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# **Awareness of institutions, and associated factors: An inquiry of Chapter 9 and 10 institutions in South Africa**

David Tinashe Nyagweta

## **Abstract**

This article examines the associated factors that contribute to differences in awareness of chapter 9 and 10 institutions, which are specialised democratic institutions in South Africa, among different sociodemographic groups. Using data from the South Africa – Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS) of 2018-2019, the article analyses the levels and factors associated with awareness of all eight institutions. Findings show that awareness of these institutions is generally low, except for the Independent Electoral Commission (IEC), and the Public Protector (PP). When considering sociodemographic factors using both binomial quasi-MLE and binary logit, awareness is found to be significantly associated with gender, race, age, income, education, political discussions, awareness of the constitution, and location. This points to the reproduction of structural inequalities into the functioning and reach of democratic institutions. Implications from these findings for the functioning and legitimacy of these institutions are discussed with suggestions of ways to improve visibility, accessibility, and outreach to the public.

## **Introduction**

Political awareness, and knowledge are considered crucial pillars of any country particularly in enabling informed citizen participation. A plethora of literature has engaged on the question of associated factors that influence political knowledge in different countries, and specific types of political facts (Owen & Soule, 2015; Grönlund & Milner, 2006; Coffé, 2013). Although questions on state institutions, or departments have been included in measurements, specialised literature has focused mostly on public opinion or trust in institutions such as the judiciary. This historically been based on surveys in the Global North, with a recent emergence in African countries. This has been specially informed by the recent rise of surveys such as Afrobarometer, and thus, studies which have identified divergent associated factors across countries (Boeteng & Adjorlolo, 2019; Cherevu & Gerzso, 2023).

This has been similar for South Africa, which also includes a unique set of institutions which are considered critical in its democratic system (Ishiyama & Laoye, 2016; Moosa & Hofmeyr, 2021; Boateng & Kaiser, 2019). Amongst these however is the lack of studies on associated factors related to institutions that fall under chapter 9 and 10 of the constitution with the former focused on supporting democracy, and the later public administration. Although extensive studies have been conducted related to these institutions which include 7, and 1 in the later, these have focused on issues such as constitutional cases, mandate debates, and political interference (Nomvungu, 2022; Yakoob, 2016; Mandonsela, 2012). Few studies have also engaged on public opinion on other institutions, yet none to the best of the authors knowledge have explored the differences in awareness across demographics (Muswede & Thipa, 2017; Kumwenda, 2016).

Studies on political knowledge and awareness argue that associated factors such as class could influence political awareness, and knowledge more especially in less egalitarian countries (Grönlund & Milner, 2006). South Africa does not only have one of the lowest educational outcomes but also is considered one of the most unequal countries globally (Francis & Webster, 2019). Several of the chapter 9 and 10 institutions have also raised issues with limited financing, and resources to increase awareness campaigns especially in the most underserved communities (SAHRC, 2020; CGE, 2017). In-light of this, this study provides firstly a foremost quantitative account of the associated factors related to awareness of chapter 9 and 10 institutions in South Africa. Secondly, as opposed to previous studies in South Africa, this study includes interrogation of factors such as nationality, and the frequency of political discussions rarely included in previous literature. Lastly, the study provides critical advancement of a growing quantitative analysis of the level of political awareness, and knowledge in the Global South which can also inform policies to reduce inequalities of knowledge.

**A brief on chapter 9 and 10 institutions, discourse, and the need for awareness**

Table 1: Chapter 9 and 10 institutions and respective functions

<b>Chapter, and Institution</b>	<b>Functions</b>
<b>Chapter 9</b>	<i>Establishes state institutions supporting constitutional democracy which are independent, impartial, and accountable to the National Assembly.</i>
The Public Protector (PP)	Investigate improper conduct in affairs of the state, report on such conduct, and take remedial action.
The South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC)	Promotion of respect, protection, and attainment of human rights coupled with reporting, research, and educating.
The Commission for Cultural, Religious, and Linguistic Communities (CCRL)	Promote respect and unity among diverse communities (cultural, religious, and linguistic) coupled with reporting, research, and educating.
The Commission for Gender Equality (CGE)	Promote gender equality, monitor, and report on gender issues coupled with research or investigating, and educating
The Auditor-General (AG)	Audit state departments, municipalities, and other entities, report on financial management.
The Electoral Commission (IEC)	Manage elections, ensure they are free and fair, declare results.
The Independent Communications Authority of South Africa (ICASA)	Regulate broadcasting, ensure fairness and diversity of views.
<b>Chapter 10</b>	<i>Introduces basic values of public administration, and the Public Service Commission. Public administration must follow principals as espoused by the constitution such as efficiency, impartiality, equitability, and accountability.</i>
The Public Service Commission (PSC)	Promote, monitor, evaluate, and improve public service including personnel, processes, and activities coupled with reporting and advising on personnel practices.

Author's summary based on Republic of South Africa (1996)

Table 1 summarises the functions set out in Chapter 9 and 10 of the constitution across institutions. Although these functions differ from institution to institution with more varied power between chapters, overall, ensuring public awareness is crucial. This is due to both the role of the public in provision, or complaints related to respective functions, and the implications of processes such as investigations or reporting to the state bodies. Literature has however been focused mostly on debates such as the overlaps in functions, controversial cases, and public opinion on specific issues related to some of the institutions (Kumwenda, 2016; Koza, 2021; Jarbandhan, 2022). Several reports have however found that public awareness is crucial to the functioning of these institutions, with reports arguing that even some in positions of leadership are unaware of the work done by both chapter 9 and 10 institutions (Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2007; SAHRC, 2020; CGE, 2017).

There have also been issues of geographical reach for several institutions. For example, as opposed to the IEC which has an estimated 276 offices due to its electoral importance (IEC, 2024). Other institutions lack the level of satellite offices that IEC has with the second most sparse being the Public Protector with an estimated 15 offices. The CRLRC has the lowest number of offices, with only one which is also its head office. An annual report from 2017 by the CRLRC argued that due to a lack of financial provision, they have failed to ensure satellite accessibility thereby limiting its mandate (CRLRC, 2017). Thus, there not only seems to be inequalities in accessibility but also lack of resources which could influence the level of awareness across institutions. Given the extensive inequalities in South Africa, a question thus, arises on which communities are most affected and how policy could be reshaped to ensure awareness is increased dependent on each institution's context. The next section explores what previous

scholarship has found to be possible associated factors related to political awareness, or knowledge in broad and what remains missing in relation to the South Africa context and its political institutions.

### **Previous scholarship**

Research on associates of political knowledge, and awareness which includes respective institutions or laws is broad and has continued to receive interest, especially within political science. The most prominent studies have been within the global North with most studies measuring political knowledge based on specific questions based on aspects such as branches of the state, laws, or representatives. Several factors which have been identified as crucial to political knowledge include education, gender, age, race, and class (Stockemer & Rocher, 2017; Garcia Trejo, 2015; Kim, 2008).

Firstly, in the context of education, studies have consistently found that there is a gap between those with higher levels of education compared to those at lower levels (Bowd, 1978; Grönlund, and Milner; 2006; Owen & Soule, 2015). Grönlund and Milner (2006) point out that this does not apply to all countries as education can be a less significant factor within countries that are more egalitarian, and proportional systems. Furthermore, the inclusion of civics particularly legal knowledge is argued to be critical in enabling political knowledge, especially among youth with less exposure to knowledge of political systems (Owen and Soule, 2015; Campbell & Niemi, 2016; Hooghe & Dassonneville, 2011; Rasmussen, 2016). Thus, education can play the role of a compensation effect, especially in terms of inequalities in terms of age groups.

According to findings in Canada by Stockemer & Rocher (2017), there exists a general age gap in political knowledge which further contributes to turnout gaps during voting. Other issues such as indecision on candidates, and disappointment of the political system findings in other countries including South Africa support these results

(Tshifhumulo et al., 2023; Resnick & Casale, 2014). Those of older generations also have more access to information overtime whilst those younger could lack the legacy knowledge even with increased access to social media and civics. In many instances even when removing age differences there exist other inequalities that are reproduced such as gender, and racial inequality.

Studies on racial, and gender inequalities show that there exist both a racial and gender gap in political knowledge (Abendschön & Tausendpfund, 2017; Sanchez Vitores, 2019; Coffé, 2013). This has led to a contentious debate on reasons, with several explanations included such as inequities in civic education amongst the structurally disadvantaged, survey bias, and gender socialisation (Ferrin, Fraile & García-Albacete, 2019; Cohen & Luttig, 2020; Nelsen, 2020; Kraft & Dolan, 2023). Ferrin, Fraile & García-Albacete (2019) exploring the gender gap find that the gender roles play a crucial role in political knowledge and the existence of more equitable policies and participation reduce the gap significant structural changes are still critical.

In context of race and ethnicity similar findings also argue for considerations of the role of experiences of those that face or historically faced structural violence. Cohen and Luttig (2020) and Nelsen empirically found that those disadvantaged where more knowledgeable of carceral violence related issues, and respondent differently to civics curriculum content, respectively. The issue of class is also identified as one of the puzzling contributors given those who are poorer are prone to structural violence.

Research links the issue of class to political knowledge with findings in support of a significant association (Macdonald, 2020; Mshumpela, 2020; Dugard & Drage, 2013). Those who are poorer are also more likely to live in areas with less access to institutions and access to justice as explored by Mshumpela (2020). Interestingly, Macdonald (2020) further shows in context of USA, that lack of political knowledge



explained by income inequality also leads to a “puzzling” weak linking between relative position in terms of wealth and support for distributional policies. In some instances, to reduce political knowledge and awareness inequalities some studies point out to the role of information access can play either in increasing the gap or narrowing (Barabas, & Bolsen, 2006; Kim, 2008). Increased access to information within those of lower income can narrow the gap but also there is clear advantage amongst those with higher income as they easily can access several assets of distribution of information such as broadcasting devices.

Regardless of this extensive research there still exists limited studies in the context of not only South Africa but several countries across Africa. In most instances questions around politics have been for example perspectives on political systems, functions, and voting participation (Opalo, 2020; Shenga & Pereira, 2019; Agomere & Adams, 2014). Furthermore, research on political knowledge has focused mostly on questions related to naming specific persons in government or branches of government (Finkel & Ernst, 2005; Söderström, 2018). There is thus, a lack of studies per researcher’s knowledge that focus specifically on independent democratic institutions in South Africa and the respective differences in awareness thereof given the role these institutions play. Secondly although there is literature on issues existent within the chapter 9 and 10 institutions, there is a lack of focus on how each institution differs in reach and accessibility to the population. To address this gap in literature and using prior evidence of factors influencing overall political knowledge, the next section provides the methodology used.

#### **4. Data description and Empirical strategy**

This study used data from South Africa – Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS) of 2018-2019 which is a representative survey undertaken by Statistics

South Africa. This is an extension of the Victims of Crime Survey and focuses on issues such as discrimination, crime, rating of governance, and access to justice (Statistics South Africa, 2020). Following international standards, the household survey is representative and includes several questions which aim to answer questions around crime, public perceptions of justice institutions, and experience of victimization or discrimination. The dependent variable question includes a question on whether individuals are aware of a specific chapter 9 or 10 institution. Independent variables used include the demographic factors of gender, age group, racial group, citizenship, and income level. Further factors of political discussions, whether an individual has heard of the constitution, and the province of stay are included. The respective dataset with variables were all retrieved on the Datafirst platform under the University of Cape Town with a sample of 18 940 individuals used for analysis and respective survey design weights.

In terms of empirical strategies, the available data for the dependent variable is available in two forms. Firstly, for each institution, each individual is asked whether they are aware of it or not in a similar pattern as “trials”. Thus, these could be taken as count in which there is a known upper limit of 8 (all) and lower limit of 0 (none). The most common approach, which is robust for issues such as distributional misspecification, and overdispersion is the binomial quasi-Maximum Likelihood Estimation (binomial quasi-MLE). Under this method the conditional mean is presented by  $E(y_j | x_i, n_j) = n_i G(x_i \beta)$  whereby the cumulative distribution function is  $G(\cdot)$  and  $n$  is the upper limit (Wooldridge, 2010). The logistic function is adopted in context of this paper. This is estimated considering survey design, therefore robust errors for all estimations for inference.

To dissect the estimations further the study also explores how association differs for each institution. Thus, for each institution a binary dependent variable is available as discussed prior with answer yes or no. Given this dichotomous nature, which is widely consistent with political knowledge literature, the logistic regression is adopted as it accounts for binary dependent variables. This is also estimated accounting for survey design inclusive of weights for inference throughout the results section. The next section applying these respective methods presents findings.

## Results

The results that apply the previous methodology are presented in this section. The first component includes descriptive statistics, whilst the second is the regression analysis. Throughout the section, all presented findings account for survey design for inference.

### *Descriptive analysis*

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of survey demographic modules

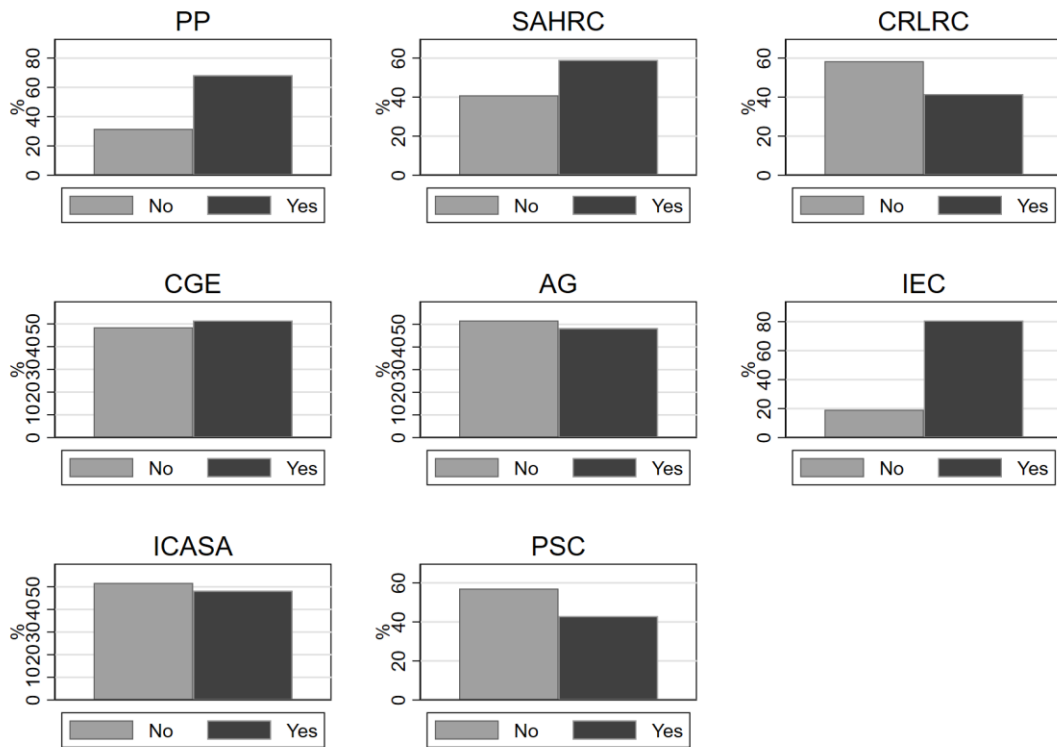
<i>Variable</i>	Proportion (unweighted)	Proportion (Weighted)
<b><i>Gender</i></b>		
Male	47.04	48.23
Female	52.96	51.77
<b><i>Population group</i></b>		
Black- African	82.95	78.67
Coloured	8.03	9.05
Indian/Asian	1.9	2.91
White	7.13	9.37
<b><i>Age group</i></b>		
Youth (18-25)	20.48	26.69
Adult (26-44)	41.99	40.76
Middle-age (45-59)	21.27	19.52
Old age (60 and above)	16.27	13.03
<b><i>Nationality</i></b>		
South African	95.11	95.38
Other	4.89	4.62
<b><i>Education</i></b>		
Less than secondary	20.55	16.46

incomplete secondary	39.34	39.35
complete secondary	26.45	28.9
higher education	12.62	14.02
Other	1.03	1.26
<b><i>Income group</i></b>		
R1-R3500	46.7	38.93
R3501-R8000	22.69	24.61
R8001-R16000	10.54	12
R16001-R30000	6.71	8.21
R30000+	3.51	5.25
Other	9.85	10.99
<b><i>Province</i></b>		
Western Cape	8.86	12.07
Eastern Cape	13.76	10.44
Northern Cape	4.34	2.08
Free State	6.21	5.13
KwaZulu-Natal	16.91	19.14
North West	6.86	6.68
Gauteng	23.37	27.54
Mpumalanga	8.42	7.61
Limpopo	11.27	9.32
N	18 940	18 940

Table 2 shows the proportional statistics from the survey. In terms of gender there are more women than men by 5.92 percentage points which is representative of overall population. In terms of population group, Black-Africans makeup majority of the sample by 82.95% followed by Coloureds, Whites, and then Indian/Asian. Age group differences are also shown in the sample summary with most being between the age of 26 and 44 (41.99%) followed by those who are middle aged (21.27%), youth (20.48%) and old aged (60 and above). Nationality is also shown in the table with South Africans being the majority at 95.11% and the rest being of other nationalities. In terms of education and income, most individuals have incomplete secondary education (39.34%) followed by complete secondary (26.45%) and an income level of R1-R3500 (46.7%) followed by R3501-R8000 (22.69%). At a provincial level, most individuals surveyed stayed within Gauteng (23.37%), KwaZulu-Natal (16.91%) and Eastern Cape

(13.76%). The total sample size of this survey was 18 940 as discussed previously in the methodology.

Figure 1: A comparison of awareness of each chapter 9 and 10 institution



Source: Authors compilation based on Statistics South Africa (2020)

Figure 1 shows a comparison of awareness of each institution accounting for population. The PP, SAHRC, and IEC are the only institutions for which majority of surveyed individuals are aware whilst the rest have less than had a level of awareness of less than 50%. Amongst the most known institutions, the IEC was the highest with 80.79% being aware followed by the PP (68.34%) and SAHRC (59.07%). Possible reasons for this include the presence of IEC across the country and coverage, particularly during elections which enables more awareness. Furthermore, recent data shows that over 73.8% of potential voters are registered to vote which supports the survey findings (IEC, 2023). The PP, which is the second institution, could be argued to benefit mostly from popular public debates due to popular cases implicating several high-rank government officials such as the Nkandla case before the survey (Muswede & Thipa, 2017; Isike, & Omotoso, 2017). The next section focusing on the main objectives of this research

investigate associated factors related firstly to the number of institutions one is aware of and the later, individual institutions.

***Regression estimates***

Table 3: Binomial quasi-MLE results

	<b>Binomial quasi-MLE</b> <b>b/se</b>	<b>Marginal effects</b>
Male	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
Female	-0.098*** (0.028)	-0.159*** (0.045)
Black African	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
Coloured	-0.231*** (0.069)	-0.382*** (0.114)
Indian/Asian	0.820*** (0.166)	1.258*** (0.230)
White	0.225*** (0.078)	0.365*** (0.126)
Young adult (16-25)	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
Adult (26-44)	0.081** (0.036)	0.132** (0.058)
Middle-age (45-59)	0.163*** (0.044)	0.265*** (0.072)
Old age (60+)	0.094* (0.052)	0.153* (0.085)
South Africa	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
Other	-0.412*** (0.072)	-0.676*** (0.119)
less than secondary	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
incomplete secondary	0.431*** (0.042)	0.751*** (0.074)
complete secondary	0.790*** (0.051)	1.365*** (0.088)
higher education	1.169*** (0.065)	1.970*** (0.107)
Other	0.423*** (0.128)	0.738*** (0.223)

R1-R3500	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
R3501-R8000	0.200*** (0.036)	0.337*** (0.060)
R8001-R16000	0.422*** (0.052)	0.705*** (0.087)
R16001-R30000	0.639*** (0.070)	1.050*** (0.111)
R30000+	0.665*** (0.097)	1.090*** (0.153)
Other	0.164*** (0.060)	0.278*** (0.101)
Never	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
Sometimes	0.261*** (0.037)	0.438*** (0.063)
Always	0.573*** (0.048)	0.947*** (0.079)
Yes	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
No	-1.234*** (0.042)	-2.131*** (0.071)
Western Cape	0.000 (.)	0.000 (.)
Eastern Cape	0.228*** (0.086)	0.375*** (0.141)
Northern Cape	0.444*** (0.110)	0.719*** (0.174)
Free State	-0.262*** (0.089)	-0.441*** (0.150)
KwaZulu-Natal	-0.420*** (0.085)	-0.708*** (0.142)
North West	-0.218** (0.099)	-0.366** (0.167)
Gauteng	0.419*** (0.072)	0.680*** (0.119)
Mpumalanga	0.048 (0.094)	0.079 (0.156)
Limpopo	-0.193** (0.095)	-0.325** (0.160)
Constant	-0.633*** (0.086)	
N	18940	

Explanatory notes: \*, \*\* and \*\*\* denote  $p < 0.1$ ,  $p < 0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$ . link(logit). Source: Author's compilation based on Statistics South Africa (2020)

Table 3 shows the results including marginal effects with the dependent variable being the number of institutions for which an individual responded yes to being aware of. The results show that gender, race, age group, income, education level, level of political discussion, and province of residency are all found to be significantly associated with awareness of institutions. In terms of gender, females are significantly less likely to be aware of more institutions than males. And in terms of race, those that are white and Asian are more likely to be aware of more institutions than Black Africans whilst the opposite is found for coloureds who are less likely to be aware of several institutions. Several studies have shown the so-called gender gap, and racial gap respectively in context of political knowledge mostly in the Global North (Abendschön & Tausendpfund, 2017; Fraile & Gomez, 2017; Dow, 2009; Garcia Trejo, 2015; Sanchez Vitores, 2019; Coffé, 2013). In the South African context, research has shown that structural inequalities which are gendered and racialised also replicate on several issues such as access to information or knowledge (Oyedemi, 2012; Mugwisi et. al., 2018; Modiba et. al., 2011; Matli & Ngoepe, 2022).

Age and nationality are also found to be significantly associated with the number of institutions an individual is aware of. Those that are older than the youth are significantly more likely to be aware of more institutions, although this dissipates at older ages. Globally, literature is in line with this finding whereby those who are older are not only more engaged in the official political process such as voting but also more knowledgeable about politics in the country (Stockemer & Rocher, 2017; Tshifhumulo et al., 2023; Resnick & Casale, 2014). Although voting behaviour and the level of political knowledge are critical, there is also an issue of perceptions of fairness, and



effectiveness of the political system as whole that mediates awareness as argued by Tshifhumulo et al. (2023). In relation to nationality, the finding is expected as those who not South African are less likely to be aware of chapter 9 and 10 institutions. Research has consistently found that immigrants have lower levels of political knowledge in comparison to citizens in the host communities (Brown & Bean, 2016; Adman & Strömblad, 2018).

Socioeconomic factors of education, and income are both significantly associated with more awareness of chapter 9 and 10 institutions. Thus, those with higher levels of education, and income have an advantage in awareness. Several studies globally have historically found that those with more education, have higher levels of political or legal knowledge coupled with increased access to justice (Du Toit, 2021; Gallagher & Yang, 2017). This further includes income as well as those with higher income have more access to information due to assets such as television, newspapers, digital technologies, and proximity to several key institutions. South Africa is considered the most unequal country in the world, and those who are in the lower income decile face extreme multidimensional poverty in comparison to those at higher deciles. Due to their location especially in high concentrated areas with low service delivery, those in poorer communities also face hardships to participate in awareness campaigns by institutions. Although chapter 9, and 10 institutions have explored community engagement in peripheral areas such as informal settlements, reach remains lower in comparison to the population and more still needs to be done to increase access to low-income areas or those in lower socioeconomic strata (SAHRC, 2020; CGE, 2017). Research also shows that those living in informal settlements, and rural areas live far from basic institutions, and even areas of gatherings which creates barriers to participation, and access to justice (Mshumpela, 2020; Dugard & Drage, 2013).

The last part of analysis includes political discussion, hearing about the constitution, and provincial factors. Results show that those involved in political discussion sometimes or always are more likely to be aware of more chapter 9 and 10 institutions than those that never have any political discussions. Several findings in literature globally have found a strong relationship between political knowledge, and political discussion (Moore & Coronel, 2022; Trepte & Schimitt, 2017; Eveland Jr & Thomson, 2006). This has also been a point of contestation, Moore, and Coronel (2022) refer to as a “black box” of what mediates or explains the causal relationship between the two leading to several proposals of models. Eveland jr and Thomson (2006) propose that there three paths which include exposure, processing of information from different mediums, and lastly, discussion itself which generates processing of information. Table 4 focuses on factors associated with awareness of each individual chapter 9 and 10 institutions using binary logistic regression.

Table 4: Binary logistic regression results

	PP OR/CI	SAHRC OR/CI	CLR OR/CI	CGE OR/CI	AG OR/CI	IEC OR/CI	ICASA OR/CI	PSC OR/CI
<b>Sex</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(Male)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Female	0.834*** [0.764,0.910]	0.904** [0.833,0.980]	0.891*** [0.824,0.964]	0.934* [0.864,1.011]	0.860*** [0.796,0.930]	0.994 [0.902,1.095]	0.910** [0.842,0.984]	0.886*** [0.819,0.958]
<b>Racial group</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(Black African)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Coloured	0.683*** [0.548,0.850]	0.857 [0.692,1.061]	0.912 [0.746,1.114]	0.635*** [0.517,0.778]	0.666*** [0.541,0.820]	0.712*** [0.569,0.890]	0.924 [0.755,1.130]	0.796** [0.651,0.972]
Indian/Asian	2.797*** [1.800,4.346]	3.029*** [1.986,4.621]	2.972*** [2.041,4.327]	1.957*** [1.253,3.057]	2.081*** [1.366,3.171]	1.296 [0.842,1.993]	2.594*** [1.663,4.047]	2.880*** [1.894,4.377]
White	1.071 [0.845,1.357]	1.520*** [1.204,1.919]	1.192* [0.974,1.461]	1.211* [0.988,1.484]	1.674*** [1.344,2.086]	0.864 [0.646,1.156]	1.261** [1.034,1.539]	1.304*** [1.069,1.591]
<b>Age-group</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(Young adult (16-25))	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Adult (26-44)	1.124** [1.006,1.256]	1.069 [0.964,1.185]	1.040 [0.938,1.152]	0.990 [0.892,1.099]	1.168*** [1.052,1.296]	1.248*** [1.105,1.409]	1.062 [0.959,1.176]	1.115** [1.006,1.235]

Middle age (45-59)	1.258*** [1.097,1.443]	1.102 [0.970,1.252]	1.170** [1.028,1.332]	1.124* [0.991,1.274]	1.208*** [1.067,1.368]	1.402*** [1.208,1.628]	1.164** [1.027,1.318]	1.218*** [1.071,1.383]
Old age (60+)	1.086 [0.932,1.266]	1.069 [0.919,1.243]	1.146* [0.986,1.332]	1.028 [0.883,1.196]	1.098 [0.942,1.279]	1.237** [1.050,1.458]	1.066 [0.917,1.240]	1.188** [1.024,1.378]
<b>Nationality</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(South African)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Other	0.577***	0.665***	0.664***	0.699***	0.663***	0.446***	0.688***	0.735***
Countries	[0.474,0.701]	[0.536,0.826]	[0.528,0.834]	[0.566,0.864]	[0.535,0.821]	[0.368,0.540]	[0.561,0.845]	[0.584,0.925]
<b>Education</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(Less than secondary)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Incomplete Secondary	1.828*** [1.618,2.066]	1.650*** [1.459,1.866]	1.585*** [1.391,1.806]	1.527*** [1.349,1.729]	1.644*** [1.441,1.875]	1.387*** [1.215,1.582]	1.708*** [1.505,1.939]	1.748*** [1.532,1.994]
Complete secondary	2.686*** [2.317,3.114]	2.424*** [2.094,2.806]	2.245*** [1.939,2.599]	2.383*** [2.059,2.759]	2.553*** [2.202,2.959]	1.702*** [1.450,1.998]	2.742*** [2.370,3.173]	2.611*** [2.250,3.030]
higher education	3.859*** [3.142,4.738]	3.602*** [2.977,4.358]	3.052*** [2.564,3.633]	3.618*** [3.011,4.347]	4.168*** [3.470,5.007]	2.337*** [1.850,2.951]	4.162*** [3.469,4.994]	4.030*** [3.367,4.824]
Other	1.692*** [1.195,2.396]	1.620*** [1.156,2.270]	1.905*** [1.310,2.770]	1.708*** [1.169,2.496]	1.527** [1.077,2.164]	1.279 [0.868,1.884]	1.759*** [1.254,2.469]	1.466* [0.986,2.179]
<b>Income level</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(R1-R3500)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
R3501-R8000	1.331*** [1.195,1.483]	1.208*** [1.089,1.341]	1.081 [0.974,1.199]	1.210*** [1.091,1.341]	1.363*** [1.233,1.508]	1.125* [0.993,1.274]	1.330*** [1.202,1.472]	1.375*** [1.240,1.524]
R8001-R16000	1.708*** [1.451,2.011]	1.647*** [1.411,1.922]	1.492*** [1.294,1.719]	1.519*** [1.311,1.759]	1.646*** [1.422,1.904]	1.297*** [1.072,1.571]	1.693*** [1.458,1.964]	1.715*** [1.488,1.976]
R16001-R30000	2.061*** [1.642,2.588]	2.022*** [1.657,2.467]	1.783*** [1.482,2.145]	1.918*** [1.587,2.319]	2.137*** [1.768,2.584]	1.429*** [1.109,1.842]	2.205*** [1.828,2.660]	2.335*** [1.949,2.799]
R30000+	2.278*** [1.635,3.175]	2.326*** [1.660,3.258]	1.688*** [1.314,2.169]	1.923*** [1.436,2.576]	2.365*** [1.811,3.089]	1.660*** [1.155,2.387]	2.220*** [1.700,2.898]	2.191*** [1.709,2.808]
Other	1.182** [1.001,1.395]	1.250*** [1.055,1.480]	1.233** [1.050,1.448]	1.259*** [1.068,1.484]	1.207** [1.028,1.417]	0.818** [0.684,0.979]	1.298*** [1.107,1.523]	1.338*** [1.138,1.573]
<b>Political discussions</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(never)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Sometimes	1.659*** [1.490,1.846]	1.369*** [1.231,1.522]	1.188*** [1.067,1.323]	1.369*** [1.231,1.524]	1.295*** [1.165,1.439]	1.445*** [1.282,1.628]	1.282*** [1.152,1.427]	1.204*** [1.077,1.347]
Always	1.824*** [1.599,2.081]	2.135*** [1.870,2.438]	1.721*** [1.512,1.958]	2.188*** [1.924,2.489]	1.909*** [1.677,2.173]	1.452*** [1.242,1.697]	1.889*** [1.660,2.149]	1.733*** [1.522,1.974]
<b>Heard of the constitution (Yes)</b>	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
No	0.221*** [0.198,0.247]	0.212*** [0.189,0.238]	0.264*** [0.230,0.302]	0.244*** [0.216,0.276]	0.265*** [0.232,0.303]	0.312*** [0.277,0.351]	0.266*** [0.234,0.302]	0.221*** [0.192,0.254]
Residency	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
(Ref: Western Cape)	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]	[1.000,1.000]
Eastern Cape	0.800* [0.623,1.027]	1.036 [0.805,1.333]	2.026*** [1.586,2.588]	1.313** [1.025,1.684]	1.043 [0.818,1.329]	1.079 [0.818,1.423]	1.745*** [1.373,2.219]	1.431*** [1.122,1.825]
Northern Cape	1.410**	1.414**	2.288***	1.944***	1.415**	0.981	1.641***	1.920***

Free State	[1.039,1.912] 0.704**	[1.039,1.924] 0.644***	[1.673,3.129] 1.000	[1.417,2.665] 0.701**	[1.052,1.901] 0.535***	[0.702,1.371] 0.647***	[1.213,2.221] 0.912	[1.402,2.629] 0.844
KwaZulu-Natal	[0.530,0.936] 0.548***	[0.482,0.861] 0.347***	[0.764,1.308] 0.954	[0.527,0.932] 0.557***	[0.409,0.699] 0.601***	[0.478,0.875] 0.691***	[0.685,1.214] 0.673***	[0.643,1.108] 0.769**
North West	[0.428,0.702] 0.567***	[0.269,0.446] 0.517***	[0.740,1.230] 1.230	[0.436,0.711] 0.812	[0.467,0.773] 0.637***	[0.536,0.892] 0.803	[0.521,0.871] 0.972	[0.599,0.989] 0.870
Gauteng	[0.426,0.755] 1.424***	[0.388,0.689] 1.178	[0.923,1.641] 2.075***	[0.609,1.082] 1.581***	[0.478,0.849] 1.297**	[0.586,1.102] 1.458***	[0.741,1.274] 1.844***	[0.663,1.141] 1.788***
Mpumalanga	[1.119,1.811] 0.979	[0.939,1.479] 0.840	[1.659,2.595] 1.331**	[1.269,1.971] 1.031	[1.046,1.609] 0.936	[1.154,1.842] 1.269	[1.480,2.298] 1.270*	[1.448,2.208] 0.884
Limpopo	[0.726,1.320] 0.607***	[0.627,1.125] 0.540***	[1.006,1.760] 1.209	[0.781,1.361] 0.828	[0.710,1.232] 0.817	[0.911,1.768] 0.556***	[0.959,1.683] 0.968	[0.671,1.165] 1.058
	[0.458,0.804]	[0.412,0.708]	[0.927,1.579]	[0.636,1.078]	[0.619,1.079]	[0.415,0.745]	[0.744,1.260]	[0.808,1.387]
<i>R-sqr</i>	0.196	0.191	0.136	0.170	0.169	0.109	0.167	0.165
<i>LR Chi-square</i>	4758.297	4954.282	3479.908	4474.317	4415.723	2071.334	4369.880	4220.330
<i>Lroc</i>	0.787	0.783	0.744	0.767	0.767	0.727	0.766	0.765
<i>N</i>	18940	18940	18940	18940	18940	18940	18940	18940

Explanatory notes: \*, \*\* and \*\*\* denote  $p < 0.1$ ,  $p < 0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$ . Source: Author's compilation based on Statistics South Africa (2020)

Results for each institution are shown in Table 4. In the first instance of sex, the results show that across respective Chapter 9 and Chapter 10 institutions, females are less likely to be aware of each of the analysed 10 institutions. Thus, there is the existence of differences of awareness in terms of gender including critical institutions such as the CGE which is effectively mandated within the issue of gender equity. This supports the previous results that show similar results in the context of several institutions individuals are aware of.

In terms of racial differences, those who are coloured are less likely than Africans at a significant level of 5% to be aware of the PP, CGE, AG, and PSC. Concerning the Indian/Asian population, they are more likely to be aware of PP, SAHRC, CGE, AG, ICASA, and PSC than Africans. A similar likelihood is also seen in the context of the white population, although there is no difference in terms of awareness of the PP. Thus, across institutions, the IEC is the only institution for which

only the coloured population is less likely to be aware of than Africans whilst for other racial groups this does not hold. This could be due to the popularity of IEC as an institution as shown in the survey response. Furthermore, the high rate of registration by voters, and popularity during election years means that the IEC similar to the PP has increased awareness across racial groups.

Age is also an indicator of awareness of Chapter 9 and 10 institutions. The findings suggest that the IEC is the only institution whereby those who are older than young adults (16-25) are more likely to be aware of the institution. This is due to the high participation rate of those older in terms of both registration for participation in municipal, and national elections. Older individuals also have lived longer and possess more knowledge which thereby could mean more knowledge of institutions than those who are younger, particularly teenagers. In relation to other institutions, Adults (26-44) are more likely to be aware of PP, and AG than young adults. Secondly those middle-aged are more likely than the youth to be aware of PP, CLRCC, AG, ICASA, and PSC. An interesting finding is that those of old age are not more likely to be aware of any institution when excluding the IEC, pointing out an interesting “paradox” of those of older age not knowing the newly established institutions post-94 as much as the new generation yet those age groups in-between knowing more. This can be explained by several insights from other studies such as the lack of access to information older people have, their reduced literacy rates, and decline in memory due to biological factors of old age.

Considering other demographic factors of citizenship, education, and income differences exist within each category. In terms of citizenship, as expected, those who are South African have a significantly higher likelihood of awareness of Chapter 9 and 10 institutions than non-citizens. Since in most instances citizens are more engaged in

both the political process and education that contextualises these institutions, they are more knowledgeable of such institutions. Contrarily, non-citizens who are mostly immigrants who have lived in the country for a shorter period and lack contextual knowledge of all bodies in the country are expected to be less knowledgeable and aware. In terms of education, results are also as expected although showcasing inequalities of access to information with those having higher education than those with less than secondary education being more likely to be aware of Chapter 9, and 10 institutions.

In terms of exposure components analysed as per previous results is whether individuals have heard about the constitution or engage in political discussions. The results support prior findings across all institutions showing that those who have not heard about the constitution are significantly less likely to be aware of any of the 9 and 10 institutions. Furthermore, those who engage in political discussions are more likely to be aware of chapter 9 and 10 institutions across all regressions.

In the context of provincial differences, the results show that provinces are significantly different in terms of knowledge when accounting for other individual socioeconomic factors. Those in the Eastern Cape, are less likely to know the PP than those within the Western Cape yet more likely to know the CLRCC, CGE, AG, ICASA, and PSC. In the context of the Northern Cape and Gauteng, there is a higher number of institutions in which those located within these provinces are more likely to know with only IEC and SAHRC being the insignificant respectively. Provinces with increased institutions that residence are unaware of in comparison to those in the reference province include KZN, Free State, Limpopo, and the North West in that order. Thus, although outreach programmes have been rolled out across the country, persistent lack of awareness is clear within specific provinces in comparison to others.

## **Conclusion**

Despite several studies on political knowledge, focus on a unique set of independent African democratic institutions has remained scarce. This article provides new evidence concerning chapter 9 and 10 institutions which play a role in one of Africa's youngest democracies. These specialised institutions were created for the sole purpose of establishing a well-functioning democracy with separate roles on issues such as human rights, and public administration. Given this role and the lack of studies on this front, this study sought to explore whether awareness of these institutions does not differ across different sociodemographic groups. Findings show that most of the institutions have extremely low levels of awareness with only IEC and PP having higher levels of awareness.

In terms of associated factors, gender, race, age group, income, education level, level of political discussion, and province of residency are all found to be significantly associated with awareness of institutions. There is clear reproduction of existent inequalities on awareness of chapter 9 and 10 institutions with those who are female, Coloured or Black African, younger, and old aged, of lower incomes and education less likely to be aware of more institutions. Furthermore, those who engage in political discussion or have heard of the Constitution are more likely to be aware of more institutions than those who are less engaged and have never heard of the Constitution. When considering each institution, results further show that these factors remain significant although they vary for example when it comes to the IEC the gender gap is insignificant. Secondly, the "age gap" in terms of awareness is insignificant in terms of SAHRC.

Evidence within this paper can inform policies, particularly in terms of the need for financial support to increase awareness campaigns and civic education towards those disadvantaged. The findings show clearly that groups be it in the context of race,

gender, income, or age are more likely to be aware of Chapter 9 and 10 institutions than others. Due to the democratic role these institutions play on several important issues, the lack of awareness leads to less participation, knowledge of findings and lack of avenues to report injustices which all lead to democracy which is insufficient.

This study is not without limitations, due to the nature of questions available in the survey there is a lack of understanding of whether those who are aware of institutions truly know their respective mandates. Thus, although awareness is critical, there is an avenue for future qualitative research on the public's understanding of the role of different institutions and their role in providing information. Furthermore, shortcomings are clear in establishing where individuals have heard or informed themselves about these institutions which could provide more information on avenues which are effective for specific sociodemographic groups. This thereby provides further key points for more research in future in this especially underexplored area in South African context. In conclusion, the findings of this article advance literature on political knowledge and awareness regarding institutions in African democracies and provide pathways for further research.



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