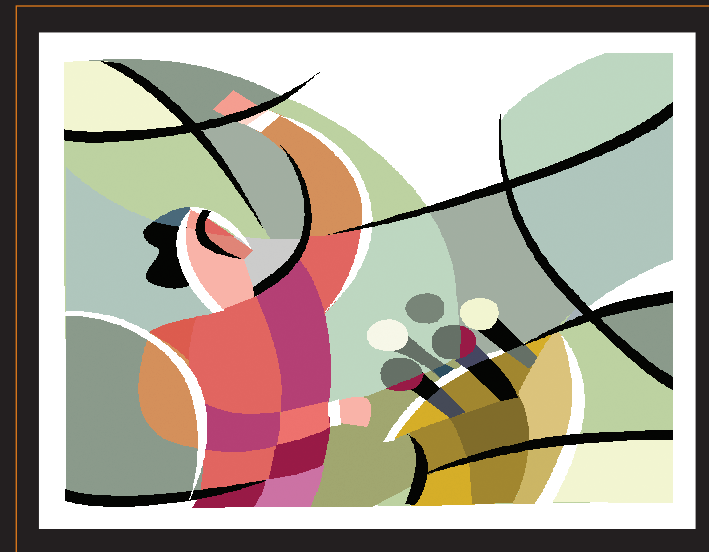


STRENGTHENING POLITICAL PARTY REPRESENTATIVES IN NAMIBIA

TRAINING MANUAL



BY VICTOR SHALE

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TRAINING MANUAL



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FOREWORD

Political parties are commonly taken for granted as the essential building blocks of a democratic political system, without which democracy cannot function. Elections and political parties are essential institutions in democracies. Parties competing in elections give voters a choice of representatives and policies. But parties that intend to participate in elections must feel they can be competitive, which is often compromised due to sub-optimal campaigning, fundraising and the building of media profiles. Also, in order for election results to be accepted, parties must have confidence in the fairness of the electoral process. Yet, parties often suffer from relatively low levels of technical knowledge to monitor electoral process properly.

In view of the national and presidential elections scheduled for November 2009 in Namibia, the Namibia Institute for Democracy (NID) has embarked on a political party strengthening programme which, in a non-partisan manner, assists party officials in preparing their campaigns and managing their media profiles, as well as providing information relating to electoral law, codes of conduct, electoral procedures and poll watching. This training manual has especially been compiled and designed for this purpose.

The NID anticipates that this manual will contribute to the conduct of successful electoral processes in Namibia, political campaigning marked by tolerance and the strengthening of Namibia's multi-party democracy.

Theunis Keulder
Regional Director
Namibia Institute for Democracy

INTRODUCTION

This manual is meant to facilitate a tailor-made training workshop for political parties in Namibia in their efforts to better understand and appreciate the provisions of the electoral law. It is also meant to assist in unpacking and understanding a ‘code of conduct’ and the process of poll watching so as to promote a democratic political system in which political parties have the skills, knowledge and experience to play a vital role in the enhancement of democracy and in which the integrity of the electoral process is maintained. To that end it is hoped that this manual and training programme will assist in pre-empting, preventing, managing and resolving intra-party and inter-party conflict. Again, it will aim to provide assistance in the management of the media profiles of the parties and individuals within them.

To this end, the main components of this training manual are as follows:

- Political parties and their functions;
- Conflict and conflict management;
- Leadership;
- External regulations of parties in Namibia;
- Poll watching.

This manual should be treated as a guide for the training workshop for which it is intended, and is not meant to deal exhaustively with all issues related to political parties in Namibia. Nor does this manual serve as a stand-alone guide to content on the issues identified.

It is expected that at the end of the workshop, participants will have enhanced their understanding of the electoral law, code of conduct, procedures regarding poll watching and management of media profiles.

Box 1: Ice Breaking

At the beginning of the workshop, participants need to introduce themselves. Naturally, participants have a tendency to want to sit next to the people they know. These could be their friends or if in a multi-party group, members of their party. The facilitator has to mix the participants so that friends do not sit together deliberately. Secondly, participants are divided into pairs and invited to take turns introducing each other. They should first talk to one another about themselves, their families and their hobbies. The idea of the exercise is to make the participants realise the commonalities they share as people. After the allocated time the participants then take turns to introduce their partners to the larger group.

Box 2: Ground Rules

In order to use the workshop optimally and avoid unnecessary distractions, there should, as a standard practice, be ground rules which are proposed by the participants and agreed to by other participants. These rules may range from cellphone usage time-keeping and the use of language, through to the manner in which participants accord each other respect, and engage with each other, during the proceedings of the workshop.

Box 3: Participants' Expectations

Participants are required to state their expectations of the workshop upfront. These will be written on a flip chart and placed on the wall. The expectations list is important as it helps to assess whether or not the workshop will have achieved its objectives. It also assists in guiding the content, process and flow of the workshop. Periodically, the facilitator should refer back to the list of expectations and verify with participants that the proceedings go some way to meeting the expectations of participants. If not, effort has to be made to address outstanding issues before the workshop ends. It is to be noted that not all expectations will be met to the fullest extent, since participants arrive with different expectations and have different ways of relating to the content and discussions at the workshop. There is a complex interaction between participants' expectations, the preparations made by the facilitators on the basis of the request put to them and the participants' attitudes during workshop proceedings.

MODULE 1: POLITICAL PARTIES

1.1 OBJECTIVE

The objective of this module is to introduce participants to what political parties are all about and what their main roles and functions are, so as to provide a common platform for subsequent deliberation in the workshop.

1.2 DEFINING POLITICAL PARTIES

Box 4: Definition of a Political Party

Principally, political parties may be defined by their common aim. That is, as ‘an organised group of people with at least roughly similar political goals, aims and opinions, that seeks to influence public policy by getting its candidates elected to public office’. They seek political power, either singly or in co-operation with other political parties. It is the goal of attaining political representation and political power and expressing that through state institutions that distinguishes political parties from other social and political actors in the political and social system.

Thus a political party, unlike an interest group, aims to capture state power and control and impact on the public policy-making process within the confines of the constitutional and legal framework of the given country. Four characteristics that distinguish parties from other groups (including interest groups and social movements) include the following:

- Parties aim to exercise government power by winning political office (small parties may nevertheless use elections more to gain a platform than to win power. This is referred to as gaining representation);
- Parties are organised bodies, with an organisational structure and a formalised membership. This distinguishes them from broader and more diffuse social movements;
- Parties typically adopt a broad issue focus, addressing each of the major areas of government policy (small parties, however, may have a single-issue focus, thus resembling interest groups) through the adoption of a commonly understood policy approach; and

- To varying degrees, parties are united by shared political preferences, shared policy approaches and a general ideological identity (EISA Political Parties Handbook 2008).

It is worth noting that political parties can be either democratic or authoritarian. Thus, 'whether they are the great tools of democracy or sources of tyranny and repression, political parties are the vital link between the state and civil society, between the institutions of government and the groups and interests that operate within society'

(EISA Political Parties Handbook 2008).

1.3 FUNCTIONS OF POLITICAL PARTIES

Although the defining features of political parties are principally the capturing of government power and control of public policy-making, their impact on the political system is broader and more complex. Thus, various functions of political parties can be identified. The six main functions of parties in any democratic system are as follows:

- Aggregate and articulate needs and problems as identified by members and supporters;
- Socialise and educate voters and citizens in the functioning of political parties and the electoral system and the generating of general political values;
- Balance opposing demands and convert them into general policies;
- Activate and mobilise citizens into participating in political decisions and transforming their opinions into viable policy options;
- Channel public opinion from citizens to government; and
- Recruit and train candidates for public office (Ace Electoral Knowledge Network, <http://aceproject.org>);
- Perform a general representative function in representative institutions, articulating the views of the party and the constituencies that they seek to serve and represent;
- Mobilise voters and supporters to build party constituencies and organisations by engaging in close constituency relations and constituency servicing.

MODULE 2: POLITICAL LEADERSHIP

2.1 OBJECTIVE

The objective of the module is to assist participants to understand the meaning of leadership, to distinguish between the various types of leadership and to learn about the requisite leadership skills and the communication skills that leaders should possess.

2.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP

Box 5: Defining Leadership

Leadership is defined as ‘the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members’ (See EISA Political Parties Handbook). Organisationally, leadership directly impacts on the effectiveness of the party in terms of inculcating intra-party democracy, public outreach, gender parity, election campaigns and the constructive management of intra-party and inter-party conflicts.

2.3 TYPES OF LEADERSHIP

Adapted from Coleman @ http://www.12manage.com/methods_goleman_leadership_styles.html

2.2.1 VISIONARY LEADERSHIP

Characteristics	How style creates resonance	When style is appropriate
Inspires. Believes in own vision. Empathetic. Explains why and how people's efforts contribute to the dream	Moves people towards shared dream	When change requires a new vision/direction = radical change

2.3.2 COACHING LEADERSHIP

Characteristics	How style creates resonance	When style is appropriate
Promotes harmony. Boosts morale and solves conflicts	Connects people's dreams with organisational dreams	To help competent, motivated members to improve performance

2.3.3. AFFILIATIVE LEADERSHIP

Characteristics	How style creates resonance	When style is appropriate
Listens, encourages and delegates	Creates harmony and connects people to each other	To heal rifts in a team and motivate during stressful times

2.3.4. DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Characteristics	How style creates resonance	When style is appropriate
Good listener, team worker and collaborator	Appreciates people's inputs and gets commitment through participation	To build support and consensus

2.3.5 PACE-SETTING LEADERSHIP

Characteristics	How style creates resonance	When style is appropriate
Strong edge to achieve. Low on empathy and collaboration, micro-managing	Realises challenges and exciting goals	To get high-quality results from motivated people/employees

2.3.6 COMMANDING LEADERSHIP

Characteristics	How style creates resonance	When style is appropriate
'Do it because I say so.' Threatening, tight control. Contaminates everyone's mood and drives away talent	Decreases fear by giving clear direction in an emergency	In a grave crisis. To start urgent organisational turnaround

2.4 LEADERSHIP SKILLS

The skills that a true leader should possess include the ability to:

- Debate, clarify, and enunciate values and beliefs;
- Fuel, inspire, and guard the shared vision;
- Communicate the strategic plan at all levels;
- Recognise the problems inherent in the planning process;
- Ask the big picture questions and 'what if';
- Encourage dreaming and thinking the unthinkable;
- Engage in goal setting;
- View problems as opportunities;
- Set priorities;
- Be a critical and creative thinker;
- Set the example (walk the talk);
- Celebrate accomplishments.

Personal qualities include passion, humour and empathy, strength of character, general maturity, patience, wisdom, common sense, trustworthiness, reliability, creativity, sensitivity.

2.5 MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

At the political level leadership is important. But parties are organisations and like all organisations, require that they be managed. Management is thus an important factor in promoting party integrity, keeping and maintaining records of membership and decisions. It is equally important for managing finances, organising and planning events and activities.

Box 6: The Difference between Management and Leadership	
MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
Planning Detailed planning and allocating resources	Establishing Direction Developing a vision and strategies
Organising Structure, staffing, policies and procedures	Aligning People Communicating the vision, creating teams and coalitions
Controlling and Problem Solving Monitoring and evaluating results, identifying deviations from the plan, organising to solve problems	Motivating and Inspiring Energising people to overcome barriers
Supervision and Oversight Maintaining internal supervision and oversight for organisational coherence and reporting to leadership	Oversight and Accountability Maintaining oversight over the organisation as a whole, and being accountable to democratic institutions and society as a whole
Produces Predictability and Order	Produces Transformation and Change
Social and Political Impact Credibility and confidence	Social and Political Impact Legitimacy and trust

Activity 1: Leadership

Purpose: To allow participants to deliberate on their understanding of leadership and how leaders should conduct themselves.

Time: 1 hour for group work: 20 minutes for plenary

Process:

- 1) Participants are divided into groups.
- 2) Participants are requested to discuss leadership in terms of:
 - a) Leadership types;
 - b) Leadership skills;
 - c) Challenges they face; and
 - d) Suggest how these could be addressed.

2.6 LEADERSHIP SELECTION

Increasingly intra-party democracy is being recognised as a necessary aspect of a key pillar of good governance within political parties which, in itself, is a healthy environment conducive for democratic development and stability in a country. In new and/or restored democracies, especially in post-conflict societies, political parties tend to operate in an environment in which parties are not sufficiently institutionalised and lack the transparent and accountable regulatory mechanisms that deepen intra-party democracy. Parties in post-conflict societies marked by fledgling democracies also tend to experience non-democratic leadership styles. For any democratisation process to succeed, political parties themselves must develop the culture of intra-party democracy. Two ways of entrenching the culture of intra-party democracy are (a) democratic selection of the leadership on a regular basis and (b) the holding of credible and genuine primary elections within parties. In this section, we will dwell more on leadership selection and we will come back to primary elections in the next section.

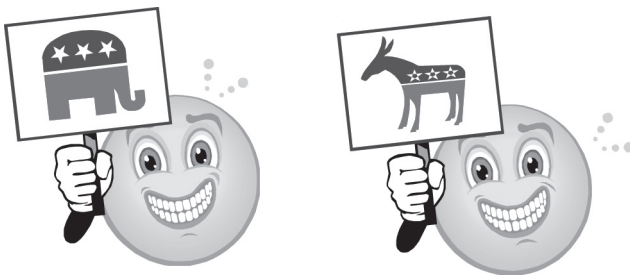
The most important rules for the regular and democratic selection/election of leaders include the following:

- The party rank and file must be given an opportunity to influence and determine who leads the party. Party leadership should be accountable directly to party structures all the way from villages up to the national level;
- The election of the party leadership should have a clear time frame to avoid a situation where leaders are not replaced, thereby (either by design or by default) promoting personality cults;

- Succession planning should be institutionalised, so that parties avoid unnecessary leadership squabbles and faction-fighting;
- Leaders must be accountable to the party rank and file, prioritising party interests above personal interests;
- Parties should deliberately embrace leadership quotas that promote affirmative action aimed at empowering marginalised social groups such as women, youth and people with disabilities.

In order to enhance the credibility, transparency and legitimacy of the process of electing leaders within parties, the process ought to be administered by an independent technical agency with expertise in electoral administration. Within the context of South Africa, the outsourcing of the conduct and the management of elections for office bearers by political parties is an established tradition. Most political parties in South Africa make use of an independent electoral body such as EISA to conduct their elections at national congresses.

2.7 PRIMARY ELECTIONS



Primary elections (in some systems called nominations processes) are internal party processes aimed at choosing a political party's candidate(s) for the next general election. These are, therefore, essentially internal elections. Exactly how this is done depends on the parties' constitutions, internal party rules and informal practices. Most importantly, the electoral system is a major factor to be considered, since it is the method adopted by a country for choosing its leadership. Such a method stipulates procedures and rules on the conduct of elections, as well as how the chosen leaders occupy their seats in Parliament and other representative institutions (Shale 2009:16). Primary elections are an example of a selection process with a high level of participation, where ordinary members of the party (or in some cases all voters in the electoral district) control the process.

Box 7: Arguments for Primary Elections (Ace Knowledge Network)

‘Those who argue for primary elections tend to say that:

- Primary elections help the political party select the candidate who is most likely to win a general election by consulting a considerable number of those who are likely to vote for the party’s candidates;
- Primary elections start the democratic process even before the general elections;
- Primary elections give the candidate(s) a clear mandate and legitimacy, since the decision has been taken by party members in general and not only by the top leadership;
- Primary elections give a party, its candidate(s), and perhaps even its platform, significant public visibility;
- Primary elections empower the ordinary members and engage them in party strategy and key decisions; and
- Primary elections help members overrule unpopular but entrenched party elites.’

Box 8: Arguments Against Primary Elections (Ace Knowledge Network)

‘Those who argue against primary elections claim that:

- Primary elections do not produce the candidate(s) most likely to win the general election, since only a small fraction of party members (usually hard-liners) tend to vote in the primary elections. Strategically, it might be better to choose candidate(s) who can also appeal to other parties’ members or supporters rather than only to the party’s own core members;
- Primary elections are very expensive and (unless organised and paid for by the public purse, which they are in some cases) take funds away from the general election campaign;
- Primary elections encourage internal party strife instead of fostering an environment of negotiation, consultation and compromise at a time when efforts need to be focused on defeating external challengers, not internal ones;
- Primary elections take the decision away from the most experienced, the office holders and party leadership. Instead, ordinary party members with little or no experience of running for or holding public office get to decide; and
- Primary elections weaken the party structures by putting the focus on individual candidates rather than on the party manifesto or policies.’

2.8 NOMINATION OF CANDIDATES

The nomination of candidates (to gain ballot access) is the formal procedure by which political parties and/or individuals put candidates forward for election and the acceptance by the election management body of that nomination. In list systems, parties put forward a list of candidates selected within the political party. In constituency systems, candidates are nominated individually (not as part of party lists). Depending on the country, they can be nominated either by a political party or by an individual.

Legal frameworks can place requirements on the composition of party lists. In some cases, there are requirements aimed at increasing the representivity of the list by, for example, asking or requiring the party to have a certain number of women (or members of other traditionally under-represented groups) on its list. In some cases,

not only the number but the placement on the list is specified (ACE Encyclopaedia 2008).

Since Namibia operates a proportional representation (PR) system and according to Section 59 (1) of the Electoral Act 1992, parties taking part in the elections have to submit in writing to the Electoral Commission their lists of at least 24 and not more than 72 candidates nominated to represent the party in the National Assembly. The names should be accompanied by the residential addresses of the nominated candidates. Section 59 (2) (a) states that:

The names on the list of candidates shall appear in such order as the registered party may determine with a view to the provisions of paragraph (4) of the said Schedule 4 to the Namibian Constitution.

The significance of section 59 (2) (a) above is that it is in tandem with the electoral system. For the National Assembly and local authority elections Namibia uses a closed list system (NID 2008:34) in which access to Parliament follows a chronological order determined by the party before submitting the list to the electoral commission. In Namibia, as elsewhere in the Southern African Development Community region, there are no set procedures or processes on how parties determine the lists. As a result candidate selection is often marred with tensions, particularly under competitive elections.

Activity 2

Purpose: To allow participants to discuss primary elections in terms of procedures and their usefulness or otherwise, examining the strengths and weaknesses of each party's internal (primary) elections processes. Participants are asked to briefly describe the nominations process in their parties (to get a sense of how well they know and understand the process). They have to identify strengths and weaknesses (organisational and political) in their own internal processes and how they can be improved. Participants should say why they think it is a good process or why they suggest the amendments to the process that they do.

Time: 1 hour for group work
20 minutes for plenary

Process:

Participants are divided into groups and are requested to role-play the positions of a) party leadership, b) rank and file members, c) constituency leaders and d) would-be candidates. The participants have to demonstrate their understanding of the people in each role in terms of the criteria for candidate election and procedures to be followed. They should also suggest how disagreements on the candidature have to be solved.

MODULE 3: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

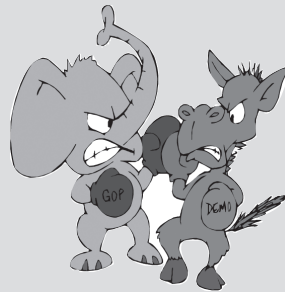
3.1 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this module are to assist participants to understand intra- and inter-party conflict in terms of its causes and effects in parties; to help participants analyse conflict situations; and to equip them with the necessary skills to respond to the conflict by assisting parties to establish internal conflict management structures.

3.2 DEFINING CONFLICT

Conflict is defined by Rubin et al 1994 as a 'perceived divergence of interests, or beliefs that the parties' current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously'. It can manifest itself in many forms, some of which may be violent and inflict pain and suffering on both parties in conflict and to other people who may not be directly involved, due to its spillover effect.

Conflict is a natural and necessary art of life



Whether at home with our families or at work with colleagues, conflict affects our relationships. The paradox with conflict is that it is both the cause and the result of relationships and can tear or bind them together. It is therefore important that we study and understand conflict.

3.3 SOURCES OF INTRA-PARTY AND INTER-PARTY CONFLICT

Box 9: Sources of Intra- and Inter-Party Conflict

Data/information: Involves lack of information and misinformation, as well as differing views on what data are relevant, the interpretation of that data and how one performs the assessment.

Relationships: Results from strong emotions, stereotypes, miscommunication and repetitive negative behaviour.

Values: Arises over ideological differences and differing standards on evaluation of ideas or behaviours.

Structural: Caused by unequal or unfair distribution of power and resources.

Interest: Involves actual or perceived competition over interests such as resources.

3.3.1 INTRA-PARTY CONFLICT

- Favouritism – promoting one’s kith and kin;
- Unequal sharing of resources (leader’s constituency gets a lion’s share);
- Lack of regular meetings;
- Centralised authority – power concentrated at the top.

3.3.2 INTER-PARTY CONFLICT

Inter-party conflicts are often around elections. Elections are a competition and therefore cause conflict. Parties compete for space for their campaign and for their success at the poll. A lack of clear rules or systems (including conflict management systems) can escalate disputes into destructive conflict. These rules have to do with:

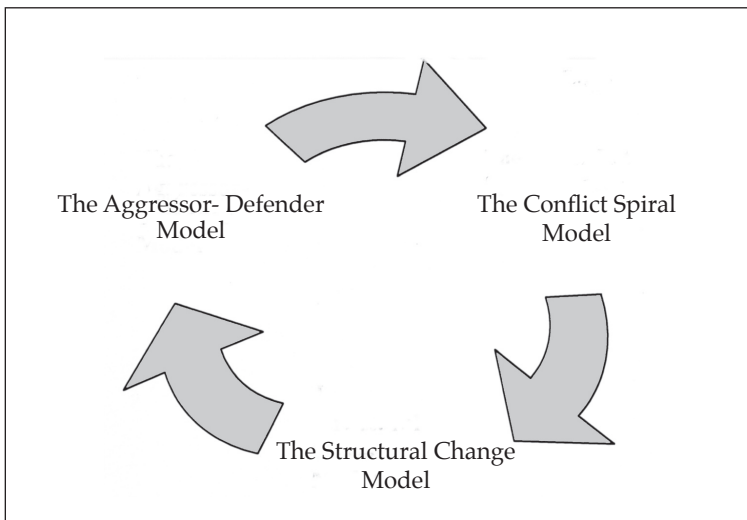
- Access to media;
- Ruling party’s use of state resources for campaigns;
- Parties’ use of ethnicity or other social factors as divisive force;
- Character assassination;
- Lack of human and financial resources;
- Constitutional changes (ruling party’s changing of national constitution without proper consultations and procedures to suit its goals, thus threatening democracy).

3.4 FACTORS ESCALATING CONFLICT

When efforts to contain conflict fail, the conflict tends to escalate into violence. This is also the case in election-related conflicts. The escalation process follows four main stages:

- Discussion stage (mutual respect and co-operation);
- Polarisation stage (distance and competition);
- Segregation stage (disrespect and defensive competition); and
- Destruction stage (total antagonism and violence).

Conflict escalation can also be explained by the following models:



Source of the model: Pruitt and Rubin 1986

THE AGGRESSOR-DEFENDER MODEL

In this model, one party is the aggressor while the other is the defender. The aggressor uses mild to heavier tactics against the defender until the aggressor gets what he wants or gives up. The aggressor is the party who realises an opportunity to change things to meet his interests and therefore initiates the offensive. The defender, on the other hand, is the party who resists this change. It should be indicated from the onset that being the defender does not imply that one is automatically the weaker of the two parties. The defender could be the stronger of the two parties and can be weaker as well under certain circumstances. In other words, the two parties in a conflict can shift positions from being the defender to being the aggressor, depending on the situation at hand. The defender's interest is to maintain the status quo.



Source: Conflict Trends 1 2008

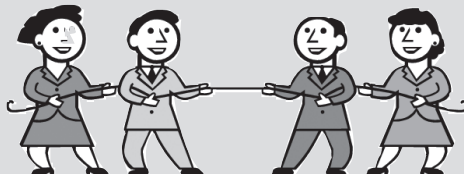
THE CONFLICT SPIRAL MODEL

This is the model that demonstrates escalation as a result of response and retaliation by the defender against the aggressor. This retaliation invites further action by the aggressor so that the whole circle is completed – and it may repeat itself. As it repeats itself, the conflict does not continue at the same level but escalates in a continuing spiral.

THE STRUCTURAL CHANGE MODEL

The continuity of the spirals produces changes in the political and socio-economic spheres of the parties involved in conflict. This makes it difficult for conflict to be managed because both sides become even more determined to continue with the conflict, particularly when they have incurred loss of lives and property. The structural change model explains the effects of the protracted conflict emanating from the conflict spirals and escalations, as explained in the previous models above. Under this model, people's and groups' perceptions change, and hostile and competitive goals develop within these communities. The aim becomes to punish, discredit, defeat and destroy the other party. The negative perceptions discourage conflict settlement and promote escalation. Once escalation happens, the process repeats itself, as has been said earlier, and the structural changes also persist. This then has a direct effect on the human relationships.

3.5 CONSTRUCTIVE MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT



We have all learned responses to confrontation, threats, anger and unfair treatment. Some of our learned responses are constructive, but others are not and escalate the conflict. How we respond to confrontation depends on our previous experience in dealing with conflict as well as our confidence in dealing with conflict. What can start to change destructive responses to conflict is learning to assess the total impact of negative responses.

Conflict is inevitable and the challenge therefore is how we address it. It can be managed negatively through avoidance at one extreme and the use of threat or force at another. Alternatively, conflict can be managed positively through mediation and negotiation.

3.5.1 MEDIATION



Signing of the Kenyan mediation and power-sharing agreement

Mediation refers to a process through which a third party provides procedural assistance to help individuals or groups in conflict to resolve their differences. It is a voluntary process and its successes are linked to the vesting of decision-making authority in the parties involved in the conflict. The mediator structures the process in a way that creates a safe environment for the parties to discuss the conflict and find solutions which will meet their interests.

Box 10: Mediation Process

- Preparation of the stage;
- Convening of parties to the conflict;
- Opening of the mediation which includes welcome, introduction of parties and seating;
- Explanation of the mediator's role (facilitation of the process and neutrality);
- Description of the process and its confidentiality;
- Agreeing on the ground rules, which provide behavioural guidelines for the participants;
- Checking of understanding of the process;
- Ensuring the belligerents' comfort (tea breaks, bathrooms, etc);
- Signing of agreement on the mediations (at times not required);
- Parties are then, in turn, given an opportunity to present their understanding of the conflict (no interruptions allowed). Only the mediator may reframe to ensure that the parties' concerns are properly understood;
- Parties are allowed to talk to each other under the mediator's facilitation. If necessary, the mediator may request a break so as to consult with individual parties (care should be taken to balance the times and leave no room for suspicion);
- Mediator ensures that all issues are properly heard and suggests agenda to address them; options for meeting concerns of parties are brainstormed;
- Evaluate options (reality check), get to agreement (sometimes need to have it written);
- Clarify and review agreement (next steps, future mediation if necessary);
- Closing of the mediation (thanks, guarantee of confidentiality).

Box 11: Qualities of a Good Mediator

- Respected and trusted by the parties (not anxious for recognition);
- Impartial: able to focus on process, put aside own opinions on outcome;
- Strong 'people skills', active listener, patient, empathic, non-violent communication but able to confront and be directive on process, comfortable with parties' high emotions;
- Imaginative in helping parties to solve problems;
- Expert in mediation process, not necessarily on the issues in dispute (unless complex technical or legal issues are in dispute, or court approval is needed).

3.5.2 NEGOTIATION

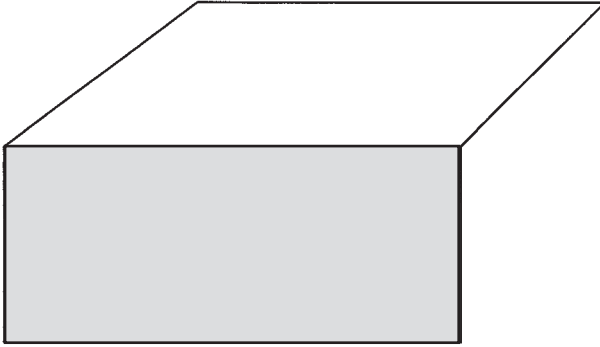
Negotiation is a process between parties that is directed at reaching some form of agreement that will hold and that is based on common interests for the purpose of resolving conflict. This process is achieved through establishing common ground and creating alternatives. It is also an exchange of information through communication. The conflict that precedes negotiation is a clash of interests that may be mild and not necessarily violent. Negotiation offers the belligerent parties the opportunity to communicate openly and express their feelings. In the negotiation process each negotiator decides what to offer, what to reject and how much concession to make.

Thinking Outside the Box

Activities of political parties cannot be successful unless communication in such organisations is maintained to assure information flow in both horizontal and vertical directions within an organisational structure. The same applies to the success of any attempt to manage intra- or inter-party conflict. The parties need to have certain skills to ensure smooth and effective communication. Similarly, they need to have the skills and ability to think outside the box. Thus, the secret behind the solution of a problem is not to allow our thinking to be contained and limited by imaginary boundaries. Thinking outside the boundaries and limitations is what creative thinking is about.

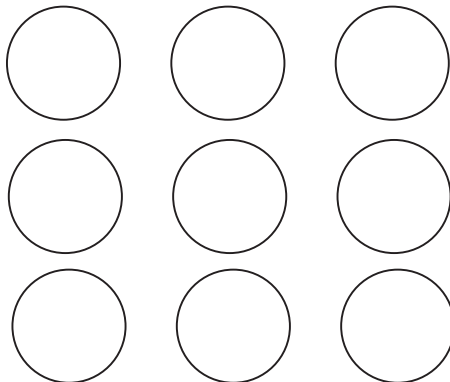
Thinking Outside the Box Exercise 1:

1. Divide the shape into six exactly equal parts.



Thinking outside the Box Exercise 2:

1. Connect all the nine dots using no more than four straight lines.
2. The dots cannot be repositioned.
3. The connecting line must be drawn in one continuous strike; leave the pencil on the paper until all lines have been drawn.



3.5.3 NEGOTIATION PROCESS AS A CONFLICT RESOLUTION TOOL

Box 12: Prerequisites for Negotiation

In order for negotiation to take place there first of all has to be conflict. This can be latent or manifest conflict on any scale. The level of negotiation varies from one conflict situation to another. When a husband and his wife talk about where they are going to spend their next holiday, there is conflict already because there is a clash of interests.

The negotiations between the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) and the Israeli Government (although not always maintained) are held in an attempt to put an end to the seemingly intractable nature of the political conflict between the two of them. Each party in negotiations has direct or indirect needs that they want to satisfy. There is a direct causal link between conflict and negotiation because it is after the former has happened that the latter takes place, probably initiated by one of the parties or because both parties believe that the time is ripe for talks.

Frustration of a party's needs invites counter-frustration of needs by the receiving party. In order to thwart this vicious circle, negotiation should always be used to counter-balance the effects that the conflict brings and maximise the meeting of their interests. There are alternative approaches that are designed to establish contact between representatives of parties in conflict. It is important to consider a suitable approach for a particular negotiation in the pre-negotiation stage.

Box 13: The Negotiators and their Role

In many conflicts involving groups, a negotiator is someone who has been mandated by the group to represent it in negotiation. In other cases people become negotiators because no one else could represent them. This is mostly the case with small-scale conflicts. For instance, a person who wants to buy furniture at a reduced price from a furniture shop normally has to negotiate for himself, not through a third party. Negotiators in any negotiation are human beings who have their own weaknesses and strengths.

Individuals who represent their groups in a negotiation carry the ideals, values and beliefs of their group in dealing with others. They often have to suppress their personal beliefs and conscience and air those of their groups. In this way they are not able to negotiate according to the objective merits of the conflict.

It is an enormous task for each individual negotiator to make these decisions and the process therefore consumes a lot of time. Negotiators avoid moving quickly because it can be extremely dangerous to them as it involves yielding to the other side. Many negotiators therefore drag their feet and use delaying tactics such as the use of threats to pull out of negotiations in order to increase the risk that no agreement is reached.

There could be parties that are not necessarily primary to the conflict but have influence in the process of negotiation. Additional parties may be openly supporting one of the parties in the conflict. They may well support them secretly. In the event of coalitions being formed openly, the membership of a coalition as a whole poses a threat to individual members when they want to take a different position from that of their coalition.

Box 14: Limitations of Negotiation Process

It is important to look at the limitations of negotiation as a tool for resolving conflict. The process is not entirely flawless.

- It often falls short of benefiting both parties as sometimes one loses and the other wins. It can even be worse when both parties lose. As a result of the inherent flaws in this process some negotiations are started and then broken off without clear achievements.
- It is common for negotiations to end without an agreement. Any one of the belligerent parties may decide to unilaterally quit if they feel that they are not happy with the offers made to them.
- Some negotiations have not been able to produce agreements even if there have been negotiations that have gone into history as success stories. The negotiations between the South African Government and the African National Congress prior to 1994 and the negotiations in Sierra Leone after the civil war are among the successful ones.
- The tendency of some parties to pull out of negotiations may not only be the exercise of power. It may also depend on the personalities of the individual negotiators. Some negotiators may be wrong or inappropriate for certain kinds of negotiations. Other negotiators go into negotiation to fulfil their individual needs that are not part of the conflict per se.
- They fail to pursue the needs of their constituencies. When their needs are frustrated, such negotiators are quick to grab the opportunity to derail the negotiation process. Their lack of loyalty and their self-centeredness compels them to create sensational stories and deceive people.

In reality, negotiations usually suffer a setback because of the fact that on many occasions people believe in these kinds of negotiators. Their mischievous behaviour makes them different from those negotiators who carry the values, ideals and beliefs of their groups along.

MODULE 4: EXTERNAL REGULATIONS OF PARTIES IN NAMIBIA

4.1 OBJECTIVE

The objective of this module is to assist participants to understand the external regulatory framework in terms of the electoral law, code of conduct, procedures for poll watching and media.

4.2 LEGAL FRAMEWORK

The Namibian Constitution establishes the Republic of Namibia as an independent, democratic and unitary state based on the principles of democracy, the rule of law and justice for all. The Constitution provides for the principle of separation of powers, subject to checks and balances. The Namibian Constitution is regarded as one of the most liberal and progressive constitutions worldwide. The Constitution stipulates that the President is elected for five years by direct, universal and equal suffrage, according to procedures established in an Electoral Act. In terms of Article 28, a candidate for the Presidency must obtain more than 50% of the votes cast to be elected President.

The Constitution limits the presidential mandate to two five-year terms. However, an amendment to the Constitution was passed by Parliament in 1998 to allow incumbent President Sam Nujoma to be re-elected for a third term of office (NID 2008:17).

Namibia has a bicameral legislative system consisting of the National Assembly and the National Council. The National Assembly consists of 72 members, elected by the registered voters, by general direct and secret ballot according to the proportional representation system. The seats are distributed by dividing the total votes by the number of elected seats. The total number of votes obtained by each party is then divided by the quota to give them preliminary shares of the seats. Any seats left over are allocated according to the highest remainder method. In addition, the President may, on grounds of their special expertise, appoint up to six members without voting rights to the National Assembly in an advisory capacity. Unless dissolved by the President by proclamation, the National Assembly convenes for at least two sessions during each year, for a maximum of five years. A new election is called thereafter. Members of the National Assembly are eligible for reelection.

As a result the legal and regulatory framework for elections in Namibia is found in a number of pieces of legislation, including the following:

- The Constitution (as Amended);

- Electoral Act (Act 24 of 1992)
- Electoral Amendment Act (Act 23 of 1994)
- Electoral Amendment Act (Act 30 of 1998)
- Electoral Amendment Act (Act 11 of 1999)
- Electoral Regulations (Gazetted 19 September 1992)
- Electoral Regulations (Gazetted 05 November 1992)
- The 2004 Code of Conduct for Political Parties

4.3 CODE OF CONDUCT

In some countries, the Electoral Act covers campaigns and this may or may not include an electoral code of conduct.

The specific objectives of a code of conduct include the following:

- Contributing to a peaceful election;
- Contributing to a level playing field during elections;
- Developing public confidence in the electoral process;
- Promoting a culture of political tolerance;
- Ensuring that the electoral process is credible and its outcome legitimate and acceptable to all contestants;
- Promoting constructive management of election-related disputes.

The code should specify who is bound by it. At the minimum, political parties and candidates are supposed to be bound by the code. But the code may also bind other players (e.g. the Tanzania Code) including the media, civil society organisations (CSOs), the election management body, etc. If it is in the law, it should specify the expected ethical code to be adhered to by all those affected by its implementation. Equally important, the code specifies sanctions to be imposed on those who violate its provisions.

The electoral campaign in Namibia is regulated by a code of conduct agreed upon by political parties and associations, as well as independent candidates. The Electoral Commission of Namibia (ECN) is vested with the responsibility of implementing the code, which provides for the following:

- No weapon of any kind, including any traditional weapon, may be brought to any political meetings, rallies or other demonstrations;
- Parties shall avoid holding rallies, meetings, marches or demonstrations physically close to one another during the same time of the day;
- Parties shall refrain from utilising a public address system, either fixed

or mobile, between 21h00 and 07h00 and which could constitute a public nuisance;

- Speakers at political rallies may not use language which incites violence in any form against any other person or group of persons;
- Parties will not issue pamphlets, newsletters or posters which contain materials which incite people to violence;
- Party members and supporters will not seek to obstruct people from attending the political rallies of other parties;
- Party members and supporters will not disfigure or destroy political or campaign materials of other parties.

The code of conduct also makes recommendations as to how all the electoral stakeholders should contribute to ensuring compliance with the code. Among other things, the code urges:

- Political parties to establish lines of communication to one another in order to constantly deal with problems that may arise;
- The Director of Elections to regularly meet party representatives to discuss all matters of concern related to the election campaign and the election itself;
- Party leaders to issue directions to their members and supporters to observe the code of conduct, and take all other necessary steps to ensure compliance;
- The ECN and party leaders to undertake to publicise this code of conduct throughout Namibia by all means at their disposal;
- Parties to take care in their advertising and propaganda efforts not to disfigure the environment (EISA Election Observer Report 2004 and ECN).

Activity 3

Purpose: To allow participants to discuss the code of conduct. Participants are asked to briefly choose two or three clauses of the code of conduct and discuss what they mean and how they can be interpreted differently

Time: 1 hour for group work
20 minutes for plenary

Process:

Participants are divided into groups according to their chosen clause of the code of conduct and discuss before sharing their understanding of the clause they have chosen.

WE PLEDGE OUR COMMITMENT TO FREE AND FAIR ELECTIONS 2004

CODE OF CONDUCT

1. Intimidation, in any form, is impermissible.
2. No weapon of any kind, including any traditional weapon, is permitted at any political rally, meeting, march or other demonstration.
3. Parties shall avoid holding rallies, meetings, marches or demonstrations physically close to one another during the same time of the day.
4. Parties shall refrain from utilizing public address systems, either fixed or mobile between 21:00 and 07:00 hours and which could constitute a public nuisance.
5. Speakers at political rallies may not use language which is abusive, insulting, defamatory or directed at any group of persons. Parties will not issue pamphlets, newsletters or posters which contain materials which incite people to violence.
6. Party members and supporters will not disrupt other parties' rallies, meetings, marches or demonstrations.
7. Party members and supporters will not seek to obstruct other persons from attending the political rallies of other parties.
8. Party members and supporters will not disgrace or destroy political or campaign materials of other parties.
9. Party leaders will use their good offices to seek to ensure reasonable freedom of access by all political parties to potential voters, including those at farms and on state-owned properties, outside working hours.
10. Parties will establish lines of communication to one another at headquarters, regional and local levels, and will appoint liaison personnel who will be constantly on call to deal with any problems that may arise.
11. The Director of Elections will meet party representatives on the day of the election. Parties will not make any statements related to the election campaign and the election itself. Emergency meetings, will be convened as and when necessary.
12. Designated members will attend their parties' rallies to ensure compliance with this Code.
13. All allegations of intimidation and other unlawful conduct in the election campaign will be brought to the attention of the Police and to the attention of the Directorate of Elections at the places where they are alleged to have occurred.
14. Party leaders will issue directives to their members and supporters to observe this Code of Conduct, and take all other necessary steps to ensure compliance.
15. The Directorate of Elections and party leaders undertake to publish this Code of Conduct throughout Namibia by all means at their disposal.
16. Parties will in their advertising and propaganda efforts take care not to disgrace the environment.



4.4 MEDIA

Over the years the media in Namibia has continued to operate in an environment free of government or ruling party interference, hence enhancing the role of the media at times of election. The principle that allows proportional airtime to political parties ahead of elections is laid down in the Communications Commission Act. The Act instructs that 60% of free public service campaign coverage on radio and television be divided proportionally according to party representation in the National Assembly. The remaining 40% should be shared equally by all political parties contesting the elections.

In 2004 the EISA Election Observer Mission noted that this translated into 150 minutes being given to Swapo, 31 minutes to the Congress of Democrats (CoD), 30 minutes to the Democratic Turnhalle Alliance (DTA), 19 to the United Democratic Front, and each of the smaller parties receiving 13 minutes of airtime on the state-owned Namibia Broadcasting Corporation (NBC) for the whole campaign. This allocation was obviously detrimental to political parties with weak representation in the National Assembly and those not represented. The CoD and the DTA unambiguously accused the public broadcaster of political bias ahead of the 2004 National Assembly and presidential elections, alleging that the NBC was awarding the ruling Swapo a disproportionate amount of television airtime. Swanu, one of the parties without representation in the National Assembly, threatened to lodge a legal complaint against the formula for the allocation of airtime to political parties, with a view to forcing the NBC to provide equal coverage.

Box 15: Media Strategy

Devise a media relations strategy which should be a component part of a wider communications strategy. A communications plan ought to be focused on priorities and effectively targeted to the right people at the right time.

- Develop communication tools such as press releases and press packs to support publicity programmes and support political education efforts.
- Organise a press conference to relate with the media and constituencies beyond the party support base. Focus on timing, impact, invitations, targets, organisational scope .
- Media releases – Determine their purpose and content

How to write a media release

Timing of the release related to its purpose.

Cultivating relationships with the media

Know what each media house's approach and ideological inclination is.

Know how to approach them on that basis.

Know who works on what – that is, who covers hard news stories, who writes features, and who is responsible for opinion and analysis. Knowing this allows for cultivating different types of relationships and allows for identifying who should be invited to what. This is related to purpose. For instance, if there is a press conference on a simple issue of giving information, then the political news journalist should be invited. If it is the unveiling of a policy issue, then both a news journalist and a feature and opinion writer should be invited. Of course different media houses have different operational styles and divisions of responsibility, and knowing this goes a long way in understanding who the appropriate target is.

Fact sheets on the party for publicity purposes

What is a fact sheet?

What should it contain?

What purpose does it serve?

Political parties and the use of new media

Assess the objective condition of the society and know who is consuming which media. This will determine which medium to use, and the extent to which new media (website, blogs, sms campaigns, e-mail viral campaigns) are used. In some societies this may be cheap but the reach is limited. Thus the best mode of approach is to use both old/traditional forms of campaigning along with new media

The image of the candidate

This is shaped by the media strategy. Voters get to know what the candidate is about through the media (TV, radio and newspapers) as it allows candidates to access many households in a short time. Shea and Burton (2006:154) tell us that research has revealed that:

People are more likely to believe what they see on television than what they read in the papers ... Political professionals working in an intensely

competitive environment must therefore pay attention to nuance. They must, in short, know how each medium works and how these media can be made to work together. Coordination is crucial. The overall image of the candidate is created largely by the general strategy of campaign media. If the media do not mesh, then voters will not know where the candidate stands. Will the electorate see this as his own inability to understand public affairs? More likely, the conclusion will be that the candidate does not really stand for anything. To build a coherent image, a campaign must commit itself to consistency, efficiency, proper timing, effective packaging and a well-played expectations game.

It is clear therefore that a campaign through the media must have consistent content so as not to confuse voters. It should also be efficient in terms of resource utilisation across electronic and print media because electronic and print media are paid for and this can be costly (e.g TV spots made by a producer, photographer and editor). Campaign messages should therefore be time conscious because programmes are time bound. The less time spent on one issue, the more issues will be covered. This allows voters to know the candidate better.

4.5 PUBLIC OUTREACH

The agenda of political parties is to compete for control over state power and government so that they can direct a country's development process in the manner they see fit, based on their ideological orientation and policy framework as contained in their manifestos. It is therefore imperative that political parties have a way of making their plans about development and how the country has to be governed known to the electorate. Thus public outreach refers to the strategies that the parties use to link up with the people, both members and non-members alike. Without a comprehensive public outreach strategy, a political party will not be well positioned to attract voters during the elections. Parties also need to maintain the links even beyond the elections by ensuring regular interaction with the people. As political parties, we then need to ask:

- Does the party interact with the members?
- Does the party have offices at the provincial, district and local levels?
- Does the party hold public hearings in which citizens are invited to attend and speak?
- What is the level of access to information on the party?
- Does the party have a system which allows members and the general public to know more about the party, and who is responsible for disseminating information about the party?

4.5.1 VOTER AND CIVIC EDUCATION

In ensuring that elections add value to a democracy, electoral and democracy education is required. Such education entails:

- Voter information;
- Voter education; and
- Civic education.

4.5.2 VOTER INFORMATION

Voter information programmes focus mainly upon awareness of the voters about the voting process, with a view to raising the consciousness of the electorate. Voter information focuses primarily upon the following aspects, among others:

- How to vote;
- Where to vote;
- When to vote;
- Requirements for voting;
- Who can vote; and
- Who may not vote.

4.5.3 VOTER EDUCATION

Voter education is a step further from simple awareness for citizens. Its aim is not just to raise awareness, but to answer questions around how to vote and why it is important for the electorate to vote. It is therefore broader in its scope and coverage, compared to voter information. It covers all the three phases or stages of the electoral process, namely;

- Pre-election processes;
- Election day processes; and
- Post-election processes.

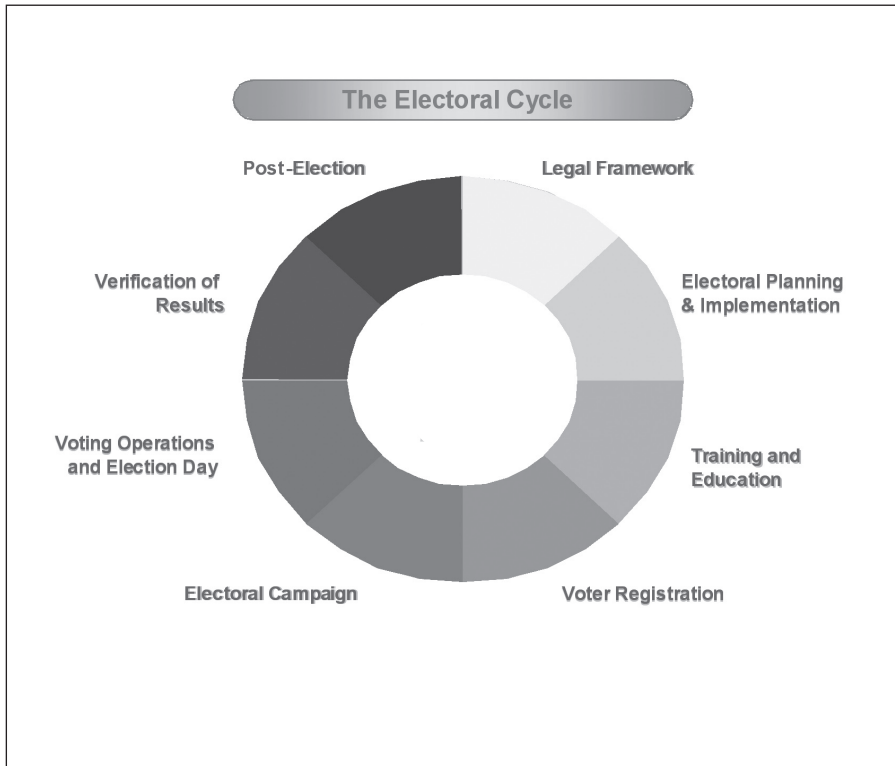
4.5.4 CIVIC EDUCATION

Civic/democracy education also transcends voter awareness and voter/electoral education. It is political education about elections, democracy and governance. The elections component of civic education will normally cover the same ground as in voter information and electoral education programmes. The democracy component will normally cover issues around how institutions (both government and non-state actors) operate in a democratic setting including government institutions, election management bodies, political parties, CSOs, democracy watchdog bodies such as a human rights commission, etc. The governance component will normally cover issues around state-society relations (relations between the government and the governed) in the running of national affairs including, among others, citizen participation,

gender relations, the rule of law, economic management, corporate governance, social governance and corruption. Thus, while the election component focuses on electoral processes, democracy and governance components focus on processes that take place in between elections (EISA Political Parties Handbook 2008).

4.6 ELECTION CAMPAIGNS

Election campaigning often leads to conflict between parties. The challenge is to manage such election-related conflicts constructively. Election campaigns are governed by different acts or regulations but the electoral process should follow the electoral cycle.



Source: ACE Electoral Knowledge Network

4.6.1 TYPES OF CAMPAIGNS

a) Grassroots Campaigns

This type uses recruited voters to become campaign volunteers, thus creating an activist, grassroots base of support. It enables direct voter contact, which brings a voter to a more cognitive level than in other campaign communications. The advantage here is that it allows a two-way communication where a voter is more engaged and can share his or her own views, thus becoming more invested in the campaign.

A rally is one of the traditional ways of campaigning that parties employ. It is a useful tool for parties to demonstrate electoral strength and it needs to be well planned to ensure good attendance. The time and place of the event is therefore crucial. Whatever event is being planned needs to take into account available financial, human and other resources.

The following points need to be taken into account when planning a rally:

- Who is the target audience and how does the rally reach the target audience? This will impact on the programme; for example, if specifically targeted at youth, the music, celebrities, etc should be those with whom the youth identify.
- What is the message that the candidate wants to convey?
- Where are my potential voters and how do I reach them? This will impact on the venue, time and date of the rally.
- What are the challenges and how do I meet them? (e.g funding, etc)
- What are the security implications? Crowd control with sufficient marshals is crucial to avoid rioting, injury or violence.

b) Technology-based Campaigns

This type of campaign uses phones, Internet, newspapers, radio and TV. It is a costly type of campaign compared to the grassroots but it saves time for political parties as it reaches many households at the same time.

c) Consultant-based Campaigns

Modern electoral campaigns are run by private consultants. Their role is to assist parties with:

- Strategic planning;
- Preparing initiatives for the ballot;
- Message development;

- Radio and television advertising;
- Targeted mail;
- Graphic and web design;
- Grassroots organising;
- Day-to-day campaign operations;
- Community outreach;
- Polling/surveys/focus groups;
- Opposition research;
- Budget planning.

4.6.2. CAMPAIGN PLANS

Campaigns need proper planning in order to succeed, entailing details and deadlines. Planning is a useful tool which brings order to the campaign. Generally, a plan defines the what, when, who and how of the campaign. It divides tasks, integrates work, and provides a road map of the electoral process. As a result, it minimises uncertainty, saves time and money. It is important to note that a campaign plan may change during the electoral process.

4.6.3 STRATEGIC POSITIONING

Campaigners should know their strongholds (constituencies, districts, etc) and as such need to have a strategy which is mindful of whom it targets, and how it will approach the target. The main goals should be 'reinforcement', 'persuasion' and 'conversion'. Reinforcement seeks to retain the base while persuasion seeks to win swing voters. Conversion seeks to win opposition voters.

4.6.4 CAMPAIGN THEMES

Parties should develop campaign themes. A theme should consist of what the voter wants, what the candidate/party offers and what the opponents bring. A good theme has the power to influence the voters' choice. It acts as a link between voters' concerns and the candidate's/party's approach. It should therefore be inclusive of diverse issues to appeal to more voters.

MODULE 5: POLL WATCHING

5.1 OBJECTIVE

This module is meant to assist participants to understand the role of different stakeholders, including party agents, in the polling station and to understand the distinction between poll watching and monitoring, as well as the code of conduct for party agents in poll watching.

5.2 ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF PARTY AGENTS

Box 16: The Function and Responsibilities of Party Agents

Political parties and candidates standing for election have the right to have an agent to observe the process on their behalf at polling stations. What legislation is in place in Namibia's electoral law to guarantee this? What are the functions and responsibilities spelt out in this law?

Section 52 of the Electoral Act provides for the nomination of party agents. It provides for a number of people as may be prescribed by the law as party agents. Their names, addresses and the names of polling stations to which they are appointed should be submitted to the relevant presiding officers within seven days after the nomination day for that election.

Rights:

Section 52

(3) An election agent for a polling station shall be entitled to attend at that polling station as the representative and observer of the political party or such candidate by whom he or she was appointed.

Generally, party agents have to:

- be present where the polling station is operating;
- record observations;
- consult the voter rosters at any time;
- have access to the records of the election operations;
- launch complaints;
- exercise the monitoring conscientiously and with objectivity;
- avoid unjustifiable interference in the activity at polling stations which disturbs the normal conduct of the vote.

5.3 RECRUITING, TRAINING AND DEPLOYMENT

Box 17: Criteria for Recruiting Party Agents

- Strong allegiance and loyal support to the party;
- Basic education and the ability to speak and write the local language of the area where the party agent would be deployed;
- Knowledge of the area of deployment and of the local cultural and political context;
- Residence near the stations where he or she will be deployed so that the party agent is known by the voters;
- The agent should be credible and must have a sound mind;
- Training and knowledge of the context and of the electoral history is necessary.

Training Methodology

- Timing of the training;
- Duration;
- Content (legal and institutional frameworks, electoral system);
- Costs.

Critical Factors for Deploying Party Agents

- Awareness about the importance of training party agents;
- Mobilising enough funds for training party agents;
- Involvement of party agents at all stages of the election, beginning with the registration process;
- Accreditation of party agents according to the laid-down procedures;
- Parties/ candidates should endeavour to have at least one party agent per polling station.

5.4 REPORTING PROCEDURES

Box 18: Sample of Party Agents Form	
Date:	
Time:	
Name of political party:	
Type of election:	
Name of party agent:	
Polling station:	
Constituency:	
Parties contesting the election:	
Did the polling station open on time?	
Were the boxes sealed correctly?	
How many voters' identification were not checked?	
How many voters did not have their fingers checked for ink to verify they had not voted before?	
How many voters were turned away from the polling station, and why?	
How many voters who needed assistance were not assisted according to the legislation?	
Were other party agents present? If so indicate number and name of parties.	
How many voters' index fingers were not inked before leaving the polling station?	
Were there observers present? If so from which organisations? National or international observers?	
Were security forces present?	
Were the ballot boxes sealed at the conclusion of the vote?	
How many incidents of voters' intimidation did you observe? Describe briefly the situation/s.	
How many were in the queue at closure of the polling station? Were they allowed to vote?	
What time did the voting end?	
Any other comments.	

Box 19: Sample Counting Form for Party Agents

Box 19: Sample Counting Form for Party Agents	
Date:	
Time:	
Name of political party:	
Type of election:	
Name of party agent:	
Polling station:	
Constituency:	
Parties contesting the election:	
Time count commenced:	
Time count concluded:	
Party agents present: Indicate the parties.	
Observers present: Indicate the organisations; national or international observers?	
Were the seals checked before opening?	
Were the unused ballots counted and stored?	
Was the voters' register cross-checked and tallied against the number of votes cast (ballots)?	
Were the votes counted in an open and transparent manner and did they clearly indicate who the vote was for?	
Were there any objections? If yes, describe the objection and who lodged the objection and the response.	
Were the objections recorded in writing?	
If there were objections, how many were lodged?	
Were the tally forms signed by party delegates?	
Were the results announced?	
Any other comments.	

5.5 CASE STUDIES

Using the following case study scenarios, in pairs of two choose one to discuss and agree on in an appropriate reporting procedure for effective poll watching.

– Case Study 1 –

You are the party agent for the polling station in Kongola Constituency. At the polling station there are party agents from your party and two other parties. There are also two national and two international observers present.

The polling station opened 15 minutes late as the lock on the polling station hall door could not be opened. All the material was there except for the envelopes to put the voting materials in at the close of the voting.

The polling station was laid out correctly and you inspected the booths. There was only one door for voters to use to go in and out so it caused slight congestion. The voters' roster was correct. You were at the polling station two hours before it opened but the polling station Presiding Officer arrived ten minutes late. She said she had a problem starting her car.

The only times there was more than one voter in the booth was when a blind voter and four voters who could not read the ballot paper required assistance. The blind voter was accompanied by her neighbour who is also a voter at that station. The four voters who could not read the ballot paper had it explained by the Presiding Officer and they marked the ballot with their inked fingerprint.

At closing time there were ten voters in the queue and the Presiding Officer closed the queue behind the tenth voter. All these voters voted.

Outside the voting station supporters of party XYZ were harassing some of the voters and the Presiding Officer asked them to desist or they would have to leave. After some grumbling they stopped.

You were at the station all the time.

Questions:

1. What would you report to your political party?
2. Did the Presiding Officer conduct the process adequately?
3. What was your role in the process?

– Case Study 2 –

You are the party agent at Linyanti Constituency. There are other party delegates from one other party there and two national observers who stay for some time.

The station opened on time and closed 45 minutes late as there was a violent storm during the day and the roof leaked badly. The Presiding Officer had to stop the voting for a while as all the voters crowded into one section of the polling station because there was no cover outside. The Presiding Officer made sure the voters did not stand anywhere near the ballot papers or registers or voting material but cordoned off an area where they could stand.

The Presiding Officer had to wait for the correct voters' roll as she did not receive it before the poll opened. It arrived 45 minutes later and she had to ask voters to wait.

The voters presented their voter registration cards. One voter came with a bank savings books but the polling station chairperson would not accept it and the voter had to leave.

The Presiding Officer sealed off the ballot papers and asked the party delegates to put their seal as well. One of the party agents had a seal of an owl which was not the seal of any party. The Presiding Officer refused to accept it.

Questions:

1. What would you report to your political party?
2. Did the Presiding Officer conduct the process adequately?
3. What was your role in the process?

– Case Study 3 –

You are observing the vote in Tsamaea at polling station XYZ. Voters are voting in a presidential election. The polling station is very small and it has been difficult for the Presiding Officer to arrange the station with enough space to allow for the layout according to the legislation. You think that the voters are too close to each other and that this has caused congestion in the polling station. You also think the booths are too close together. There are party agents from two other parties and two national and three international observers. It makes the polling station very cramped.

Questions:

1. What would report to your political party?
2. How did you respond to the situation?
3. Did the Presiding Officer conduct the process adequately?
4. What was your role in the process?

– Case Study 4 –

You are observing voting and a blind voter comes in accompanied by another person to assist him. You know that this other person is not a registered voter and therefore should not be assisting the voter. You ask the polling station officer to show you the register as you want to check the name. The polling station officer refuses. You insist as you know your responsibility. The polling station chairperson is about to give the voter a ballot paper.

Another voter arrives without her card. She says she has misplaced it. The Presiding Officer asks her to fill in a declaration form which states her identity, voter registration card number and place of registration. When she has finished voting she goes towards the ballot box to deposit her ballot. The Presiding Officer rushes to her and gives her an envelope to put the ballot in which is sealed and placed inside another envelope with the declaration stapled on the outside and put into a different ballot box.

Questions:

1. What would you do in the circumstances?
2. What would you say to the polling station chairperson?
3. What is the voter supposed to do?
4. Did the polling station chairperson follow the correct procedure for the voter who lost her card?

– Case Study 5 –

You are observing the count in Bela-Bela polling station in Rehoboth Rural. The polling station closed on time, at 19h30. The Presiding Officer informed the party agents and observers and staff that she was going to proceed with the count. She checked all the ballot boxes to see that they were sealed properly.

The Presiding Officer opened the ballot box for the parliamentary election and started to count, sorting the votes into piles. You objected as you indicated that this was not the correct procedure. You alerted her to the procedure, which she then followed.

Questions:

1. What would you do in the circumstances?
2. What is the procedure that should be followed, give all the steps?
3. What would you report to your party?

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