the private partner got an opportunity to recover costs, with the government benefiting from the lease payments.

2.3.2. Sectors Considered for PPPs in Zimbabwe

While all sectors in general had been considered for PPPs, the government in Zimbabwe had been advocating for the prioritisation of the most affected areas. Those included mainly the road infrastructure, rail infrastructure, water provision including dam construction,

health, education as well as power generation. According to Chikozho, (2016), the challenge with PPPs in most developing countries was the lack of profitability. The private sector would seek to generate positive returns from those profits while government sought to optimise availability and affordability to the people. Those concerns were also echoed by Ngugi, &Wanjiru, (2019).and who argued that the pricing of the final product in PPPs was affected by political aspirations hence the private sector preferred to stay away from these. In Zimbabwe, it was only until recently that PPPs had ventured into road infrastructure development. The motivation emanated from the introduction of toll gate fees for the first time in Zimbabwe. Prior to the introduction, road usage was partly viewed as a free product or there was no clear intent to charge users of roads for a fee. That was common in several other developing countries (ZIMSTAT, 2019).

Chikozho, (2016) propounded that water was also another product viewed as basic in most developing countries hence PPPs in those categories are generally not profitable. In Zimbabwe, most projects involving water reticulation had remained white elephants. The Gwayi-Shangani pipeline and the Kunzvi dam project were examples of those that had failed to attract private companies to partner government mainly because of pricing problems. The health sector had remained fairly uncontrolled but affordability of health services by the population had dampened the desire by private companies to venture into that. In most developing countries health projects end up being wholly funded by the governments or donors. Iossa, &Martimort, (2015), stated that power generation projects while they were very profitable, they were prone to intervention by the government. Firstly, pricing in that sector was therefore very sensitive; secondly, the sector depended on levels of industrialisation. Lack of or deteriorating levels of industrialisation remained a negative factor in power generation projects. The education sector had not been explored much in terms of PPPs arrangements in Zimbabwe. Ideally, PPPs in the education sector involved public education infrastructure which were managed by private companies which ownership remained in the hands of the government or public. The education sector had remained unexplored for two reasons (Ngugi, & Wanjiru, 2019). Firstly, the pricing in that sector was highly controlled by the government since the long-term objectives, from independence the public sector had been to provide education to all. Secondly, the sector was already characterised by a significant level of private ownership through “very” private

ownership and private ownership through the religious organisations. Church run schools (Mission schools) dominated the education sector in Zimbabwe which undermined the scope of PPPs (World Bank, 2015).

Overall, the private sector players had a dilemma in terms of choosing sectors for PPPs in Zimbabwe. These problems were however seemingly entrenched in the regulations and frameworks in place. Development in Sub-Saharan Africa had been limited by the frameworks and regulations which were not attractive to private investors (Iossa, &Martimort, 2015).

Governments in most developing countries faced the challenge to meet the growing demand for new and better infrastructure services. As available funding from the traditional sources and capacity in the public sector to implement many projects at one time remained limited, governments had found that partnership with the private sector was an attractive alternative to increase and improve the supply of infrastructure services.

According to Drury (2022), PPPs offered both strategic and operational choices to Government. Strategically, the use of PPPs fostered economic growth by developing new commercial opportunities and increasing competition in the provision of public services and attracted private and foreign Direct Investment inflows, which encouraged crowding-in of private and foreign investment. Mavhunga, (2020) stated that at the same time, it allowed Government to set Public Private Partnership Policy Statement and strategy, and where appropriate, regulated economic activities, while leaving service delivery to the private sector. Operationally, PPPs provided opportunities for efficiency gains (better quality and more cost-effective delivery of services), better asset utilization, clearer customer focus (since payments are typically linked to performance rather than service inputs), and accelerated delivery of projects.

2.3.3 Strategic PPPs for Zimbabwe

2.3.3.1 Transport sector

Fourie, (2015), indicated that there were three major modes of transport in Zimbabwe: road, rail and air. In the context of PPPs, and in the context of economic resuscitation, there was little scope for PPPs in the air transport sector. It could be established that major PPP

projects in the air transport sector across the world were aimed at upgrading airport infrastructure which, although important for the overall strengthening of the Zimbabwe economy, could be considered at a later stage. In addition, PPPs for airports are hamstrung by security concerns, as airports are considered high security zones and governments are often very reluctant to involve the private sector in running them. In addition, the movement of raw materials critical for the turnaround of the economy are mostly through road and railways than air (Zhang, 2015),

2.3.3.2 Road Infrastructure

Mavhunga, (2020) stated that the state of the Zimbabwe roads was appalling, a reflection of the lack of significant funding towards road infrastructure repairs and maintenance. In addition, despite many concerns raised on the number of accidents on the major highways, calling for their dualization, little had been done due to lack of funding. The road infrastructure network was therefore very poor, with some areas, particularly in the rural areas becoming impassable.

Zhang, (2015), there was need for PPPs in the transport sector, particularly in the construction and maintenance of highways, especially construction of dual roads on major highways. The Beitbridge-Harare-Chirundu Road, which was not only the busiest in the country, but also contributing most to road accidents, had been mentioned as a priority area. Plans were already at an advanced stage for that to be initiated, with the feasibility study being underway. The Harare-Bulawayo Road had also been identified as requiring dualization. In addition, all major roads linking various urban centres were also in a sorry state, requiring some significant repairs, which could also be done using PPPs. The Government had involved the private sector in some smaller scale road project PPPs, with a good example being the Plumtree to Mutare road maintenance, which was being done by a private sector player.

Mavhunga, (2020) stated that in 2019, the Government introduced toll gates in major highways of the country. However, a year from their inception, there was little that could be seen on the ground in terms of improvements, in line with the toll revenue collected. Among other issues, the toll revenue had to be spread across the whole country, including

rural areas not covered by toll gates, which resulted in the toll revenue proved to be inadequate to adequately repair and maintain the highways. The experience on toll gates could however be harnessed, particularly since the road users had adapted to paying for road use. What was only needed was to ensure that the toll payers get motivated by seeing improvements on the road in line with the toll fees. That could be done by having a private player being given the responsibility under a PPPs framework.

Mavhunga, (2020) stated that priority for the transport sector should have been given to construction of new roads and expansion of existing ones through dualization, rather than repairing of existing roads, a function which the responsible state agent, ZINARA and the local authorities, could have easily done. Significant construction would be involved, which called for a significant number of resources. That implied the private sector to recoup the losses, it had to be given the opportunity to operate the roads after construction and got revenue through toll fees, given that the Government did not have the capacity to pay the company; hence some 'operating' mechanism had been allowed. At the same time, the public good had to revert back to the state at some point in time, as the private sector could not be allowed to be in charge for ever; hence a transfer mechanism had to be involved (Zhang, 2015),

Hence a BOT framework was called for. While a BOT scheme allowed the private player to recoup the costs, a further incentive was called upon to allow the player to go extra miles to ensure that the infrastructure became of best quality. The temporary ownership could be given to the player, giving the operator freedom to be innovative and engage in new ideas without Government interference. A BOOT scheme might ensure that by the time the Government took over, the asset would be of best quality possible.

OECD, (2014) stated that a concern had been raised on the ability of the contractor to recoup costs in the Zimbabwe roads, given the volume of traffic, which had been argued to be too low for profitable levels. Traffic risk was a serious consideration, and it was also difficult to get an accurate estimate of anticipated traffic on a particular road without extensive modelling exercises. However, experience from PPPs in Europe and Central Asia had shown that for a successful PPP in roads, the risk was reduced if the project was not too big; hence for big roads it was better to split the project into smaller units, to be done

in phases. Zhang, (2015), that could involve constructing a two-lane road, and later expanding it into a four lane, or constructing and operating some length of road, before increasing it. An example was the A2 Toll Motorway in Poland, which was considered too big and risky and was implemented in two phases, the first being only for 90km which was completed in 2004, before the second phase (62km) begun, which was expected to be completed in 2010 (Cuttaree et al, 2019).

The Beitbridge-Harare-Chirundu and the Harare-Bulawayo highway projects for example, are projects that were too big for the private sector to significantly recoup costs; hence they had to be broken down into smaller units for the private sector to realise any potential. The broken-down units could be given over to several agents to implement, given the time involved in having one operator implementing the projects in phases. However, there were still other critical issues that had to be taken into cognisance for the road project BOOT PPPs to succeed in Zimbabwe. That was in addition to other general factors for successful PPPs.

Zhang, (2015), first, forecasting of traffic could be done on a pessimistic basis, given that the contractor could easily be negatively impacted if the volume of traffic was overstated. Examples could be cited from Europe where PPP road projects failed or did not take off due to lower than expected or absence of traffic projections. Those included the Czech Republic Motorway in 1993; the M1/M15 Toll Road in Hungary; the Pitesti-Bucharest-Constanza Motorway in Romania and the A4 Zagreb-Gorican Motorway in Croatia (Cuttaree et al, 2019).

Secondly, the toll fees which users paid could not be too high, as that discouraged traffic but also resulted in alternative routes used. It was important that the toll fees not be indexed to inflation, particularly in developing countries, as that could make roads expensive to use. That happened in Hungary, where the tolls for the M1/M15 highway were indexed to inflation, which rose to 35% in 1992, resulting in users trying to find alternative routes to avoid paying (Cuttaree et al, 2019). In Zimbabwe, the public had accepted the charged toll fees, and any significant deviation from the set charge was likely to result in users' unwillingness to pay.

Third, PPPs in the transport sector required a strong sector policy and complementary regulations for its sustainability. For example, success in investor attraction was highly sensitive to policies discouraging the use of some cars or controlling the transport fares. The regulations banning the import of some type of cars in Zimbabwe could have an anticipated effect of reducing the flow of cars in the roads and could therefore negatively affect attractiveness of PPPs (OECD, 2014).

Fourth, road projects under PPPs should undergo competitive bidding to decide the winner. Uncompetitive or non-transparent processes might result in public opposition to the PPP project and could also result in poor performance by the concessionaire, thereby increasing the ultimate price paid by Government.

The examples of PPP projects that existed in Zimbabwe were mostly from the transport sector, which could provide valuable lessons for PPPs in Zimbabwe. While The Newlands Bypass provided a good example of a well-executed PPP project, there were concerns regarding the high tariffs levied by the NLB and BBR operators (ZNCC, 2019). However, a BT scheme like the case of the NLB required some funding on the part of Government to be able to pay the private agent, which was not available at that time. A BT scheme was not an option at that time (ZIMSTAT, 2019).

2.3.3.3 Railway Transport System Infrastructure

The rail track in Zimbabwe was owned by the Government through the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ), which owns and operates a 2 760km line with an estimated capacity to move 18 million tonnes of goods per year, with a significant proportion of the capacity no longer available. In a press interview, NRZ General Manager Air Commodore Mike Karakadzai disclosed that NRZ's capacity to move bulk cargo deteriorated drastically during the last decade. That was at a time when about 42% of NRZ's infrastructure was used to transports energy and mining cargo, followed by agriculture that used 33%, industry used 16% and transit goods at 9%. However about 17% of the country's railway network was marred with restrictions or cautions, which limited the speed at which goods were moved. In addition, about 32% of NRZ's locomotives were in service and about 46%

of the wagons (which were close to 9 000 in all) were also in service. That was shown in Table 2, which showed how functional NRZ assets had declined. (NRZ, 2019)

In a follow up interview with ZEPARU, NRZ disclosed that PPPs were mostly needed in locomotives and wagon refurbishment, as currently they were not enough to allow NRZ to perform their role in economic stabilisation. In addition, the private sector could also come in for the upgrading and modernisation of signalling and telecommunications systems, where PPPs were needed mostly to repair the existing infrastructure, with replacement mostly needed where the equipment were vandalised. However, NRZ cautioned that the nature of PPPs in the railways sector in Zimbabwe had to be carefully structured for them to be effective. Firstly, NRZ only needed financing from the private sector as it had the necessary expertise, and under PPPs, it would still continue to be in control of all operations (Fama, & Jensen, 2018)

World Bank, (2015), pointed out that the private player would not be having a direct relationship with clients; the private player would channel funds as a form of loan to the NRZ towards a specific objective, e.g. construction or refurbishment of wagons. NRZ and the financer would then come up with a repayment arrangement which would be beneficial to both parties. That model had already been tried and proved very successful; NRZ had similar arrangements with users, such as some mining companies like ZIMASCO, the fuel industry and the sugar industry in Chiredzi. These companies had rehabilitated some NRZ equipment as a form of loan, and rather than getting cash payment from NRZ, the loan is adjusted against the improved and guaranteed service as well as having some refurbished wagons dedicated to them. These successful arrangements showed that the industry was willing to pay for improved railways system as long as they were assured of improved service; hence the demand risk was reduced for railway sector PPPs (OECD, 2014).

The railway sector previously had a good case study in the form of the successfully completed Beitbridge Bulawayo Railway line, done under a BOT framework. However, that was a small project as just as roads, a very big project involving railway became unviable given that the company might have problems in recouping costs without resorting to high rates, which had an inflationary impact on the whole economy after factoring in the raw material costs. In addition, the project involved the construction of a railway line,

which was not considered a key pre-requisite for sustaining the economy at that moment, as the focus was on resuscitating the existing infrastructure. Drawing from the BBR experience, where a very big international player was engaged to construct and manage only a 350km long, it could be argued that for shorter distances (Fama, & Jensen, 2018) construction of new railways under a PPP framework could work. The proposed Harare-Chitungwiza railway line, and other envisioned areas needing railway connection, could therefore be considered for PPPs under a BOT framework. However, there was little scope to recoup the costs since there was not much business traffic between Harare and Chitungwiza to recover costs, except commuters (World Bank, 2015).

The needs of the Zimbabwe railways were beyond railway construction, but the need for rehabilitation and maintenance of existing infrastructure. New wagons and locomotives were also called for. However, although the general poor status of the existing NRZ infrastructure called for either a ROT or an LDO PPP model could see an improvement in the use of the existing infrastructure even without construction of new ones, the inability of the investor to assume control (that is the 'operate' part) made that not possible. That left the BT schemes or rehabilitate-transfer (RT) schemes as only feasible for that time. Given the finance challenges faced by NRZ and Government, only those industry players with an intensive need for railway services could take part in the PPPs initiatives, so that payments had to be in form of free and guaranteed service until the total investment could be recouped (OECD, 2014).

It was also important to note that the road and rail infrastructure PPPs also had to be structured in line with regional integration developments with a bearing on infrastructure. A good example was the North–South Corridor Infrastructure project, an initiative which was undertaken in the form of a Tripartite process, involving three regional organisations of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), the East African Community (EAC) and Southern African Development Community (SADC). That was based on the need to reduce costs of cross-border trade by reducing transport costs within those three regions. The North South Corridor programme had a number of projects that were inter-related which addressed, among other things, road and rail infrastructure facilitation and transport among the countries falling under the three regional groupings. If

the project kicked off successfully, it could also have an impact on the government and other participants in the PPP process; hence the need to keep cognisance of that initiative in the PPP discourse (World Bank, 2015)

Generally, the railway did not attract much private sector investment in construction due its complexity. Among the various PPP projects in Europe and central Asia it was discovered that despite the need for massive investment, railways were not attracting much investment, with only 3% of total investment in the transport being to railways. It was also established that 95% of the 3% was from one project, the Estonian Railway Project of 2001 (Cuttaree et al, 2019). By and large, the sector failed to attract PPP interest across the continents.

2.3.3.4 Power and Energy sector

Zimbabwe was struggling to meet its energy requirements, at a time when industrial demand for electricity for the resuscitation of the economy had increased. Aging infrastructure and lack of spares had been given as the reasons for the incessant outages and blackouts, while limited generation capacity was cited as the reason for the extensive load shedding programme, a reaction to excess demand over supply. There had been no significant heavy investment in internal electricity generation in Zimbabwe since 1984, at that time the demand for electricity had been increasing, estimated to be at an average annual rate of 2.5% (Batidzirai B, 2002). In 2019, it was estimated that about US$3.6 billion was needed to invest in electricity generation projects needed for adequate supplies of electricity, which exceeded the 2019, National Budget by almost three times (ZNCC, 2019). That lack of capacity for the government to invest in the sector pointed to the need for PPPs in the sector (Fama, & Jensen, 2018)

In Zimbabwe, electricity was internally generated and was mostly of two types: hydro and thermal. Hydroelectricity came from the power plant at Kariba, while thermal power plants were at Hwange and other small plants at Bulawayo, Munyati and Harare. In addition, imports from Zambia, DRC, Mozambique and South Africa augmented electricity supply in Zimbabwe. However, none of the power plants in Zimbabwe was being operated at installed capacity, which could have helped in meeting excess demand (World Bank, 2015)

It was critical that before the construction of any new plants, the focus could be on ensuring that the existing plants operate at full capacity, which could be done through PPPs. It could also be established further that even if all existing plants were to operate at full capacity, available electricity would still fall short of demand. Total installed capacity, as was shown in Table 3, was about 1960MW, at a time when national demand was estimated at about 2200MW (ZESA, 2010). Which meant additional capacity had to be sourced through construction of additional plants, which was where PPPs came in (Laffont, &Tirole, 2016)

However, operating the small thermal power stations like Munyati and Harare were deemed a costly affair. In an interview with ZEPARU, ZESA pointed out that small thermal power plants were expensive to run at an average tariff of 13USc/kWh, compared to about 5.6USc/kWh for Hwange Power Station. With the existing tariffs of about 7USc/kWh, investors could be discouraged as they could be operating at a loss. Mechanisms would be needed to get around the problem, especially through tariff adjustments (World Bank, 2015)

Feasibility studies had already been done on some possible projects for generating electricity, which was where PPPs could be undertaken, and those include the following:

- **Kariba South Expansion**

That was to be an extension to the Kariba Station by addition of two generating units of 150MW. That would need to be complemented by the commissioning of the Batoka reservoir, for the plant to add significant amount of electricity into the economy, since the conjunctive operation of Kariba and Batoka reservoirs would add an additional industrial energy of about 1000GWh. The studies on the viability of the project had already been carried out and the project was considered viable (Scott, 2021)

- **Hwange power Station expansion**

The project had been on the cards for a long time and feasibility studies had recommended that it would consist of two units of a capacity of 300 MW each.

- **Batoka Gorge Hydro Power Plant**

That would involve the construction of a dam together with the hydro power plant on the Zambezi River, 54km downstream of the Victoria Falls. It was estimated that the project

would have a capacity of 1600MW, to be shared between Zimbabwe and Zambia, and for Zimbabwe that would be covered by constructing four units of 200MW each.

- **Gokwe North Project**

That involved the construction of a 1400MW coal-fired power station on the Sengwa coalfield, about 200km Northwest of Kwekwe. That was marked for PPPs since it was envisaged, with a BOO model involving an independent power producer. Feasibility studies had shown that the project was viable.

Scott, (2021), stated that across the world, it could be established that one common form of PPPs in the power sector was the power purchase agreement model (PPA) in power projects. Under that model, private investors would build a power generation plant and generate electricity, which they then sold to the public company. However, during the interview, ZESA indicated that it would not be able to purchase power from the investor. It also pointed out that any PPP scheme that was based on some financial contribution from the Government would not be feasible due to financial challenges. Other forms of payment had to be used if PPA models were to succeed in the electricity sector. ZESA for example could strategize a PPA scheme in a way similar to the ones used by NRZ, where major power consumers could be called in to build generation plants for payment, they in return got uninterrupted supplies and highly reduced (or even free) electricity for a period long enough to recover costs. That was likely to succeed, if the current arrangements with independent power producers (IPPs) was anything to go by (Hart, 2019).

Currently, ZESA had managed to successfully coexist with independent power producers in the IPP schemes. IPP schemes were basically cogeneration schemes between ZESA and an independent power producer. One example of an IPP scheme was the cogeneration plant by the Hippo Valley Estates in Chiredzi, which generated both steam and power for the company's sugar factory's requirements, leaving an excess of about 66GWh, which could be sold to the ZESA national grid. In addition, the generated power would also be transferred to the factory using ZESA's transmission lines. Although the IPP scheme was not a part of a PPP model, its success also demonstrated the extent to which users of

electricity were willing to partner ZESA in generating electricity; hence PPPs were possible in the sector (World Bank, 2015)

In addition, other PPPs schemes could also work for the power sector besides a PPA scheme. ZESA indicated that the current infrastructure could be shared by licensed producers without problems, given that the Electricity Act had already laid the framework for independent power producers using the current network. Just like any other independent producers, ZESA also had to apply for a license to operate the infrastructure from the Zimbabwe Electricity Regulatory Commission; hence it could not have problems in co-existing with others. However, means for recovering costs had to be found for non-users, and that could only be possible if the investor also got a share of tariff revenue. In the interview, ZESA stipulated that unless there was a change in the current tariff structure, it would be difficult to attract the private sector players as they would be operating at a loss (Hart, 2019).

Eisenhardt, (2020), stated that for PPPs to be feasible, ZESA and the investor had to work out mechanisms to have tariff charges paid by users going to the investor until investment costs were recovered, which called for some variations of a BOT or BOOT scheme. However, given that electricity transmission was a natural monopoly, the transmission infrastructure for the generated electricity would be belonging to the Government, hence access to the national grid and its infrastructure to households and industry would form part of ZESA's financial contribution (Laffont, &Tirole, 2016). In addition to ceding access to the investor, the Government would also allow the investor to share tariff proceeds with ZESA. A BOOT scheme, where the investor would build, own and operate the plant, and then use the existing network to get the electricity to users before getting a share of proceeds for a period long enough to recover costs and earned a return before transferring ownership of the infrastructure to ZESA would be appropriate. That could also equally work for refurbishment of existing plants (Hart, 2019).

2.3.3.5 Schools, Colleges and Education

Scott, (2021), stated that the education system in Zimbabwe was severely affected by the decade-long economic decline for which significant investments were needed to restore the

system to normal. Public financing of the sector dwindled to very low levels, which also affected the tertiary education sector, with all major State Universities failing to open for the first semester of 2008/20009 academic year. Public schools were struggling, lacking access to even the most basic resources like pens and paper. The infrastructure in most institutions had become dilapidated; with water and sanitation facilities being inadequate. Following Government's land reform and resettlement programme, several new schools were opened, whose infrastructure was so poor that some lessons were conducted under trees. With Government's purse remaining empty, PPPs could play a meaningful role in turning around the education sector (World Bank, 2015)

Eisenhardt, (2020), stated that PPPs in the education sector had been defined to include any scheme where the public sector and the private sector worked together to improve education. Examples included where the Government buys or subsidises private schools to enrol students from poor background. In general, some PPP schemes in the education sector included the following (Education International, 2019):

(i) Private operation of public schools, where public schools were operated by private firms under contract to a public agency, with the schools remaining publicly owned though managed by a private sector operator for a management fee.

(ii) Outsourcing of educational services, where the Government contracts the private sector for the provision of education-related services, e.g. curriculum development and delivery, administration of examinations, supply of textbooks and other learning materials in return for payment.

(iii) Outsourcing of non-educational support services, which include canteen, transport, health care, cleaning services and accommodation facilities for university students.

(iv) Voucher schemes, where the government provides vouchers to students, enabling them to attend private schools. That could also involve giving direct subsidies to the private schools to make fees for private schools affordable.

(v) Private sector charity initiatives, which basically involved grants to the Government from the private sector, which were also classified as PPPs, for example the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (LaRocque N, 2008)

It was however the school infrastructure PPPs which were of more relevance to the Zimbabwe situation given the inability of Government to pay the private sector. Such infrastructure PPPs in educations could be structured in a variety of ways, and the most common was the BOT scheme with the following characteristics:

Scott, (2021), stated that the private sector partners invested in school buildings and maintenance; Government retained responsibility for the delivery of core services such as teaching; arrangements could be governed by a long term contract- usually 25-30 years, with the contracts specifying the services and standards that could be met; The private sector would operate the infrastructure until the end of the contract period, with the Government and the private player working out payment mechanisms (LaRocque N, 2008).

In developing countries, infrastructure PPPs in the education sector were difficult to sustain in the short term, as the private sector had to recover costs. Unless that was done through fees and levies, the Government might be financially handicapped to pay up. Examples of such PPPs that can be drawn from countries such as UK, Australia, Egypt, Canada and the Netherlands all show that the PPPs were successful because the Government was paying the private sector player to allow the player to recover costs, rather than through fees and levies. If such capacity was not available, just like Zimbabwe, that could be difficult.

Eisenhardt, (2020), stated that the option for infrastructure PPPs in Zimbabwe then was to allow BOOT schemes where the private player charged fees and levies that were necessary to recover costs during the project period, which would then go down once the Government took over the school. The fees' structure would be agreed to before the project, so that the Government would be given an opportunity to put safeguard measures against exploitation of students through the fee structure. The biggest challenge, which needed to be addressed before commencement of the project, was the state at which the infrastructure would be handed over to the Government as the private sector exits the market. There was always a

risk that the infrastructure could have deteriorated extensively by the time the Government took over (Laffont, &Tirole, 2016)

PPPs however only assisted in urban areas where such schools would easily find students and would not work for rural schools which also had poor infrastructure and needed new infrastructure. For such schools, infrastructure PPPs would not be able to succeed, and other options had to be pursued. The Government had to continue to engage development partners to fund existing caveats in the system, particularly for basic needs such as books and school furniture, among other initiatives that were already being pursued by the relevant education Ministries (Eisenhardt, 2020).

2.3.3.6 Water reticulation

Scott, (2021), stated that the need for funding in the water and sewer reticulation in Zimbabwe became glaring during the 2008-2019 period, when the advent of a cholera epidemic claimed thousands of lives. The pandemic was attributed to the sorry state of the water and sewer reticulation infrastructure under the control of local authorities, which saw the public resorting to the use of unclean water sources. Even at times when the major dams, which were the sources of water for domestic use, were reasonably full, water supply in urban areas had remained not only erratic but also of poor quality leaving a lot to be desired. That had been attributed to a host of problems, which included limited capacity to replace and repair water pumps, to source enough chemicals to purify water as well as the inability to replace the dilapidated water supply network, which had seen a significant amount of the little available water being lost through leakages, for example, Harare was estimated to be losing 40% of treated water through leakages (ZNCC, 2019).

Although increasing the availability of water through construction of more dams, which was also envisaged to be done under PPPs would improve water availability, the prime objective was to ensure that the current systems allow the efficient use of the water; hence the primary challenge was to improve the water and sewer reticulation. That made PPPs more relevant (World Bank, 2015)

In a report by Samanyanga (2018) it was pointed out that although feasible, PPPs in the water sector had to be strategically constructed to succeed. Water was regarded as a basic

right and seen as unviable by the private sector. For PPPs to succeed, the water tariff system needed to be disaggregated, for example commercial and domestic use should be charged differently, which was what countries like South Africa were doing. It would then be possible to recover costs on the commercial tariff rates. Even among domestic consumers, PPPs could succeed if they were further disaggregation for example, a PPP could be successful if done for low density suburbs such as Glen Lorne, Mandara, Mt Pleasant, Borrowdale and Greendale, but would not work for Budiriro, Glenorah and Glenview residents as far as recouping costs were concerned. An arrangement took place at Christon Bank, where an individual company was distributing water to residents at rates that were far above the municipality rates was a good example. A concern had however been raised, following some petitions which some residents filed with the responsible Ministry, complaining about the rates being charged by the private supplier. That pointed the need for care in giving the investors a free rein over tariffs (Laffont, &Tirole, 2016)

In terms of infrastructure and water purification, PPPs could also succeed if heavy industrial water users, such as Delta and chemical manufacturing firms, are identified and arrangements are made so that they finance water reticulation in exchange of uninterrupted supplies of water and payment holidays until they had recovered their costs (Dube, 2016). It was pointed out that companies such as hotels and other tourist resort areas of Victoria Falls for example, had expressed willingness to pay higher rates for water if that was to ensure that it was reliably available, for specific arrangements with users, a ROT or BOT model could work. However, to increase the incentive for the private sector, the water purification plant could be separate from the public one like Morton Jeffrey plant where domestic users would be seen as benefitting, as that would reduce the incentive and make it costlier (World Bank, 2015)

Case studies of PPPs in water reticulation are few, with the challenge being largely on recovering costs in the face of water infrastructure that also exhibited natural monopoly characteristics, for instance, a private player could not construct own water pipes to residential areas parallel to the ones currently used by municipalities. Therefore, just like the electricity sector, a scheme involved a private player rehabilitating and building water reticulation infrastructure and in return got a share of the water tariff revenues with

municipalities contributing by accessing existing networks so users could also suffice. A BOT scheme could work well if the frameworks were properly designed (World Bank, 2015).

One possible area for PPPs in water reticulation could be drawn from the 5-year WRP Pty Ltd- Metsi-a-Lekoa Public Private Partnership for the supply of potable water to residents. An interesting feature was the similarity with the Harare water problem, particularly the extent which leakages contributed to the water problem. Such PPPs scheme could be successfully aped in Zimbabwe.

2.3.3.7 The Health Sector in Zimbabwe,

The public health system had been traditionally the largest provider of health-care services, with Mission hospitals and health care delivered by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) playing a complementary role. The infrastructure in the public health institution was also well managed and maintained. However, years of economic decline, had resulted in almost a reversal of the pattern, with the public sector failing to perform its leading role. The health system infrastructure in Zimbabwe found itself in a sorry state because of underfunding and a lack of maintenance. That affected even the basic hospital equipment such as laundry machines, kitchen equipment and boilers. The period 2008-2019 saw public hospitals more or less closing doors to patients as the lack of supplies took its toll, with those who could not afford private medical facilities being left vulnerable. Lack of supplies for health facilities also extended to laboratory equipment and laboratory reagents (World Bank, 2015)

While that was happening, the privately run health institutions managed to soldier on, and they managed to carry the burden placed upon them by the public sector failure, but only for those who could afford their service charges. That drove home the important role that a combination of the public and private sector could play in bringing back normalcy in the sector, which was where PPPs could come in.

What was of paramount importance in the health sector was to make the existing public institutions operate at full capacity before any plans were made to build new institutions, especially the major referral hospitals like Parirenyatwa and Harare Hospital in Harare and

Mpilo in Bulawayo. PPPs could play a more significant role whose impact could be immediately felt in the upgrading and rehabilitation of existing infrastructure in the existing public institutions than building new ones. That would also involve building or buying new equipment where the extant was dilapidated (ZIMSTAT, 2019). ROT schemes were recommended for the sector to achieve that purpose. The private player could be given an opportunity to operate public hospitals in partnership with the government, with roles and territories being however different.

Similar co-location PPPs could be used to ensure that the major public hospitals in Zimbabwe became fully operational. It could be established that such schemes were already being implemented on a small scale at Parirenyatwa Hospital for example, where some wards were already being operated by private doctors, although a concern was raised on the possibility for the doctors to try to lure patients from the public system (Klein, 2019)

2.4 The Gaps and Challenges within the Current PPP Governance Structure in Zimbabwe

Chikozho (2016) stated that a clear policy was an important basis for a successful PPP framework. To develop a PPP pipeline, government agencies needed to understand PPPs and how they might be able to use them to achieve their policy ends. Equally, clear information on the PPP program reduced the cost to potential investors of considering opportunities in the country.

Grimsey & Lewis, (2017), governments could establish clear, predictable and legitimate institutional framework supported by competent and well-resourced authorities. That meant that the political leadership should ensure public awareness of the relative costs, benefits and risks of PPPs and conventional procurement. In order to maintain key institutional roles and responsibilities the procuring authorities, the Supreme Audit Institution and sector regulators should be entrusted with clear mandates with regards to PPPs. The authority that was procuring the PPP was the institution ultimately responsible for the project, which was subjected to approval, monitoring and advice from the other actors at various stages. At the same time, the Supreme Audit Institution (SAI) had an

important role ex post examining whether the risks involved in PPPs were managed effectively (Mutambudzi, 2021).

Sound regulatory policy promoted the efficient functioning of regulatory agencies by ensuring that they operated under an appropriate and clear mandate, with the necessary independence from political influence and regulated subjects. Given the complexity of PPPs and their infrequent use, critical skills to ensure value for money were needed to be concentrated in a PPP Unit that was then made available to the relevant procuring authorities. To prevent conflicts of interest and scrutiny, roles could not be the responsibility of a single unit. All significant regulation that affected the operation of PPPs were clear, transparent and enforced. Red tape could be minimised, and new and existing regulation could be carefully evaluated (World Bank, 2016).

Ruddy (2020) stated that despite the potential of PPPs to drive infrastructure development in Zimbabwe, several gaps and challenges hindered their effectiveness. A study by Chikozho (2016) highlighted issues such as inadequate regulatory frameworks, lack of transparency, and insufficient stakeholder engagement, which undermined trust and collaboration between public and private entities. Moreover, institutional capacity issues had been identified as significant barriers. Many government agencies lacked the necessary skills and resources to effectively negotiate and manage PPP contracts (ZIMSTAT, 2019). These challenges created a need for a comprehensive assessment of the prevailing governance structures to identify areas for improvement (Grimsey & Lewis, 2017).

Mutambudzi, (2021), argued that the government's lack of efforts to improve the level of service provision as far as infrastructure was concerned. Overall, the low level of competitiveness of Zimbabwe signals its government's and policy makers' poor commitment, and the political will as an essential driver to achieving sustainable growth in the country and prosperity for its people. In terms of the most problematic factors affecting doing business in the country, the Global Competitiveness Report 2012-2013 provided an insight that focused on lack of accessibility to financing and policy instability as the main limiting aspects hindering progress in Zimbabwe (World Economic Forum, The Global Competitiveness Report 2013–2014, 2o13, p.394). Also, the quality of infrastructure remained a bottleneck to proper economic performance.

World Bank. (2016). Stated that the Government of Zimbabwe faced huge challenges while implementing their economic restructuring programs. Critical to the economic recovery program was the provision and expansion of basic services, and development of a sustainable infrastructure. New infrastructure needed to be provided, and existing infrastructure upgraded or rehabilitated to deliver public services more effectively and extend access to services to a greater number of the population that currently existed. The introduction of transparent guidelines and regulations, jointly with appropriate regulatory safeguards would guarantee security and a competitive environment for private investment in PPP programs. Ruddy (2020), the Government introduced in December 2004 the adoption of a comprehensive PPP Policy and Guidelines measures to promote PPPs in the country. PPPs are not a new form of procurement in Zimbabwe, there have been a few implemented to date. Nevertheless, the record of PPP uptake has been low for several reasons including the existing unfavourable investment climate characterized by the threat of price controls, no respect for private property, absence of incentives to "sweeten" potential PPPs in the form of duty or tax incentive, and lack of proper Legal Framework (Government of Zimbabwe, PPP Policy, 2013, Foreword, p.1.)

According to Anfara and Mertz, (2020) local private sectors lack capacity and needs resources to resuscitate their production capacity. Zimbabwe was undergoing a process of reviews concerning its PPPs Policy Framework. The Government aimed at developing further guidelines which attempted at expediting and supporting the economic reform process. The President had announced the necessity to pass a PPPs bill in the then Parliamentary sessions, the PPPs Legal Framework was being overhauled, and further developed (World Bank, 2020).

As for specific PPPs experience, there were previously some track records in Zimbabwe since PPPs had already been implemented in the 90s in sectors such as rail and road. Quite specifically, the list of PPPs includes the Plumtree-Mutare Road, Bulawayo-Beitbridge Railway (BBR), Newlands Development Project, New Limpopo Bridge transport project as the first African PPP in the rail sector which was a concession based on user fees to be derived from the market. Correspondingly, the BBR rail line was rendered as a concession based on user fees as well as a road PPP project, the so-called Plumtree-Mutare project

with a recourse-based structure. In addition, the Government had some little experience with contracting out services in the laundry sector for the Parirenyatwa hospital which aimed at improving service quality in that hospital. There were quite a few PPPs which were planned for the near future. These included the Chitungwiza Central Hospital, which was at the planning stage, the Kunzvi Water project, and Beitbridge Redevelopment located at the Beitbridge border with South Africa. Based on the information from the Ministry of Finance, that project reached the negation stage in 2012, but failed as a of result of financial close, and could be revived again. Last, the Chirundu – Harare – Beitbridge Road covering the Chirundu border post with Zambia to Beitbridge border post with South Africa through Harare. Feasibility studies were conducted for that measure in 2010 (Chodzadza & Gombachika, 2019). F

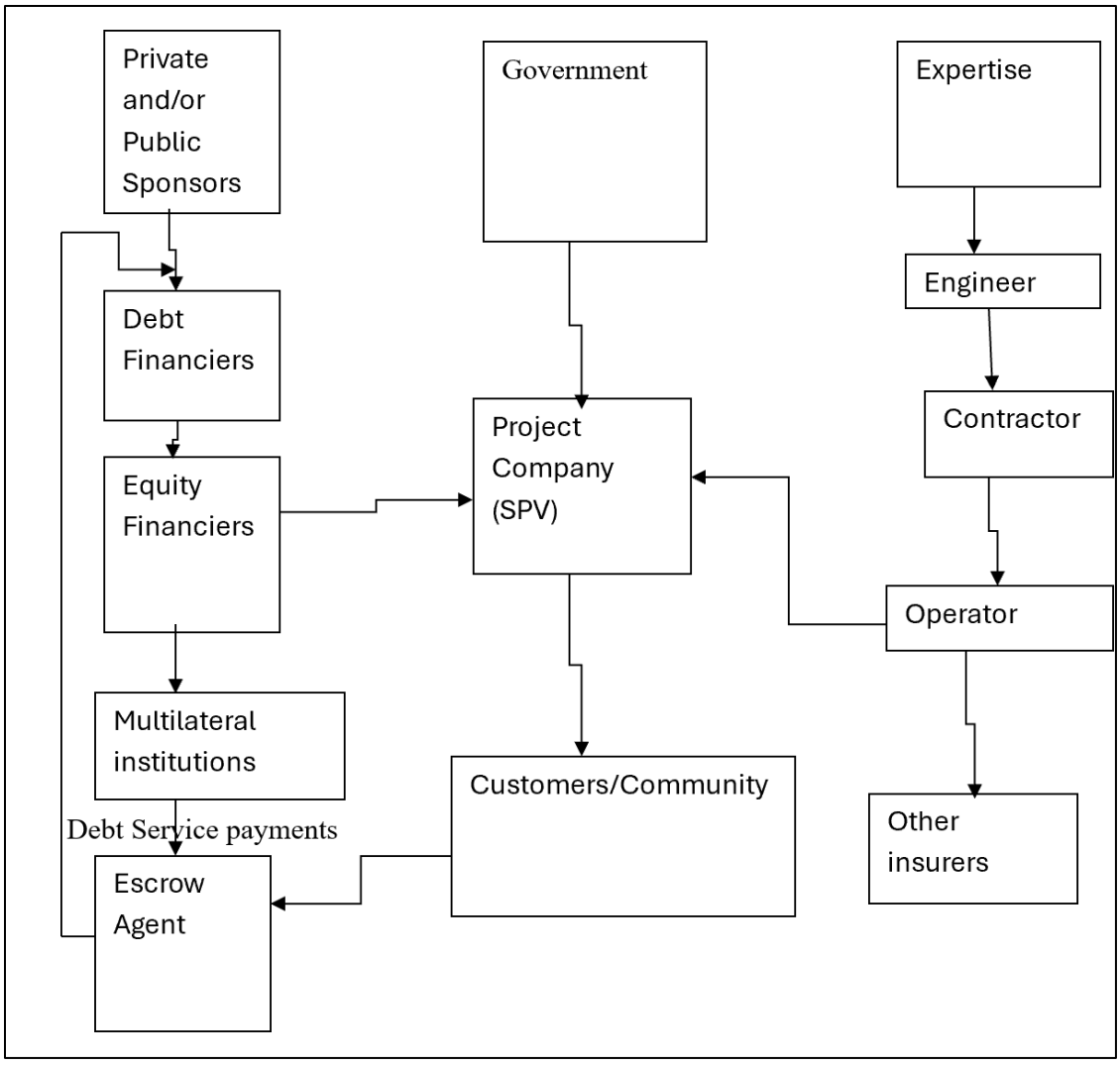
According to Anfara and Mertz, (2020), the research was to be considered as a follow-up strategic document to the Regional Strategy paper submitted to SADC3P in November 2012 recognizing that PPPs Frameworks did not develop in isolation but evolved over time along a PPP maturity curve that often responded to various challenges faced while actually implementing PPPs in specific cultural, legal and procedural and institutional settings. The Regional Strategy document examined the prevailing status of PPPs Frameworks across all Member States to classify SADC countries into four categories as far as their level of maturity of PPPs Frameworks was concerned. It distilled Zimbabwe to belong to those increasing number of countries in SADC that had established PPPs Policies and/or PPP Law aimed at the promotion of their PPPs schemes. The next part of the same chapter would elaborate on Zimbabwe's specific PPPs experience, its PPPs Policy, Legal and Institutional Framework as a continuation of the above mentioned cross-country Regional Strategy aimed at providing an in-depth insight into the specific country strategy for Zimbabwe.

2.4.1Key issues to address for PPPs in Zimbabwe

PPPs involved complex technical issues, and their success were dependent on the congenial interaction of multiple stakeholders. Figure 2.1 gives an overview of some of the key players involved in PPPs and how they interacted. In that regard, there were key issues that

needed to be addressed to facilitate the interaction of the stakeholders for successful designing and construction of PPPs.

Tables 3 Possible PPP stakeholders and their interaction



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP; 2020).

A review of case studies on PPP Units by Sanghi A et al, 2007 showed a prima facie positive correlation between the use of PPP Units and successful PPP programmes. Some of the important lessons that could be drawn from the case studies included the following:

It was important that financing mechanisms for the PPPs schemes be regularised. While it was largely the private sector that brought in the finance, the manner in which the funds would be channelled towards the infrastructure needed regularisation. Project financing by the private partner was mostly done via a special purpose vehicle (SPV). As shown in Figure 2.1, the SPV was the most critical component of the PPPs, as it shouldered the project. An SPV was a legal entity that enabled the coming together of the different stakeholders, which facilitated the allocation and diversification of risk and financing requirements to more than one party. There were the SPVs that undertook the project and therefore all contractual agreements between the various parties would be negotiated between themselves and the SPV (UN ESCAP, (not dated)). Mostly it was set up by the sponsors who agreed to lead and contribute the long-term equity capital in exchange for ownership shares in the SPV. The sponsors could also include the Government.

Klein, (2019), stated that the project could be financed via debt and equity, with financing mostly provided using project financing rather than traditional lending, i.e. financing would be based on the financial strength of the project with little or no recourse to the sponsors. That implied that the specific risks of that project remained separate from the existing business of the sponsors, as the SPV borrowed the funds, and the debt was paid back using the cash flow generated from the project (UN ESCAP). For easy access to capital, the SPV would mostly be headed by a consortium of financiers, who included different stakeholders as shown in Figure 2.1. Even if Government had equity in it, the SPV had to be seen to be relatively independent, with government control being absent or minimal, as there was risk that the SPV would be construed as a veil behind which the government would control a PPP, particularly if public finance institutions were involved (IMF, 2004). Financiers sometimes also requested the setting up of an escrow account, managed by an escrow agent, to safeguard project revenues for the purpose of ensuring that debt service obligations were met. The account could also be used to hold a deposit in trust until certain specified conditions were met (Grosvold, & Caldwell, 2014).

Prior to any PPP being initiated, it was important that special attention was made towards ensuring that SPVs for PPPs could be successfully constructed for the ease of finance

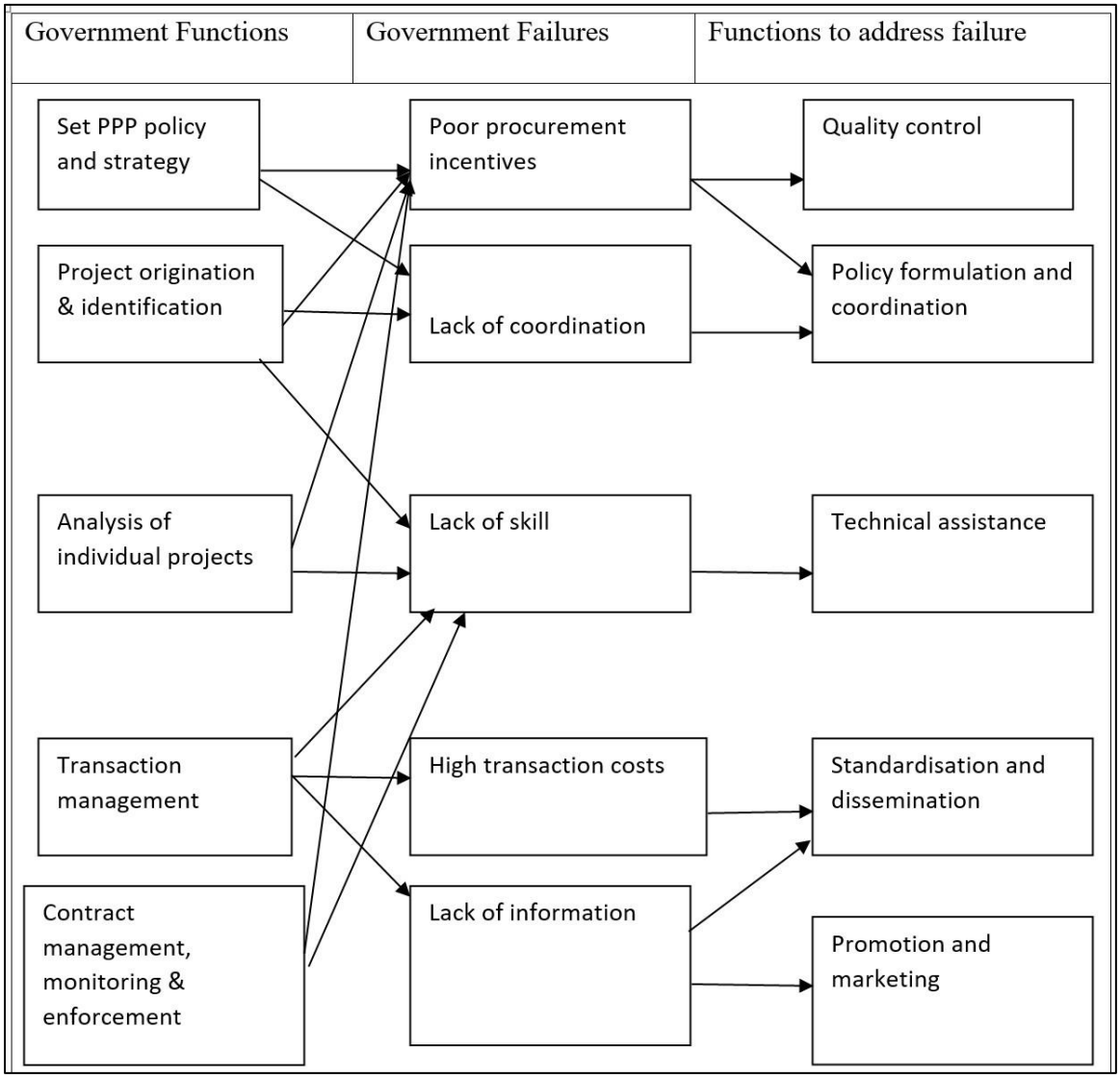
mobilisation. That also needed to be supported by the laying of the basic policy and institutional framework for PPPs, whose discussion ensued.

2.5 Develop a PPP Governance Framework Specific to ZIDA that Can Drive Infrastructure Development

2.5.1 Institutional Framework

The success of the PPPs processes also hinged on the presence of an institution to oversee the PPPs process. Such an institution across many countries was referred to as a PPPs Unit. It was, therefore, important that such a Unit be established in Zimbabwe. Although a PPPs Unit only played a supporting role, it helped in project preparation; it helped in the selection and management of specific advisors; ensured that the project fitted into the overall PPPs policy and also played a role in project approval and quality assurance. Figure 2.2 summarised the functions of a PPPs Unit, as well as describing the various measures that a PPPs Unit could take to address various aspects of government failure (Chodzadza & Gombachika, 2019).

Tables 4 Roles of PPP Units in addressing government failures in PPP programs.



(Source : Sanghi A et al, 2007)

A review of case studies on PPP Units by Sanghi A et al, 2007 showed a prima facie positive correlation between the use of PPP Units and successful PPP programmes. Some of the important lessons that could be drawn from the case studies included the following:

- Even with well-designed PPPs, governments characterised by lack of political commitment to advance PPP programmes, lack of transparency and coordination within government agencies would reduce the chances of a successful PPP Unit.

It was found out that the least effective Units were in those countries whose governments were relatively less effective.

- Without high level political support for the PPPs program, a PPP Unit would most likely fail in its mandate.
- Relatively successful PPPs Units directly target government failures, focusing clearly on responding to specific government failures is essential in ensuring the success of the institutional solution chosen.
- The PPPs Unit should have enough authority to match its expectations from stakeholders, particularly in providing quality control.
- The location of the PPPs Unit in the government was also central for its success, especially for coordination and political support. In a parliamentary system of government, a PPPs Unit was most likely to be effective if located in the Ministry of Finance or Treasury, for ease of fund coordination. In addition, a country with a strong planning and policy coordination arm could also have the PPPs Unit housed under that arm of government. In Zimbabwe, a PPPs Unit could serve its purpose well if housed under the Ministry of Finance, to make it easier for the Government to play its financing roles effectively if called upon (Chodzadza & Gombachika, 2019).

However, under emergency conditions it was still possible to initiate PPPs projects before the PPPs Unit was fully established. Some examples could be found where countries established PPPs Units after PPPs project. The Government of Victoria in Australia, for example implemented a tram and suburban train transport in Melbourne and a major toll road before establishing Partnership Victoria Unit. The same was also true for Hungary, which created a PPPs unit ten years after its first PPPs projects in transport (Cuttaree et al, 2019). However, these are only rare cases, as it was the PPP Unit that had to drive the process forward.

It was however important to note that political commitment for any government was not measured by only the policy and institutional framework, although these were key in demonstrating it. Having these institutions would not be a sufficient condition for the take-off of PPP projects, given that policies and laws could exist on paper without any

implementation, or with implementation being characterised by some hurdles (Chodzadza & Gombachika, 2019). Other issues which mattered in the Zimbabwean context included the general competitiveness of the country as an investment destination, which warranted attention from respective Ministries to attract investment. It was very critical that the country's overall investment climate be improved, together with other rankings that were normally used as yardsticks, such as the ease of doing business.

The proposed PPP governance framework had the potential to significantly impact Zimbabwe's economic recovery and infrastructure development. By facilitating effective partnerships between the public and private sectors, the framework could enhance resource mobilization, improve service delivery, and stimulate economic growth (World Bank, 2015). Research indicated that well-structured PPPs could lead to improved infrastructure quality, which was critical for attracting foreign investment and fostering economic development (Grimsey& Lewis, 2019). Additionally, effective governance structures could enhance transparency and accountability, reducing corruption and building public trust in government initiatives (OECD, 2016).

2.5.2 Policy and institutional framework

Political commitment was one of the key elements for success of PPPs. One measure of political commitment was the policy and institutional framework for PPPs. These included institutions governing the manner in which PPPs had to be conducted, as well as the legislative framework governing the manner in which PPPs were to be operated. Legislation acts as both insurance and assurance to investors that the government would honour the contract.

It was important that a policy framework on PPPs be developed, which would guide the PPPs process. In addition, a public institution to oversee the whole process also needed to be developed. The institution would also play an active role in developing the legislative framework for PPPs. The existence of these three issues (policy framework, legislation and PPPs institution) played the most critical role in making PPPs successful. The Nepal PPPs approach could be used to indicate the importance of policy and legislative frameworks for PPPs (Chodzadza & Gombachika, 2019).

First, the PPPs concept was incorporated into Nepal's Development Plan (Development Plan 1992-1997). The Development Plan (2012-2017) laid the groundwork, mentioning the PPP schemes to be used (BOT and BOOT) and saw necessary policy and legal reforms to promote private sector participation in construction of road network. However, it was noted in the Three-Year Interim Plan (2007/08-2019/10) that, despite the BOOT policy adopted for promoting private sector investment in infrastructure, the private sector investment could not rise as expected. That called for a simpler and practical legislation to govern the process (Coolican, 2017).

An 'Act Relating to Private Sector Investment in the Construction and Operation of the Infrastructure', which started as on Ordinance on 22 August 2003 before being ratified as an Act on 14 December 2019 was then established. The Act laid the basic institutional legislative framework for operationalising PPPs, which made it easier for the private sector to feel secure (Alvi, 2016).

In South Africa, although an institution governing PPPs had been put in place, it became apparent that a regulatory framework was needed for PPPs at the national and provincial level; particularly the pre-procurement, procurement, and implementation process. That saw the development of Regulation 16 to establish the mechanism for national and provincial departments to procure PPPs. Regulation 16 was enacted in May 2000 and served as a comprehensive guide to PPPs implementation. In addition, the National Treasury PPP Manual and the Standardized PPP Agreement Provisions were also developed to complete Regulation 16, and these were presented to the public on August 23, 2004. That proved very successful, for it was reported that since passage of Regulation 16, twelve PPPs had been completed, with project values in the hundreds of millions of Rands (USAID, South Africa, 2016). It was important to also consider enactment of a PPPs specific legislation in addition to the legislative review and necessary amendments to lay the legislative groundwork for PPPs. A comprehensive legislation had to govern PPPs (Alvi, 2019)

The literature indicated that while Zimbabwe had a foundation for PPPs, significant gaps and challenges remained. Developing a robust governance framework tailored to ZIDA could enhance infrastructure development and contribute to the country's economic

recovery. By analysing global best practices and addressing local challenges, that framework could play a pivotal role in transforming Zimbabwe's infrastructure landscape.

Grimsey& Lewis, (2019) also stressed that a government agency must have the necessary powers laid down by statute or legal act to enter into a PPP agreement with a private party and undertake obligations under the agreement. A PPPs project at times required authorization from government bodies at different levels of government (Alvi, 2016). However, in emerging PPPs market, it was not always clear what government bodies/agencies might have the legal authority to make such agreements or could authorize a PPPs project. It was important to note that obligations undertaken, or agreements made, or authorization provided without legal right were ultra vires and generally considered to be void and unenforceable. An ultra vires act could be void by law and could affect the acts of private companies and government agencies (Morgan, 2019).

To clarify these important legal issues, some countries had enacted special laws on PPPs that defined the legal regime, administrative and the approval processes involved and other related matters. The coverage in national laws could vary widely but had to provide clarity and certainty to award contracts and implement projects and could specify:

- Division of responsibility between levels of government and powers of government bodies.
- Sectors covered, details of project identification, approval, procurement and implementation arrangements.

Types of permitted PPP models and general conditions for these models.

- Guidelines on risk sharing arrangements.
- Provision of financial and other incentives by the government.
- Provisions concerning contract management including dispute resolution.

The extent to which lenders could undertake security over project assets and its liabilities.

Administrative process involved in PPP project development and implementation.

Rights of the parties to a PPP contract agreement.

Ruddy (2020) affirmed that it was important to note that the PPP legal regime could, however, scatter over many legal instruments, not just the special law. These instruments could include the private contract law, infrastructure sector regulatory laws, company law, tax law, labour law, competition law, consumer protection law, insolvency law, infrastructure sector laws, property law, foreign investment law, intellectual property law, environmental law, public procurement law or rules, pledge law, acquisition or appropriation law and many other laws. Separate sets of operational rules and guidelines could also exist for many of such applicable laws. All such applicable laws, statutes, operational rules and guidelines and other specified institutional and administrative arrangements together constituted the legal regime of PPPs in a country (Morgan, 2017)

2.6 Research Gap

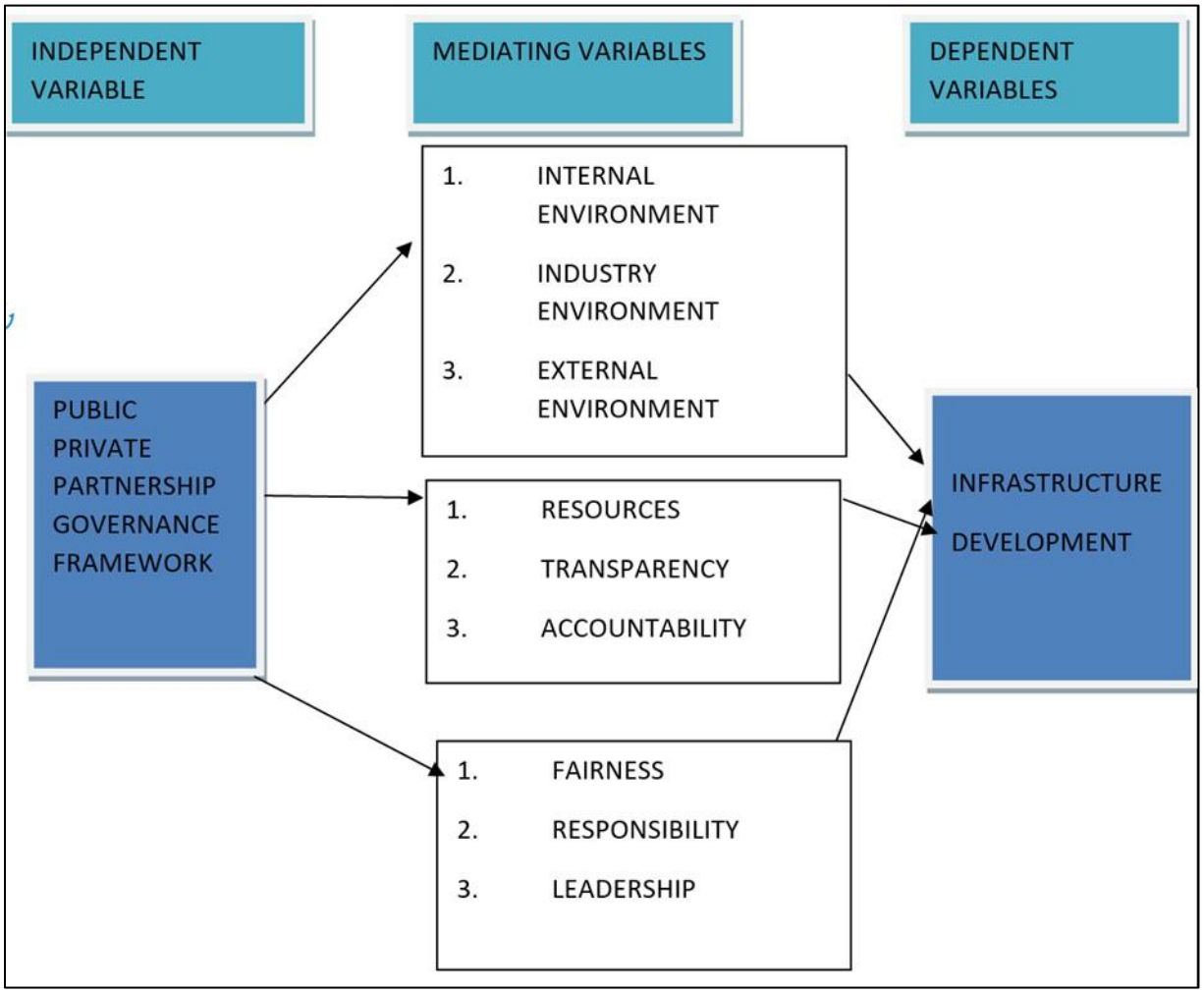
Most of the studies reviews focused on the relationship between developing PPPs and infrastructure development and economic recovery (Huang, 2016; Lee, 2017; Wang 2019; Clikeman, 2019) and they were carried outside Zimbabwe like South Africa. Consequently, reflecting all the stated literature and researchers above concluded. Few of the studies have been concluded on developing PPPs on infrastructure development in Zimbabwe a case study of ZIDA. That created the 'Knowledge gap' which was covered in the research along with the data analysis, the study conclusion and the results that shall be explained later.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

According to Anfara and Mertz, (2020) defined a conceptual framework as a representation of the relationship that one expected to see between the identified variables by the researcher, or the characteristics or properties that one wanted to study. Conceptual frameworks could be written or be in form of visuals and at times were generally developed based on a literature review of existing studies about the researchers' topic Rocco and Plakhotnik, (2019). A conceptual framework was a description of the way a researcher understood the factors and/or variables that were involved in the study and their relationships to one another. The purpose of a conceptual framework was to articulate the concepts under study using relevant literature and to clarify the presumed relationships

among those concepts (Mordgan, 2019). Based on the hypothesis of the study, the conceptual framework for the factors influencing development of a public-private partnership governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development was shown below:

Figures 2 Factors may positively or negatively influence public-private partnership governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development and economic recovery



Source: Researcher, (2024)

The above diagram showed the factors that influenced the development of public-private partnerships governance framework (independent variable) for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development which was a dependent variable. The diagram above showed

the factors that affected the relationship between PPPs and infrastructure development and economic recovery such as internal environment, industry environment, external environment, resources, transparency, accountability, fairness, responsibility and leadership. There was a positive correlation between quality of service on PPPs and infrastructure development. For infrastructure development to be satisfied there were factors such as internal environment, industry environment, external environment, resources, transparency, accountability, fairness, responsibility and leadership, of the PPPs service provider that were meant to be considered. Deviations in these variables would affect service quality and eventually infrastructure development.

2.6 Chapter summary

The chapter highlighted the theories which were agency theory, transactional cost economics and institutional theory, which was most suitable for ZIDA, the literature, the impact of developing PPPs and infrastructure development. The researcher reviewed previous studies and found out that there was a research gap which enabled it to be filled by the research. The chapter went on to the next chapter which focused on the research methodology that was to be employed to achieve research objectives.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

The previous chapter was the literature review which highlighted the theoretical framework, conceptual framework, empirical review and the research gap. Chapter looked at the research methods, the research methodology, the research design and the research instruments used. The research utilised triangulation which was a mixed approach where both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used. The researcher chose these approaches as some objectives could better be approached quantitatively, while others could be achieved qualitatively. Research methodology defined what the activity of the research was, how it proceeded, how its progress was measured, and what constituted its success. It was also defined from another angle as a logical basis for collecting and interpreting data followed by an analysis of the findings. Research methodology was a method, technique or procedure which was used in conducting their search Lichtman, (2020). The chapter outlined and justified all the activities that were used to collect data. The research objectives of the research were to analyse the PPP models of ZIDA that existed, to identify challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe and to examine PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

3.1 The research onion

The research ‘onion’ as conceived by Saunders et al., (2008) was used in the research. The model was developed to guide research methods and methodology. Saunders et al. (2008) defined methodology as the theory of how research could be undertaken, including the theoretical and philosophical assumptions upon which research was based and the implications of these for the method or methods adopted. The research ‘onion’ summarised the research methods and methodology that the researcher used in an effort to make it easy for readers to understand how the research was undertaken. The research ‘onion’ by Saunders et al., (2008) was modified to suit the research’s objectives and the following research ‘onion’ was adopted. It clearly explained how the research was carried out.

Figures 3 The research onion

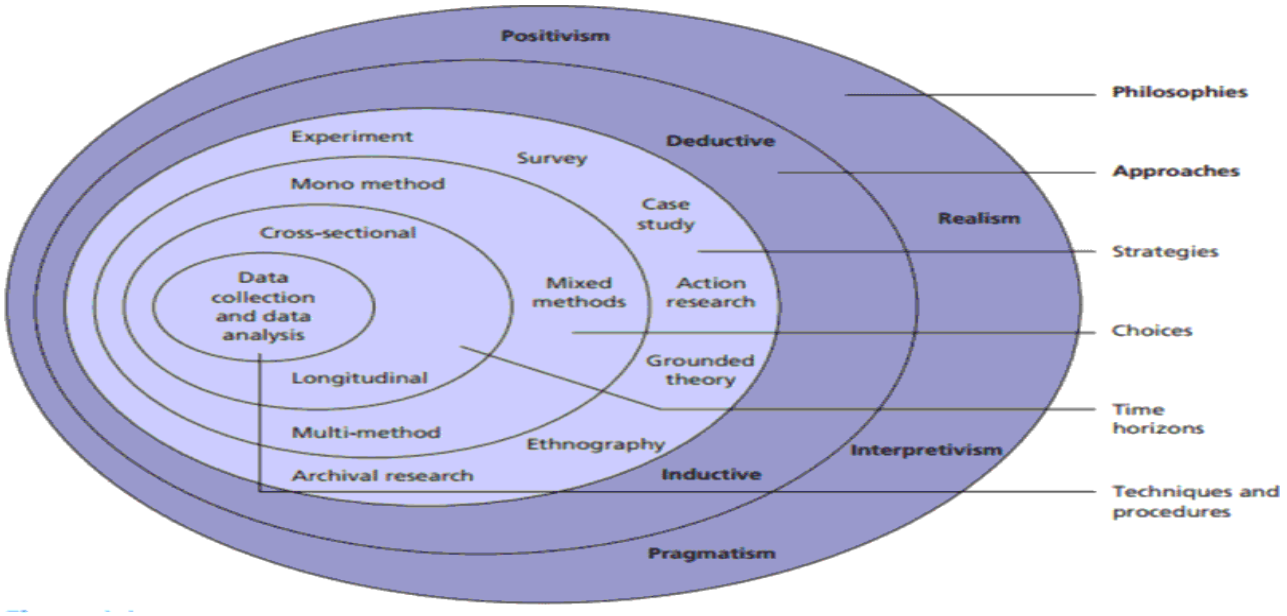


Figure 3.1 research Onion by Saunders (2008)

3.1.1 Research philosophy

Given the philosophical positions adopted in distinctive studies, the research philosophy of the study was in step with the pragmatism view. According to Creswell (2015), pragmatism was a philosophy that contributed to a deeper and broader attitude and a clearer purpose within the wider context. According to Creswell (2015), pragmatism was not devoted to any one device of philosophy or reality. Individual researchers had the freedom

of preference and were free to pick out the methodologies, strategies, and processes of studies that excellently met their wishes and functions. Pragmatism used the blended method which was qualitative and quantitative research. Qualitative research was largely exploratory studies. Qualitative studies were used to gain an appreciation of hidden critiques and motivations. Open-ended questionnaires, observations, and unstructured interviews were the statistics studies units used to collect qualitative facts.

Quantitative research was the verifiable research of circumstances that had to be discovered using statistical and mathematical techniques. Wilkinson, (2015) stated that quantitative research dealt with finding out facts approximate conditions and it was miles based on a hard fast and measurable assumption. Quantitative research collected statistics using numbers that could be categorized and ranked or measured. Experiments were concerned with measuring matters and typically yield quantitative statistics. Pragmatism was a philosophy that could benefit information primarily based at natural phenomena, causality, prediction, objectivity, and by means of understanding family members. It allowed for a blended approach to be carried out. Pragmatism permitted the verifiable investigation of circumstances that could be located using statistical and mathematical methods. It was likewise concerned with know-how of the behaviour of people from the informants' factor of view.

3.1.2 Research Approach

The study used both inductive and deductive (blend) research approaches which, as stated by Gundlapalli, Jaulent and Zhao, (2017:460), aimed to unveil the unknown using a case study. According to Schwardt (2017:195) research approach referred to a theory of how an inquiry could proceed. It involved analysis of the assumptions, principles, and procedures in a particular approach to inquiry. In the study the researcher used mixed methods which were qualitative and quantitative methodologies to cater to the objectives stated in the chapter. According to Kemper, Springfield, and Teddlie (2017) mixed methods allowed the use of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis in parallel form. Bazely (2019) permitted the researcher to use both numerical data and non-numerical data together with alternative tools such as statistics and analysis. Creswell (2018) stated that quantitative research was a process of collecting, analysing, interpreting, and writing the results of the

study, while qualitative research as the approach to data collection, analysis, and report writing differing from the traditional, quantitative approaches.

3.1.3 Case Study Strategy

The researcher used single a case study strategy that focused on ZIDA in Harare in Zimbabwe. The researcher focused on ZIDA in Harare area where the researcher was based and that made the research much easier, cost-effective and timesaving to gather the required data. The researcher chose a case study strategy because of project management issues, the most frequent means of engaging with organisational processes and accounting practices had been the field-based case study research genre (Parker, 2019). The case study strategy allowed the researcher to be in direct contact with the organisation settings, conducting in-depth research into actors and their contexts in their natural occurring settings. It gave the researcher a real-life opportunity in which the researcher had an opportunity to put into practice her abstract thoughts by embodying them in a particular case. Through that strategy, the researcher managed to gather realistic and reliable data because the chosen strategy was highly flexible and it incorporated various perspectives, data collection tools and interpretive strategies.

3.1.5. Research design

The research design for the research was concurrent transformative research design which accommodate both quantitative and qualitative data. According to Phonah (2018), concurrent nested design was a type of mixed research design where both qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously, with one method nested within the other. Johnson, & Onwuegbuzie, (2004). In that design, one method took a primary role, while the other method was used to provide additional context, explanation, or support. Typically, the primary method was quantitative, involving the collection of numerical data and statistical analysis. The nested method was qualitative, which involved the collection of textual or narrative data through interviews, observations, or document analysis. Creswell, (2017), argued that the qualitative data was used to complement and enrich the quantitative findings, providing a deeper understanding of the research topic (Perry and Gronhaug, 2016). By using two different methods concurrently, researchers can triangulate the data, comparing the findings from both qualitative and quantitative sources. That helped to

strengthen the validity and reliability of the research findings by integrating multiple perspectives and reducing the impact of individual biases or limitations. The nested qualitative component provided rich, in-depth insights that could help explain or contextualize the quantitative data. It allowed researchers to explore the underlying reasons, motivations, and experiences that contributed to the quantitative patterns or trends observed. That combination of methods provided a more comprehensive understanding of the research topic. Practical and efficient data collection, conducting both qualitative and quantitative data collection simultaneously saved time and resources. Researchers could gather different types of data from the same participants or samples in a coordinated manner, maximizing efficiency and minimizing participant burden (Clark, 2017).

3.2 Targeted population and Sample Size

A population could be defined as the full set of cases from which a sample was taken. ZIDA had 123 employees. According to Saunders (2007) it referred to a group of people from which the desired information could be obtained (Coolican, 2017). The target population for the research were all employees at ZIDA. A Sample size had to be a group of noticeably lesser wide variety of elements selected from a population for investigation purposes (Alvi, 2016). A total sample of 80 respondents was drawn from ZIDA using a **systematic sampling method.**

Tables 5 Composition of the sample size

No/	**Respondent categories**	**Sample size**
1	Investment department	10
2	Business development department	20
3	Policy and research department	20
4	Monitoring and evaluation department	20
5	Sales & marketing	10
	Total	**80**

Source: Researcher, 2024

3.3 Research instruments

3.3.1 Questionnaires

That was the principal device for data collection. According to (Borg et al, 2019) a questionnaire was a tool of studies used to acquire facts from respondents for the research subject matter under study. Five-point Likert questionnaires were used since it incorporated interviews (Guilford, 2018). Likert questionnaires were easy to answer to respondents and less time consuming since the respondents were just ticking the statement if they agreed with the statement or not. They were also easy to manage and control the data. The type of questionnaire was easy to code and analyse the data.

3.3.2 Advantages

The use of questionnaires when carrying out research made it easier and quicker to obtain the responses and comparisons of different responses were easier to make. That provides them with the opportunity to express their views and opinions without being interrupted. Questionnaires were used because they were cheap, that was permit contact at minimum costs and also easy to administer, it was easy to analyse and interpret. Responses were gathered in a standardized way since questionnaires were more objective. Questionnaires were relatively quick instruments to collect information with and collected information from a large portion of the population. They were quicker and easier for respondents to answer, answers from different respondents were easier to compare and contrast, the answers were generally easier to code and statistically analyse, response choices clarified question/s' meaning for respondents, respondents gave answers even on areas that awee generally believed to be sensitive, very few irrelevant or confusing answers to questions asked were received, no respondent/s in the sample was disadvantaged on the bases of articulate or literacy and they were easy to replicate

3.3.3 Disadvantages

There was no room for probing. The questionnaires force people to make choices they would not have made in the real world. They were prone to clerical mistakes or giving the wrong response. Responses lacked deep variety and even respondents with no opinion or

no knowledge on the question answered anyway. The Respondents were forced to give simplistic responses to some complex issues.

3.3.4 Interviews

Interviews were two-way communication between the researcher and the interviewee. It allowed explanation of responses made thereby making the responses more comprehensive. To counter the weaknesses of the questionnaire, face to face and telephone interviews were carried out to listen to their evaluations on investors service and how to improve investors satisfaction. (Morgan, 2017). That type of interview permitted the respondents to express their opinion freely on how to develop a public-private partnership governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development and how it could be improved.

3.3.5 Advantages

The purpose of interviews was to verify data amassed from written sources, to make clear factors of information, to update information and to collect data. Interviews were particularly beneficial for getting the story in the back of a participant's experiences. Probing was made possible when the researcher used interviews. The interviewer could pursue in-depth facts across the topic. Interviews could be beneficial as follow-up to certain respondents. It enabled the researcher to probe deeply into the respondent's mind. Interviews could be divided into open ended and structured interviews (Guilford, 2019). They offered comparable, dependable and relevant qualitative statistics.

3.3.6 Disadvantages

Interviews were time consuming, costly, difficult to code and they had high chances of bias and required a lot of patience in order to obtain insight of the matter.

3.4 Sources of data

3.4.1 Primary data

Primary data was original and first collected by the researcher for the purpose of the study. Primary data served only one specific study, so the researcher used questionnaires and interviews for the study. Primary data was the best for the study for it involved first-hand

information and accurate because the information was directly from the source and there was no exaggeration of facts by the researcher.

3.4.2 Secondary data

Secondary data was every dataset not obtained by the author or the analysis of data gathered by someone else according to Boslaugh (2019). Secondary data could include data that had been previously gathered and was under consideration to be reused for new questions for which the data gathered was not originally intended as postulated by Vartanian (2019). The researcher used secondary sources like textbooks, articles, journals, internet and company records.

3.5 Data collection, presentation and analysis procedure

3.5.1 Data Collection procedure

The data obtained from interviews and questionnaires was put together with the data from the company's internal records, internet and articles to produce detailed and accurate information for the study. The researcher formulated the questions which were used on the interviews and the questionnaires. The respondents at ZIDA were selected from different departments who filled in the questionnaires while the researcher waited so that when the respondents did not understand, the researcher would assist to give the required information. The researcher collected the questionnaires after the respondents finished filling them.

3.5.2 Data Presentation

In the study quantitative statistics was presented using tables, pie charts and bar graphs. That was so because graphs were easy to draw and interpret. Explanations had been made for qualitative statistics and to interpret quantitative information turned into and given in a descriptive manner.

3.5.3 Data Analysis

According to Fisher and Durrance (2018), data analysis was the manner of decreasing massive volumes of gathered data to make sense of them. Kawulich (2016) stated that data collection methods were used to obtain data from the target group. The data collection instruments used were questionnaire and interview guide. The data was then coded and entered in the Scientific Packages for Social Scientists (SPSS) 22.0 or IBM SPSS Software.

Mixed research was used. Data analysis involved presenting and interpreting information gathered for the problem. It was the core of the study activity in which the researcher provided analyses and translated all that was in the research. Data was subjected to statistical calculations and supplied on tables and graphs after grouping. Scientific Packages for Social Scientists (SPSS) 22.0 was used to examine the statistics. It involved decreasing collected statistics into manageable sizes, developing summaries, styles and applying statistical techniques (Kumar, 2018). SPSS 22.0 statistical tool became utilized in arranging data and making statistical analysis of responses obtained from respondents. Similarities were calculated using possibilities, imply, well-known deviation and mode.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of Research instruments

3.6.1 Validity

It was the extent to which the research devices, were measuring what they were supposed to measure. Panneerselvam (2020), validity of the gadgets determined the credibility of the results. It guaranteed that the data gathered was free from bias and error. In the research all the statistics was crosschecked to get admission to its validity. To ensure validity, randomization was utilized in selection of sample that was a systematic sampling approach. Also, good and relevant sample size adjoining to the populace was used. Bias was minimized with the aid of the usage of the objectives as tenet in reviewing literature, the structuring of questionnaires, presentation of findings and making conclusions.

3.6.2 Reliability

That was the extent to which the observable measure represented a theoretical concept that was predictable, correct and stable according to (Kumar, 2019). The more the degree of consistence and balance of the results from the device, the greater the reliability. To assess

at the reliability of questionnaires first pilot test and adjustments were made earlier before administering them to sampled respondents. To make certain reliability a Cronbach's Alpha co-efficiency was computed with the usage of SPSS.

3.6.2.1 Pre-test

A pre-test was accomplished on questionnaire and interview guide in an effort to evaluate the impact of the questions and assess the quality of responses with a view of fixing questions so that they picture in the direction of accomplishing the objectives of the studies. To examine the validity of the questions and reliability of data collected. Fellow students who had understanding on the research were used for the pilot test. Some questions were left unanswered, and modifications were made to the questionnaire. The questionnaire that appended to the research were refined and finalized.

3.6.2.2 Expert opinion

The researcher sought expert advice from the supervisor of the study who made quite a number of suggestions which were mentioned, and the essential amendments were made.

3.6.2.3 Peer reviews

Suggestions made with the aid of colleagues were stated and the vital adjustments were done. The pre-test helped the researcher to make sure that the established questions had a match for the objective. Through that method, the researcher identified and corrected questions that respondents could have misunderstood, that were ambiguous, pointless, missing the goal and they ought to gauge trendy reactions to them (Babbie & Mouton, 2018). The questions had been additionally drawn in order that they furnished answers to the diverse studies objectives.

3.7 Ethical considerations

According to Lancaster (2019), ethical issues in research, embody a fixed number of morals and values for carrying out research and the use of studies, and the researcher should be careful not to violate these. The researcher made positive ethical values that were upheld,

for instance, through making sure anonymity became preserved when people were responding to questionnaires. The subject matter that was selected was also not meant to embarrass anyone, therefore, the researcher exercised care to the extent that people that did not understand the development of a public-private partnership governance framework for Zimbabwe to drive infrastructure development, possibly because of not keeping up to current affairs, did not feel ashamed because of the researchers' inclusivity. To ensure that was attained the researcher made sure responses were personal and confidential. No names of taking part agencies or individuals were included, anywhere in the document files or inside the dissertation. Respondents could withdraw at any time once they felt they no longer wanted to take part in the research and no threats were made against them. Also, all source documents were to be filed and locked up in researcher's drawers wherein no one could have accessibility to them to make sure they were safe from public use. Consent was sought between the researcher and the organization before any publication could be made.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

3.8. 1 Experience

The researcher of the project was new to that discipline or fields therefore much less experience and she obtained help from the supervisor.

3.8.2 Cooperation

Some providers of data were very busy with their work. That was resolved via finding convenient time for the respondents.

3.8.3 Confidentiality

Some respondents were not willing to provide information due to the issue of private and confidentiality. The researcher resolved that through assuring the management that the

study was sorely for research purposes only and was done to fulfil the requirements for the master's degree programme and the information would be destroyed thereafter.

3.9 Chapter Summary

The chapter was dealing with research philosophy, approach, design; research methods and strategies used in coming with the target population, sample, and techniques used in data collection were highlighted also. The next chapter would look at data analysis, presentation and interpretation.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter looked at the findings from the study. The results of the data analysis on developing a Public-Private Partnership Governance Framework to Drive Infrastructure Development; a Case of the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA), were offered in this chapter. The findings were presented using graphs, charts, and tables. Data was presented primarily based on the goals that the statistics had been collected to fulfil its mandate. Demographic statistics were presented and that denoted the populace

characteristics mainly referring to age, gender, geographical location in which participants were living and additionally occupation. The data was crucial for the variables in particular when it came to developing a PPP governance framework to drive infrastructure development. Both descriptive and inferential statistics had been used to analyse the data.

The objectives of the study were: to analyse the existing PPP models of ZIDA, to identify challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe and to examine PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

4.1 Response rate

The administration of the research instruments led to the following response rates:

Tables 6 Table 4.1 Response rate (Source: Primary data, 2024)

Instrument	Issued	Returned	Percentage response
Questionnaire	80	75	94%
Interviews	8	6	75%

Table 6 shows the response rate was above 50% in all instances therefore the responses were considered sufficient to carry on the study as advocated for by Creswell (2020) who posited that a response rate of above 50% was sufficient for a study to continue.

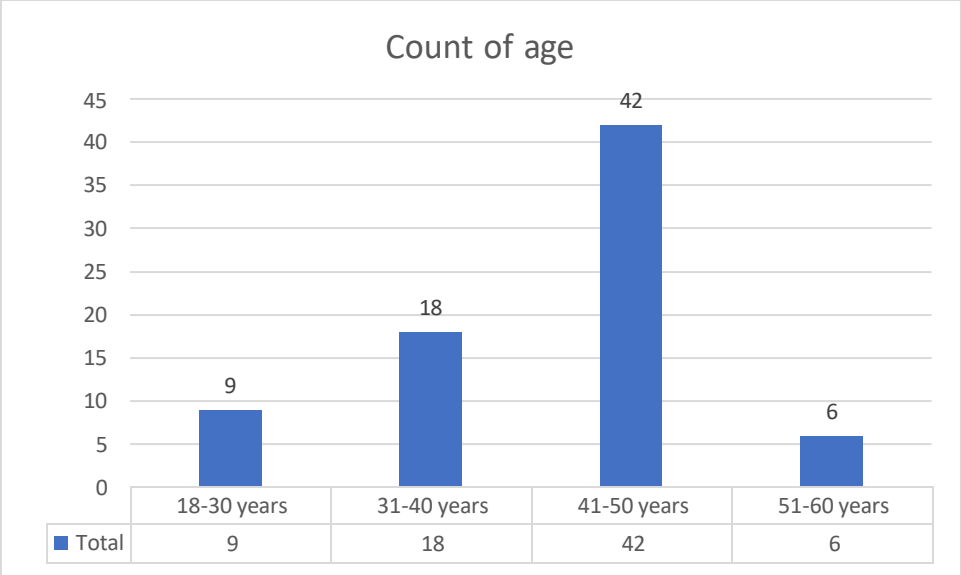
4.2 Demographic data

The demographic data for the respondents came out as shown in the passages below.

4.2.1 Age

The figure below shows the age ranges of the respondents.

Figures 4 Age distribution

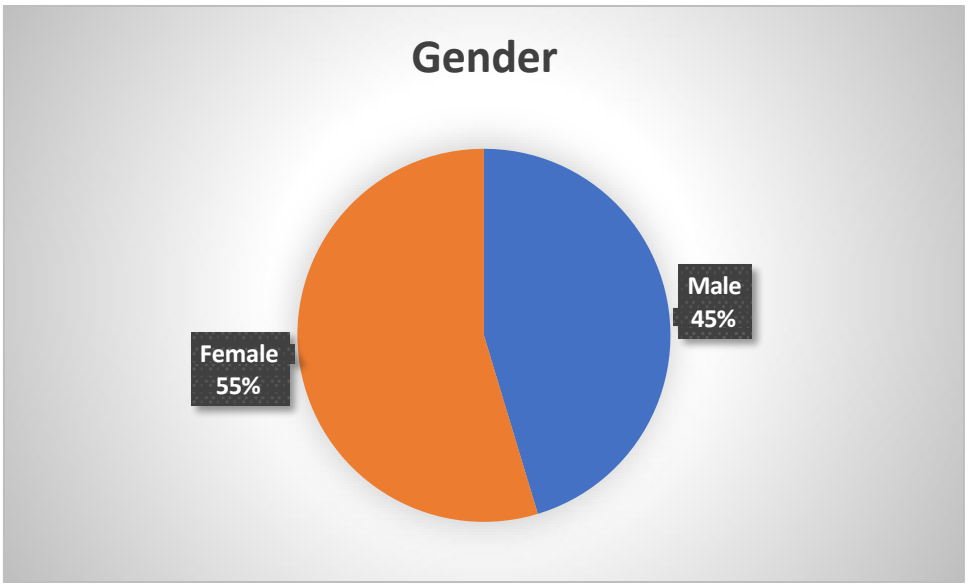


From the above figure 4, it shows that the majority of the respondents were between 41-50 years (42 respondents). The age distribution followed a normal distribution which shows that there were less people at extreme of the distributions. The study benefited from these findings because it showed that the opinions in the responses were not based on a single age group but rather on a wider range of ages. Therefore, the responses obtained contained perspectives of all different age groups, which improved the normality of variance of the study's responses.

4.2.2 Gender

The figure below shows the gender distribution of the respondents:

Figures 5 Gender distribution

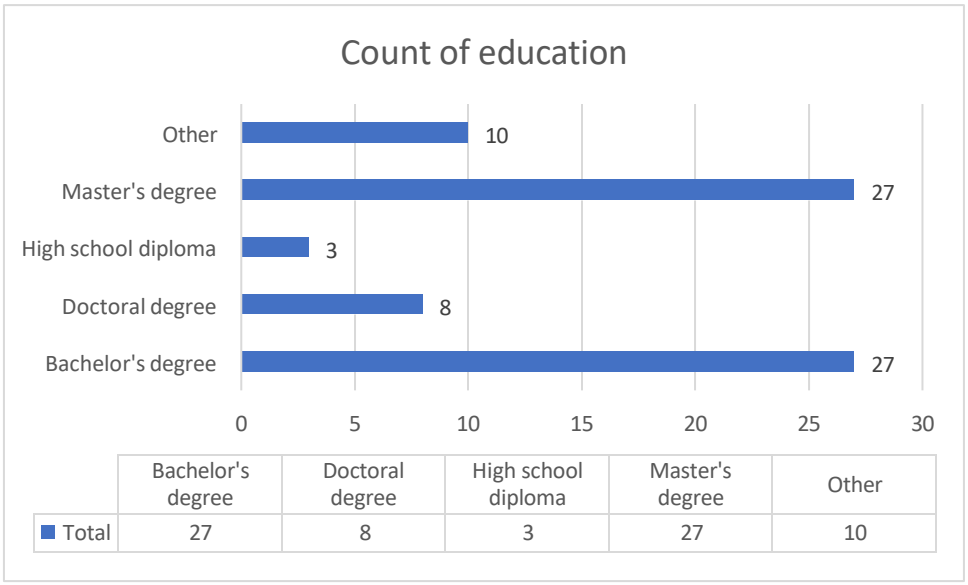


From figure 5, the responses showed that 55% of the respondents were women and 45% were men. That showed an almost equal distribution in the gender. Therefore, there was no bias in terms of gender for the responses in the study for they included perspectives of both men and women alike. The reliability of the study data was promoted by this gender even distribution.

4.2.3 Education

The following figure shows the level of education of the respondents.

Figures 6 Level of education

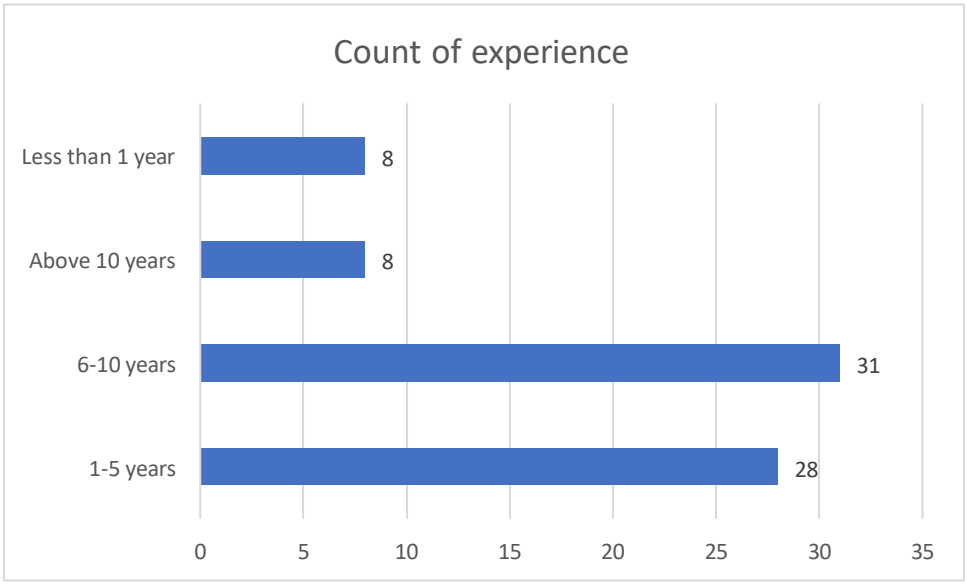


The above figure 6 showed the levels of education of the respondents. All respondents had some higher education qualifications. That was important for the study because it showed that all the participants were able to have a bare minimum understanding of the research questions and the research instruments.

4.2.4 Experience

The table below showed the responses obtained for the experience of the participants:

Figures.7 Experience

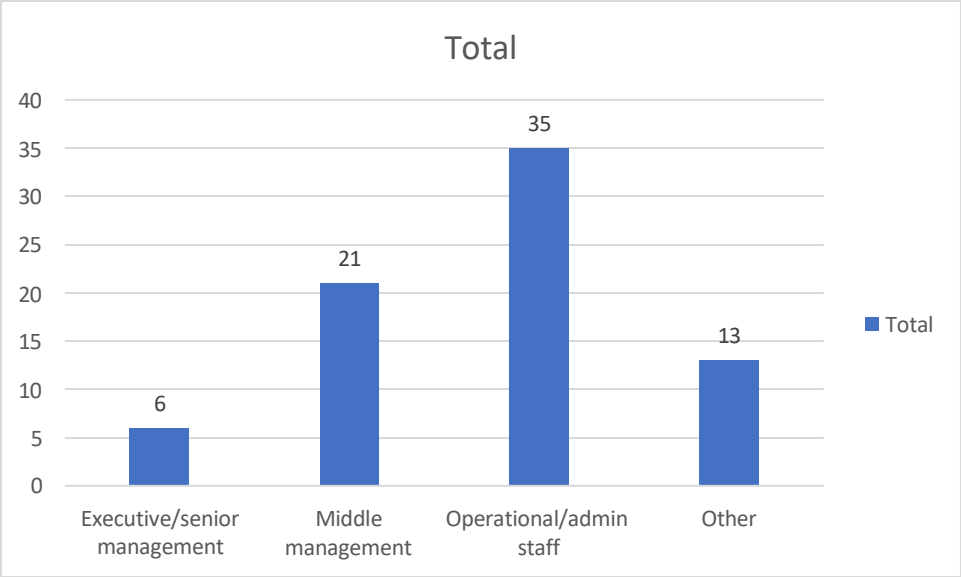


From the above figure of 7, the experience of the respondents was distributed across all the years. The experience of the respondents was distributed across all age ranges. That indicated that the responses which were obtained in the study contained opinions from vast years of experience in various government ministries and private sectors and enabled the quality of the responses to be significantly high and more relevant.

4.3.1 Role and PPPs

Figure 4.1below showed the role which the respondents held within the organization at the time of the study.

Figures 8 Role of the respondents (Source: Primary data, 2024)

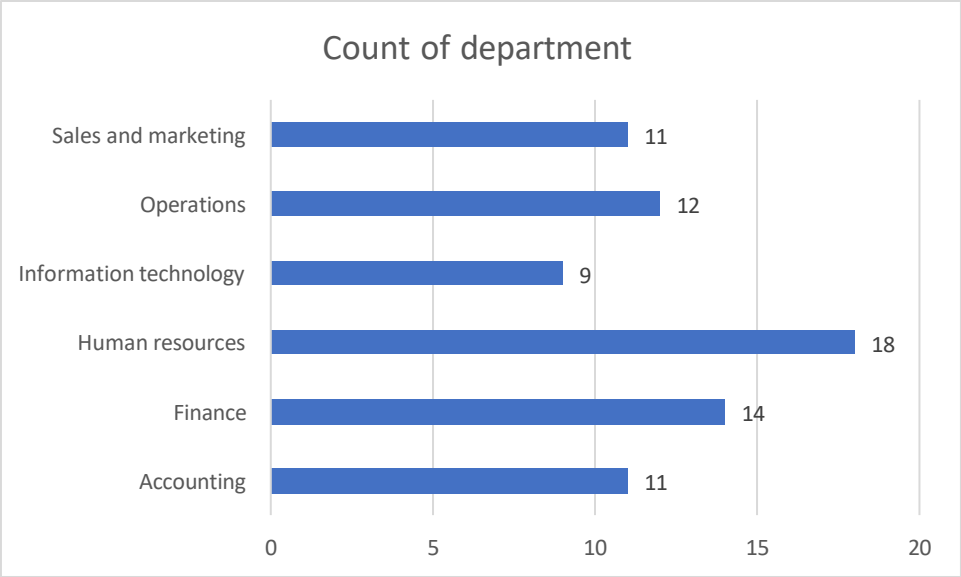


From the figure 8 above, the responses were distributed in a normal distribution which was negatively skewed. This indicated that there was a majority of the personnel in the lower ranks of the organization. The responses reflect the organogram of ZIDA where the majority of the people are low ranking. For the study, these findings were relevant because it showed that the opinions in responses incorporated responses of all the personnel of the organization throughout the ranks. This depicted that there was no bias in responses based on a perspective of one type of respondents, say executives only.

4.3.6 Department

The figure below showed the departments where the respondents were placed during the period of the study.

Figures 9 Department of respondent



From the above figure 9, it can be seen that the major departments which are concerned with developing a PPP governance framework were included in the study. Those from human resources were the main people interacting with the PPPs, while those in information technology were there for maintaining and updating the integrated PPP. Furthermore, all the other departments have instances where they interact with them in developing PPP governance framework and therefore, they have an understanding of the PPP. The responses obtained were obtained from participants who knew about the PPPs. That increased the validity of the responses.

4.4 Existing PPPs

The following table shows existing PPPs.

Tables 7 Table 4.2 Existing PPPs model

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
i) Build-operate-transfer (BOT)	75	3.9467	.83655
ii) Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO)	75	4.0400	.81274
iii) Lease agreement	75	3.8800	.77040
iv) Joint Ventures	75	3.8800	.82134
v) Service Contract	75	3.9733	.80494
vi) Concessions	75	4.0400	.79594
vii) Equity partnerships	75	3.8667	.84865
Valid N (listwise)	75		

Table 4.2 presented descriptive statistics from a study aiming at developing a Public-Private Partnership Governance Framework to Drive Infrastructure Development, a case of ZIDA, specifically focusing on the objective that of existing PPP models of ZIDA. The data revealed a generally agreement of the types of existing models among respondents, with high mean scores across all seven statements, indicating a high level of agreement of the existing models in Zimbabwe.

The consistently low standard deviations suggested a high degree of agreement among respondents on each statement, further reinforcing the positive agreement. The positive agreement was crucial because respondents, who believed the existing models like BOT, DBFO, LA, and others, would likely use the existing models to develop better PPPs governance frameworks. These findings agreed with previous findings from (Chodzadza & Gombachika, 2021) who also found that the existing PPP models were in South Africa.

From the interviews conducted, the responses also showed that the most existing PPPs models were BOT, DBFO, LA, service Contract and equity partnerships. However, other

respondents emphasized that “there was need for trainings and refresher trainings for developing new PPPs.”

4.5 Challenges within the current PPP governance

The following section shows the findings of the study regarding challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.

4.5 The major challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.

The table below showed the major challenges within the operating PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.

Tables 8 Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics of the major challenges within the operating PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
i) Regulatory Uncertainty	75	4.1733	.82811
ii) Lack of clarity in PPP guidelines	75	4.0933	.82484
iii) Financial Constraints	75	3.9877	.74568
iv) Limited capacity & Expertise	75	4.1067	.86326
v) Corruption and governance issues	75	4.0000	.82199
vi) Political and economic conditions	75	4.0133	.83007
vii) Stakeholder Engagement	75	3.8933	.87650
viii) Risk Allocation	75	4.1203	.75891
ix) Monitoring and evaluation	75	4.4330	.86087
Valid N (listwise)	75		

From Table 4.3, the descriptive statistics revealed a generally positive perception of the major challenges within the operating PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe. Respondents strongly agreed on the foremost challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe, which helped to reduce the impact of these factors on PPPs. The mean scores for these statements, all above 4.0, indicated a high level of agreement. However, the standard deviations, ranging from 0.82 to 0.86, suggest that while most respondents agreed, there was some variability in opinions, indicating that some may have reservations about the major challenges within the operating PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.

The perception of stakeholder engagement as factor affecting PPPs in Zimbabwe was slightly less strong, with a mean score of 3.89. That suggested that while most respondents believed stakeholder engagement was useful, some had reservations about their effectiveness on current PPPs. The standard deviation of 0.75 indicated a slightly lower level of variability in opinions compared to the other statements, suggesting a more consistent perception of the stakeholders' engagement impact in this area of PPPs.

Finally, respondents also expressed a strong positive perception on monitoring and evaluation, with a mean score of 4.4. However, like the other statements, the standard deviation of 0.86 reveals a moderate level of variability in opinions. This suggested that while most respondents agreed, there were some like R1, R2, R3, & R4 who may have reservations about the monitoring and evaluation in that area of PPPs. R1 indicated that there was inconsistency in monitoring and evaluation of PPPs, while R2 pointed out that the measurements were not standardised, R3 stated an integrative system was key and R4 propounded that monitoring was not done at all.

Overall, the descriptive statistics provided a positive initial assessment of the main challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe. That agreed with the previous findings from (Clikeman, 2019). However, the moderate standard deviations across all statements highlighted the need for further investigation to understand the specific factors that might be contributing to variations in opinions as was propounded by Wang (2019). That could involve exploring potential correlations between individual respondent characteristics and their perceptions of the major challenges within the current

PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe providing a more nuanced understanding of the data.

4.6 Examining PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

In order to understand the second objective of the study the following results were obtained from the data analysis.

4.6.1 PPP policies adopted by ZIDA descriptive statistics.

The table below shows the descriptive statistics for PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

Tables 9 Table 4.6 PPP policies adopted by ZIDA descriptive statistics.

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
i) Investment promotion Policy	75	4.0667	.82746
ii) Public-private partnership Framework	75	3.9467	.80360
iii) Sector-specific incentives	75	3.8800	.82134
iv) Ease of Doing business Reforms	75	3.9200	.85044
v) Investment protection policies	75	4.0667	.82746
vi) Local Content policy	75	4.0933	.73839
vii) Sustainability and Environmental policies	75	4.1722	.73256
viii) Monitoring and evaluation Framework	75	3.9110	.87232
ix) Capacity Building and support services	75	4.0134	.8321
Valid N (listwise)	75		

From table 4.6, the descriptive statistics painted a generally positive picture of the PPP policies and their perceived impact on drive of infrastructure development. Respondents overwhelmingly agreed that the new Investment promotion policy could drive

infrastructure development, with a mean score of 4.07. That suggested that the policy was designed and implemented in a way that allowed for drive infrastructure development. Furthermore, respondents strongly agreed that the new Public-private partnership Framework of infrastructure development was effective, with a mean score of 3.95. That indicated that the policy provided the necessary tools and functionalities for developing a framework of infrastructure development. The other policy was capacity Building and support services.

The perception of the policy of sector-specific incentives was slightly less strong, with a mean score of 3.88. While the majority of respondents believed the policy provided a drive to infrastructure development, some may have reservations about the timeliness of the policy for decision-making. The ease of doing business Reforms policy was also perceived as a valuable tool for developing a framework of infrastructure development, with a mean score of 3.92. However, the standard deviation of 0.85 suggested that some respondents may have concerns about the ease of doing business Reforms policy effectiveness in supporting infrastructure development activities.

Respondents also strongly agreed that the Investment protection policies were effective, with a mean score of 4.07. That suggested that the policy provided the necessary tools for tracking, managing and protecting investments effectively. Additionally, respondents expressed a strong positive perception of the Local Content policy to support supporting infrastructure development, with a mean score of 4.09. Furthermore, a mean of 4.17 was for Sustainability and Environmental policies and the majority agreed that it assisted in economic and infrastructure development. That suggested that the policy was seen as a valuable tool for achieving organizational goals. Finally, on monitoring and evaluation framework a mean of 3.91 which was close to the majority mean of 4.0 suggested many respondents were in line with policy.

Overall, the descriptive statistics provided a positive assessment of the PPP policies adopted by ZIDA. These findings agreed with the previous studies (Huang, 2019; Lee, 2016) who also found that PPP policies were widely used and adopted in different countries. However, the moderate standard deviations across all statements highlight the need for further investigation to understand the specific factors that might be contributing to

variations in opinions. That could involve exploring potential correlations between individual respondent characteristics and their perceptions of the PPP policies adopted by ZIDA, providing a more nuanced understanding of the data.

4.10 Chapter summary

The chapter showed how the study addressed the objectives through the data collection exercise. The chapter revealed the demographic details of the respondents to understand the reliability and validity of the responses obtained from the respondents. From the data, the study was able to explore the meaning of the data in addressing the main concerns of the study. The chapter showed that the study found there to be an overall positive existing model, challenges of PPP, and PPP policies adopted by ZIDA. The following chapter will show the summary, conclusion and recommendations made for the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The previous chapter presented data which was obtained from the research using questionnaires and interviews. The chapter presented the data in forms of graphs and tables, the data was then analysed, and discussions made linking the findings to past studies. Chapter 5 focused on the conclusions drawn from the research findings and the recommendations made. The recommendations were drawn from the research findings and successful measures that were being applied by other countries.

5.1 Research summaries

The research was on developing a public-private partnership governance framework to drive infrastructure development, a case of the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA)

Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data from departments of the organisation. Data was collected, presented, and analysed and conclusions were drawn. The research was motivated by an increase in fraud and corruption in the manufacturing and the public sector in Zimbabwe. The research reviewed the major literature by (Renda, and Schrefler, 2016); World Bank, 2020; Bloughton, 2019; Harsh Gargani and Ritika, 2019) they defined public-private partnership, existing governance frameworks, factors affecting PPPs and examined PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

Some of the policies that were discussed were to enhance PPPs, these were Investment promotion Policy, public-private partnership frameworks, sector-specific incentives, Investment protection policies, Local Content policy and Sustainability and Environmental policies. The methodology for this research was mixed, the sample size was 80, 80 questionnaires were designed according to Likert scale and were returned 75. 6 interviews out of 8 were conducted. They were applied to all departments. A survey was used, a case study of ZIDA.

Data was collected using questionnaires and interviews. Data was analysed using SPSS, presented using tables and graphs and conclusions drawn. The researcher experienced some challenges during the research. The researcher had to attend assigned duties and at the same time conduct research. Furthermore, some respondents had busy schedules, and they took a long time before they made themselves available. The researcher however managed to overcome these challenges by utilising convenience sampling and administering questionnaires during lunch hours as well as after clocking out at work. Respondents were also allowed two to three days to complete the questionnaires and reminders were being made for them to complete the questionnaires once they get some spare time. The study also faced power challenges because of power cuts by ZESA and to overcome this, the researcher had to work on the study during night hours when electricity was available.

5.2 Summary of major findings

Below is the summary of major findings which addressed the main objectives set out in the study.

5.2.1 Objective 1: The existing PPP models of ZIDA

On the above objective, the existing PPP models of ZIDA, were Build-operate-transfer (BOT), Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO), Lease agreement, Joint Ventures, Service Contract, Concessions, and Equity partnerships. The respondents highlighted that total PPP commitment was also a mechanism that ZIDA was to consider adopting models to drive infrastructure development. The chairman of the board and audit committee of ZIDA met twice a year to review matters arising from different PPPs, reviewing success or failure of project. The board ensured PPPs improvement plan had been created for the entity, appropriate resources were committed to project performance initiatives, financial performance policies and procedures had been formalized. Therefore, it could be deduced that there were many existing PPPs in infrastructural development.

5.2.2 Objective 2: challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe

The second objective discussed on the challenges within the operating PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe. The results of the study showed that there was regulatory

uncertainty, lack of clarity in PPP guidelines, financial Constraints, limited capacity & Expertise, Corruption and governance issues, Stakeholder Engagement, political and economic conditions, Risk Allocation and Monitoring and evaluation. The research found out that responsibility and accountability was also important at ZIDA. The auditors and Board were responsible for management activities and actions. Management was also responsible for their subordinates' actions. The auditors were responsible to protect the rights of stakeholders or investors as established by law and encourage active co-operation between corporations and stakeholders in creating wealth, jobs, and the sustainability of financially sound PPPs which in return would increase business performance. They were also accountable for ensuring the strategic guidance of the company, the effective monitoring of management by the board, and the board's accountability to the company and shareholder.

5.2.3 Objective 3The PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

The PPP policies adopted by ZIDA such as Investment promotion Policy, public-private partnership Framework, transparency reporting, Sector-specific incentives, Ease of Doing business Reforms, investment protection policies, Local Content policy, Sustainability and Environmental policies, Monitoring and evaluation Framework, Capacity Building and support services and Sector-specific incentive policy procedures were supported as major policies to drive infrastructure development. The board and auditors were responsible for ensuring the success of the PPPs. That showed that the policies adopted by ZIDA were available to drive infrastructure development practices and minimizing corruption, fraud and increase detection of corruption and fraud in the organization.

5.3 Conclusion

The research made the following conclusion:

5.3.1 Objective 1 the existing PPP models of ZIDA

On the above objective, the research concluded that the existing PPP models of ZIDA, were Build-operate-transfer (BOT), Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO), Lease agreement, Joint Ventures, Service Contract, Concessions, and Equity partnerships. The respondents highlighted that total PPP commitment was also a mechanism that ZIDA was to consider adopting models to drive infrastructure development.

5.3.2 Objective 2 challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe

On the second objective the research concluded that the challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe were regulatory uncertainty, lack of clarity in PPP guidelines, financial constraints, limited capacity & expertise, corruption and governance issues, stakeholder engagement, political and economic conditions, risk allocation and monitoring and evaluation. The research found out that responsibility and accountability was also important at ZIDA.

5.3.3 Objective 3 The PPP policies adopted by ZIDA.

The third objective was the PPP policies adopted by ZIDA. The study concluded that policies such as investment promotion policy, public-private partnership Framework, transparency reporting, Sector-specific incentives, ease of doing business reforms, investment protection policies, local content policy, sustainability and environmental policies, monitoring and evaluation Framework, capacity building and support services and sector-specific incentive policy procedures were supported as major policies to drive infrastructure development.

5.4 Recommendations

Here are detailed recommendations for various stakeholders to ensure the success of Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) in infrastructure development, particularly in the context of the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA):

5.4.1 Government

The government should begin by establishing a comprehensive legal framework that clearly defines the roles, responsibilities, and processes associated with PPPs, ensuring transparency and consistency across all projects. It is vital to streamline approval processes to reduce bureaucratic delays, enabling quicker project initiation and execution. Financial incentives, such as tax exemptions, grants, and subsidies, should be provided to attract private sector investment in critical infrastructure. Additionally, the government must invest in training and capacity-building programs for officials involved in PPP management, enhancing their skills in negotiation, project oversight, and stakeholder engagement. Establishing a centralized PPP unit within the government will facilitate

better coordination, oversight, and communication among all stakeholders.

5.4.2 Communities

Communities must be actively engaged in the planning and decision-making processes of PPP projects. This can be achieved through regular stakeholder consultations to gather input and address concerns. Promoting transparency is essential; communities should be informed about project goals, expected outcomes, and progress updates to build trust. Encouraging local participation can be accomplished by providing opportunities for local businesses and labour to engage in PPP projects, which will stimulate economic growth and foster a sense of ownership among community members. Establishing robust feedback mechanisms will allow residents to voice their opinions and grievances, ensuring their needs are heard and addressed. Furthermore, community awareness campaigns should be organized to educate residents about the benefits of PPPs, increasing their involvement and understanding of the initiatives.

5.4.3 Private Partners

Private partners must develop clear and comprehensive partnership agreements that outline roles, responsibilities, and expectations to prevent conflicts and misunderstandings. They should commit to investing in local capacity by providing training and development opportunities for local workers, which will contribute to community development and project sustainability. Fostering innovation is crucial; private partners should be encouraged to adopt new technologies and practices that can enhance project efficiency and effectiveness. Maintaining open lines of communication with government and community stakeholders is essential for addressing concerns and sharing updates. Additionally, private partners should incorporate sustainable practices into their operations to minimize environmental impacts and promote social responsibility.

5.4.2 NGOs

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) can play a pivotal role in advocating for community needs and ensuring that the voices of local residents are represented in project discussions. They should monitor and evaluate PPP projects independently to ensure accountability and adherence to social and environmental standards. Providing capacity-

building initiatives for communities will empower them to engage more effectively with PPP initiatives. NGOs should also facilitate public awareness campaigns to educate communities about the benefits of PPPs, fostering greater involvement and support. Moreover, promoting inclusivity is vital; NGOs should ensure that marginalized and vulnerable groups are included in decision-making processes related to infrastructure projects.

5.4.2 Project Managers

Project managers should implement best practices in project management to guarantee that projects are delivered on time, within budget, and to the required quality standards. Establishing comprehensive risk management plans is essential for identifying potential risks early and developing effective strategies to mitigate them. Continuous learning is important; project managers should stay updated on global PPP trends and best practices to enhance project delivery and stakeholder engagement. Fostering collaboration within project teams, which includes representatives from all stakeholder groups, will encourage diverse perspectives and innovative solutions. Additionally, ensuring quality control through established protocols will help maintain high standards throughout the project lifecycle.

5.4.2 Customers

Customers need to be informed about the services provided through PPPs, and their benefits, as well as how to access them. Encouraging customers to provide feedback on infrastructure services will help ensure that their needs are considered in future developments. Advocating for quality and affordability in services is crucial to ensure that infrastructure projects meet the expectations of all community members. Customers should also be encouraged to participate in community meetings and forums, where they can express their needs and expectations regarding infrastructure projects. Finally, fostering a culture of accountability will empower customers to hold both private partners and the government responsible for service delivery and project outcomes.

By implementing these comprehensive recommendations, each stakeholder group can significantly contribute to the success of PPPs in Zimbabwe. This collaborative approach

will foster effective infrastructure development, ultimately benefiting the economy and improving the quality of life for citizens. Through active engagement, transparent communication, and a commitment to sustainability, stakeholders can create a robust governance framework that drives successful infrastructure projects and meets the diverse needs of the community.

5.5 Contribution to Education 5.0

The research on developing a Public-Private Partnership (PPP) governance framework to drive infrastructure development, particularly through the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA), can significantly contribute to Education 5.0 in several ways. Education 5.0 emphasizes innovation, sustainability, and the integration of technology to meet societal needs. Here are detailed contributions of this research to the goals of Education 5.0:

5.5.1. Skills Development and Capacity Building

The research underscores the importance of training and capacity-building programs for stakeholders involved in PPPs, such as government officials, project managers, and community members. This aligns with Education 5.0's focus on equipping individuals with relevant skills to meet the demands of the economy, fostering a workforce capable of engaging in innovative infrastructure projects.

5.5.2. Promoting Interdisciplinary Learning

By integrating concepts from economics, governance, environmental science, and social studies, the research encourages an interdisciplinary approach to education. This can inspire curriculum development that combines technical knowledge with soft skills, preparing students for complex problem-solving in real-world scenarios related to infrastructure development.

5.5.3. Encouraging Innovation and Entrepreneurship

The emphasis on leveraging technology and innovative practices within PPPs can foster a culture of entrepreneurship among students. By showcasing successful PPP models and their impact on infrastructure, educational institutions can encourage students to develop

their own projects and solutions, aligning with the entrepreneurial spirit of Education 5.0.

5.5.4. Community Engagepment and Social Responsibility

The research highlights the role of communities in PPPs, advocating for their involvement in decision-making processes. This focus on community engagement can be incorporated into educational programs, promoting civic responsibility and encouraging students to understand and address local challenges through collaborative efforts.

5.5.5. Sustainability and Environmental Awareness

A significant aspect of the research is the integration of sustainable practices in PPPs. This contributes to Education 5.0 by emphasizing the importance of environmental stewardship and social responsibility in education. Programs can be developed that teach students about sustainable infrastructure, renewable energy, and the impact of development on ecosystems.

5.5.6. Utilizing Technology for Learning

The research's focus on innovative technologies within PPPs can lead to the incorporation of digital tools and platforms in education. This can enhance learning experiences through simulations, virtual collaborations, and access to real-time data on infrastructure projects, thereby preparing students for a tech-driven workforce.

5.5.7. Policy Advocacy and Governance Education

The development of a governance framework for PPPs provides a case study for students studying public policy, governance, and management. This research can be used to teach students about effective governance structures, accountability, and the complexities of managing public resources in partnership with the private sector.

5.5.8. Global Competitiveness

By aligning infrastructure development with global best practices through PPPs, the research contributes to enhancing Zimbabwe's competitiveness in the global market. Educational programs can be designed to include international case studies, preparing students to engage in global discussions on infrastructure and development.

5.5.9. Empowering Local Communities through Education

The focus on local participation in PPPs emphasizes the need for educational programs that empower communities. This aligns with Education 5.0's goal of addressing local needs and challenges through tailored educational initiatives, ensuring that education is relevant and impactful.

5.5.10. Research and Development Initiatives

The research itself can serve as a foundation for further studies in infrastructure development, governance, and PPPs. Educational institutions can promote research initiatives that explore innovative solutions to infrastructure challenges, encouraging academic contributions that drive societal change.

In summary, the research on developing a PPP governance framework for ZIDA contributes to Education 5.0 by promoting skills development, interdisciplinary learning, innovation, community engagement, sustainability, and the use of technology. It aligns educational initiatives with the pressing needs of society, preparing students to become active participants in shaping the future of infrastructure development in Zimbabwe and beyond.

5.6 Recommendations for further studies

The research in developing a Public-Private Partnership governance framework to drive Infrastructure Development: a case of the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA)**.** The study recommends that there was need for further research on factors affecting the drive for Infrastructure Development in the public sector in an unstable environment such as Zimbabwe.

5.7. Chapter Summary

This chapter synthesizes the findings from the research on developing a governance framework for Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) aimed at enhancing infrastructure development through the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA). Research summary, conclusion, recommendations, contribution to Education 5.0 and recommendations for further studies were made. The study analysed the current state of PPPs in Zimbabwe, identifying key challenges, opportunities, and best practices. It

emphasized the importance of stakeholder engagement, clear regulatory frameworks, risk management, and sustainable practices. The research highlighted the necessity for a structured approach to governance that aligns the interests of government, private partners, communities, and other stakeholders.

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Appendix 1 Research Questionnaire

Developing a Public-Private Partnership Governance Framework to Drive Infrastructure Development: A Case of the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA)

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Agnes Java. I am currently studying towards a master's in leadership and corporate governance with Bindura University of Science and Education. I am researching on the Developing of Public Private Partnerships governance framework to drive infrastructure development with the objective of finding solution factors of a thriving PPP governance framework that can drive infrastructure development.

May you kindly assist me in the undertaking of this dissertation by completing the attached questionnaire; by ticking the appropriate bracket and filling the space provided where necessary. All the information you provide in the questionnaire will be used strictly for academic purposes and will be treated with the highest level of confidentiality and your participation is on voluntary basis. Your responses will be treated in high confidence and names of participants should not be written or known, as the researcher is interested in overall/aggregated summary/trend of the responses.

For further information, I can be contacted at cell No…*0773415782*….

Objectives of the study

- To analyse the existing PPP models of ZIDA
- To identify challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.
- To examine PPP policies adopted by ZIDA

Please Tick inside the boxes where it is appropriate

Instructions: Please Tick the most appropriate answers

SECTION A- DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1a.) Age group

18-20 ☐ 21-30 ☐

31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐

51-60 ☐ 61-64 ☐

65> ☐

b.) Gender

Male ☐ Female ☐

c.) Qualifications

Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐

Degree ☐ Master's Degree ☐

d.) Do you understand the internal control activities at work?

YES ☐ NO ☐

e) When you joined this organization, did you receive any induction on internal control system?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Years of experience …….

2.a RESEARCH QUESTIONS

SECTION B

The existing PPP models of ZIDA

Claim	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
(i)Build-operate-transfer (BOT)					
(ii) Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO)					
(iii) Lease agreement					
(iv) Joint Ventures					
(v) Service Contract					
(vi) Concessions					
(vii) Equity partnerships					

SECTION C- The major challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe.

Claim		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
x)	Regulatory Uncertainty					
xi)	Lack of clarity in PPP guidelines					
xii)	Financial Constraints					
xiii)	Limited capacity & Expertise					
xiv)	Corruption and governance issues					
xv)	Political and economic conditions					
xvi)	Stakeholder Engagement					
xvii)	Risk Allocation					
xviii)	Monitoring and evaluation					

Any other challenges ……...……

……

SECTION D. Examining PPP policies adopted by ZIDA

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
x) Investment promotion Policy					
xi) Public-private partnership Framework					
xii) Sector-specific incentives					
xiii) Ease of Doing business Reforms					
xiv) Investment protection policies					
xv) Local Content policy					
xvi) Sustainability and Environmental policies					
xvii) Monitoring and evaluation Framework					
xviii) Capacity Building and support services					
xix) Sector-specific incentive policy					

Any other information you may think is important for this study……

Thank you for your time!!!

Appendix 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Topic: Developing a Public-Private Partnership Governance Framework to Drive Infrastructure Development: A Case of the Zimbabwe Investment and Development Agency (ZIDA)

Interviewee personal details

1. What Do you understand about Public-Private Partnership?

……..

2. What are the existing PPPs models of ZIDA?

……

…….

…….

…….

3. What are the major challenges within the current PPP governance structure in Zimbabwe?

…….

…….

4. What are the PPP policies adopted by ZIDA to enhance success of PPPs?

…….

……

*"**Thank you very much for your time and input, it is sincerely appreciated.**"*

Appendix3: Research Letter

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

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12 September 2024

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

REF: REQUEST TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH: JAVA AGNES REG NO. B231629B: MASTER OF LEADERSHIP AND CORPORATE GOVERNANCE (MLC), PART 2.1 STUDENT

This letter serves to confirm that **JAVA AGNES Reg No. [B231629B]** is a Master of Leadership and Corporate Governance student in the Graduate School of Business at Bindura University of Science Education.

The student is in the final stage of study which requires her to carry out a research. Her dissertation is titled ***"Developing a Public-Private Partnership governance framework to drive infrastructure development: A case of the Zimbabwe Investment Development Agency (ZIDA)."***

We would be grateful if you could give her any assistance she may require.

For more details, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Yours faithfully,

Mwenje

COORDINATOR
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
FACULTY OF COMMERCE
PRIVATE BAG 1020, BINDURA
OFFICIAL

Dr J. Mwenje
Director, Graduate School of Business