

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

3.1 Introduction

Both urban and rural localities are becoming increasingly complex units to govern. The local area is not an island unto itself, it is not a closed society. Rather, local areas are increasingly part of web of social, economic and political transaction that transcend their boundaries. The actions of a wide range of civil and corporate players impact on the local economy and society. Resources and capacity are dispersed across different sectors and deployed for a variety of purposes. In this complex context, developmental municipalities will need to be guided by strong political and administrative leadership, they will also need to be able to make difficult policy judgements, implement good governance by working with a range of players and guide the actions of the administration to promote the social and economic well-being of local communities. Since governance signifies a way of governing, the political and administrative leadership should take the interests and views of those affected by local government administration more seriously than in the past. The governed are the community at large. This includes individuals, community organizations and business, trade unions and non-governmental organizations. Political and administrative leadership should realize that it is necessary to involve the community and all their constituents parts in the functioning of local government administration. As already stated, relationships, partnerships and alliances have, therefore, become much more important for a local government administration than in the past.

Successful politicians are those who represent the interests of their constituency and use their power effectively. As a public representative, a councillor's profile or image in the community is very important. Good communication skills are essential for effective inputs both in the council and with the various constituencies. Councillors who are not powerful within their

council will not be heard and will therefore not be able to bring about meaningful change. According to the International Republican Institute (1995:78), to survive as a politician, needs to expand and build the constituency that first elected one. In other words, one needs to stay in touch with the people who voted for one. The best way of doing this is to understand their issues and problems, and to work closely with local organizations. For the council to always be on tract, its administrators, such as municipal managers and directors, should have the necessary knowledge and skills to advise the council during its meetings or sittings correctly. In this way, the intermingling of the roles of both councillors and administrators will be minimized and the delivery of goods and services to the communities will be improved. To accelerate this process of service delivery, municipalities in South Africa should operate in partnership with the following: other municipalities, other spheres of government (provincial and national governments), civil societies and private sectors.

3.2 *Components of leadership and governance.*

According to Kuye and Mafunisa (2003:432), it is clear that leadership is a complex management activity. Particular components of leadership are authority, power, influence, delegation, responsibility and accountability. Authority is the right of a leader to give orders and demand action from workers. Power, however, refers to the ability of a leader to apply authority in such a way that workers take action. At times the task of a leader might also be passing his/her authority to a subordinate to do something on his/her behalf. This entails subdividing a task and passing a part on to a worker with the necessary authority to execute it. The final part of leadership is accepting responsibility and accounting for it. To maintain effective leadership, one must keep a delicate balance among the different leadership components mentioned above. For example, excessive authority may lead to an autocratic leadership style, which could influence and undermine the motivation of others in the organization.

Smit and de J Cronjé (1992:334) assert that certain components of leadership emerge, namely authority, power, influence, delegation, responsibility and accountability. Authority is the right of a leader to give orders and demand action from subordinates. Power refers to the ability of a



leader to influence the behaviour of others without necessarily using his authority. Influence is the ability to apply authority and power in such a way that followers take action. Delegation entails subdividing a task and passing a smaller part of it on to a subordinate together with the necessary authority to execute it. The final component of leadership is accepting responsibility and accounting for oneself.

In order to ensure that the people are receiving the necessary and effective services, the governance structures should be guided by the following principles: political and management commitment by all government leaders; clear understanding of the constitution of the country and its implementation process; an effective legal framework which defines standards of behaviour for public servants and enforces them through systems of investigation and prosecution; efficient accountability mechanisms; a workable code of conduct; professional socialisation mechanisms by which public servants learn and inculcate ethics, standards of conduct and public service values; supportive public service conditions of service; respect for the rule of law; effective maintenance of law and order; advancement of welfare for the people; and the development of clear policies (Thakhathi, 2000:78-79).

According to Cloete (2002:440), good governance is prescriptively conceptualised for the purposes of the achievement by a democratic government of the most appropriate developmental policy objectives to sustainably develop its society, by mobilising, applying and coordinating all available resources in the public, private and voluntary sectors, domestically and internationally, in the most effective, efficient and democratic way. Public service delivery is similarly conceptualised as the implementation of public policy aimed at providing services to the public. Developmental policies are public policies which succeed in raising the quality of life of a society's citizens. The objective of sustainable development in this sense is to achieve a self-sustaining improvement in the medium to long term quality of life. This inevitably implies a coherent systematic interaction of development initiatives, resulting in structural, functional and cultural consolidation of a new way of life, in fact, of the creation of a development culture in society. This is the reason why it is emphasized that political and administrative leadership in municipalities should work in consultation with all stakeholders for municipalities to succeed in their service delivery.

Taking into account the discussion under the components – namely authority, power, delegation, responsibility, accountability of leadership and governance – one may conclude that for a leader to be effective and efficient in his/her leadership he/she should keep a delicate balance among the different leadership components, namely authority, power, delegation, responsibility and accountability. Excessive authority, for example, may lead to an autocratic leadership style, which could influence and/or undermine the motivation of others in the organization. The leader should also be in a position to be able to delegate certain tasks to his /her subordinates because in a large organization such as municipalities the leader is not be able to carry out all the tasks alone. A leader will be exercising good governance in his / her organization if he or she delegates, thus involving all stakeholders in the various organizations. This is the reason why it is emphasized that political and administrative leadership in municipalities should work in consultation with all stakeholders in order for municipalities to succeed in their service delivery.

3.3 *The importance of leadership and governance*

The performance of any organization is directly related to the quality of its leadership. The point of contention is that effective managers will lead their institutions to greater heights of achievement, productivity and ultimately prosperity if they are competent and inspiring leaders as well. It is in the public service that effective leadership is most needed. But the difference between a manager and a leader also has to be understood. Effective managers are not necessarily good leaders. Managers are bearers of authority assigned to them by an organized structure that has the authority and right to organize so as to lead to the activities of others. This entails giving orders and ensuring that they are carried out. A leader can get results without coercion. Such an individual is a leader because he/she has specific traits and a power base, consults his/her followers on particular matters and motivates them to cooperate and to work according to their own free will (Kuye & Mafunisa, 2003:432).

Reddy (2003:450) states that it is generally accepted that decentralised government under favourable conditions facilitates the multiplication of points towards and the identification of responses to new developmental opportunities. There will be improved efficiencies and reduction of lost opportunities as a result of improved management as well as more effective use of and matching of local needs to available resources. Improved management allows for prioritisation of areas and projects to facilitate equitable distribution of services and to meet economic objectives. It is believed that less specialized units, smaller working groups, immediate responses and ongoing deliberation with the local citizenry ensures an outcome-based perspective that fosters integration across economic and environmental spheres. It is accepted that more localised forms of authoritative decision-making reduce the cost of effective participation and increase the returns to collective action. The poor and marginalized are not disadvantaged in terms of their information base and it deepens democracy and accountability through effective citizen participation. There will be fewer levels of decision-making, greater flexibility, and more interpersonal networking internally which reduces internal transaction costs. With better management there will be enhanced community care of infrastructure and the development of an ethos of local citizenship.

According to Cloete (2002:442), recent international research findings on good governance indicate the following main trends: a general acceptance that a strategic management approach focused on committed actions to achieve realistic implementation objectives is needed to improve service delivery outcomes, necessitating effective information use and management; a dramatic world-wide increase in the availability of digitised policy related data and high powered capacity compiler systems to manipulate that data; a resultant dramatic increase in the reliance on electronic management information systems in well developed administration and relatively successful policy systems to monitor coordinate, implement and assess the effectiveness of policy implementation programmes, and an increasing reliance on more user - friendly, less technically complicated electronic decision support systems to optimise multi - criteria policy decision-making and in order to promote effective policy implementation and service delivery.

It is clear that an organization without sound leadership and good governance is lifeless and unproductive, because it has no objectives and goals to achieve. Leaders should always be there in any organization so that they can organize and plan for their organisations. It is imperative for leaders to plan for an organization if that organization has to be seen as operating effectively and achieving its vision, mission, objectives and goals. Leaders should also have the knowledge of how to govern that particular organization for the organization to function effectively and efficiently. In the context of this thesis, leaders should be persons who know and understand their leadership roles in local government administration in order to be in a position to make local government administration deliver goods and services to the communities under their jurisdiction. They are to be leaders who know how to involve all stakeholders in running the local government administration for the local government administration to function successfully and effectively. Political and administrative leadership in municipalities must be familiar with the legislative framework of local government administration in order to know what to do and what not to do.

3.4 *Theoretical leadership within international context*

3.4.1 *The theory of qualities/traits*

According to the theory of leadership traits, the leader is a particular type of person with particular capabilities; and his leadership is based on putting these characteristics or competencies into practice (Gumingham and Gephart, 1973:2). This theory explores the comparisons that have previously been made between the qualities of leaders and non-leaders. The theory has practical value, because leadership involves the application of specific expertise and makes certain demands of certain leadership qualities (Swartz, 1979:7).

One of the earliest approaches for studying leadership was the trait approach (Yukl, 1981:67). Generally speaking, there is considerable variation in the personality, ability, capabilities, and skills of successful leaders. However, research reveals that some traits appear more consistently than others. It should be remembered that although the statistical correlations between these traits and leadership are positive, the correlations are often low, and also do not prove the cause-

and-effect relationship. It may require one set of traits to achieve a position of leadership and another set of abilities to maintain that position (Beach, 1985:335).

Fox, et al (1991:101) stated that many research studies have shown that a leader has somewhat greater intelligence than of his followers, but not a great deal more. A manager of scientists will usually possess a somewhat higher intelligence of a typical Ph.D. will have too successfully supervise a gang of labourers. On average, leaders score fairly high on various measures of social skills, sociability, and friendliness toward others. They also score high on interpersonal skills, including tactfulness. Leaders are able to obtain co-operation from others and tend to participate actively in group functions. A passive, apathetic, or aloof person is unlikely to rise to a position of leadership and is unlikely to maintain that position. On the average, the successful leader tends to initiate action for others. He proposes, suggests, and co-ordinates. Leaders exhibit a strong need to achieve and to excel. They show persistence in overcoming obstacles, are vigorous in pursuing their objectives and completing tasks, and are creative in problem solving.

The first organized efforts by psychologists and other researchers to learn more about leadership involved the analysis and identification of the personal qualities of leaders. The underlying idea was that strong leaders have basic traits or a set of traits could be isolated and identified, then potential leaders could be recognized. In their search for identifiable leadership traits, the researchers followed two basic approaches. First, they tried to compare the characteristics of those who had come forward as leaders with those who were not leaders, and secondly, they compared the characteristics of effective leaders with those who can be regarded as ineffective leaders (Smit & de J Cronjé, 1992:340).

Most of the studies consulted for this thesis fall into the first category and researchers hold that leadership traits include qualities, such as intelligence, assertiveness, above-average height, a good vocabulary, attractiveness, self-assurance, an extrovert personality, and similar characteristic leadership traits. However, the researcher was disappointed time and again with the results, because there were so many exceptions. For each set of "leadership" traits, it was found that a vast number of people who are not leaders also have stipulated attributes.

Napoleon, for example, was short of stature and Abraham Lincoln was an introvert; yet both were outstanding leaders. Another possibility that emerged from the research was that individuals become more self-assured and communicate better after they have achieved a leadership position. In other words, traits that come to the fore after a while are the result of the leadership position itself rather than the cause of it. The second category of research, namely a comparison of the traits of successful and unsuccessful leaders, failed to contribute anything startling. The studies do, however, show that effective leadership is not the result of a specific set of traits, but rather of how well a leader's traits, correspond with the qualities required for a specific position (Smit & Dde J Cronjé, 1992:340-341).

According to Canwood & Gibbon (1985: 51-52), men and women are either born with the silver spoon of leadership in their mouths, or not, with the corollary that those who possess the inborn or inherent qualities of a leader will naturally emerge as the head of any group in which they are placed, regardless of the situation. They are born to lead. The earliest research workers in this field tended to share this assumption that leadership consisted of a certain pattern of inherited or acquired personality traits, and therefore they set about trying to produce a definitive list of qualities. Much to their surprise they found very little agreement among the legions of writers upon the topic. Each list seemed to be subjective, telling the reader more about the author's own temperament and beliefs than leadership. One survey of twenty experimental studies revealed that only five percent of the qualities examined were common to four or more studies. In fact there was bewildering number of trait names from which the student of leadership could make up his portfolio. Two researchers compiled a list of some 17 000 words for personality qualities. Courage and initiative, for example, both favourites in almost any trait analysis of military leadership are really qualities expected in all soldiers regardless of rank. They are essential military virtues. But it is quite possible to recall brave and resourceful soldiers who are by no stretch of the imagination leaders.

The lack of agreement on the so-called leadership traits, theory has tended to discredit this approach. However, it is worth pointing out one undoubted truth which the theory contains, namely that leaders ought to possess and exemplify the qualities or values esteemed by the group. The leader has a symbolic or representative role which can perhaps best be understood

in terms of qualities. This is especially true for national leaders. In the Second World War, for example, no small part of Winston Churchill's effectiveness lay in his power to portray vividly in words and appearance the sterling quality of the British nation at that time: bulldog resolve. Although the qualities approach persists and still colours the language of many speeches on the subject, this is usually because alternatives are not fully known; nor have they been properly examined and discarded. In other words, it is uncritical adherence made possible either by ignorance of the remaining possibilities or because the thought-pattern formed by many years of unchallenged assumptions cannot easily be dissolved by new discoveries. From the leadership trainers' point of view, however, there is no reason to regret the disfavour into which the qualities approach has fallen. By its very nature the theory tended to lay the emphasis on leadership given rather than on training. Opinions vary as to how far the student of leadership can develop leadership qualities by the exercise of willpower, but those who have attempted this self-improvement have found it extremely difficult. Indeed, both psychologists and theologians suggest that such endeavours are self-defeating. It is hard to imagine, for example, how the conscious cultivation of a sense of humour can be anything but serious. Often the sole results of these frontal assaults upon leadership qualities are increased self-centredness – the one certain disqualification for leadership (Canwood & Gibbon, 1985:52).

Leadership was explained by the internal qualities with which a person is born. The thought was that if the traits that differentiated leaders from followers could be identified, successful leaders could be quickly assessed and put into positions of leadership. Personality, physical and mental characteristics were examined. This research was based on the idea that leaders were born, not made, and the key to success was simply in identifying those people who were born to be great leaders. Though much research was done to identify the traits, no clear answer was found with regard to that traits consistently were associated with great leadership. One flaw with this line of thought was in ignoring the situational and environmental factors that play a role in a leader's level of effectiveness (Homer, 1997:270).

Armandi, Opperdisano and Sherman (2003:1076) stress that, in the 1920s and 1930s, research focused on trying to identify the traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. The goal was to identify sets of traits to assist in selecting the right people for positions requiring effective

leadership. None of the six traits that were found to be associated with the leadership (drive, the desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, and job-relevant knowledge), however, consistently distinguished leaders from followers. A major reason for the failure of trait theories is that they do not take into account leader-subordinates interaction or situational conditions.

Leaders are people who are able to express themselves fully. They also know what they want; why they want it, and how to communicate what they want to others, in order to gain their cooperation and support. They know how to achieve their goals. But what is it that make someone exceptional in this respect? As soon as one studies the lives of people who have been labelled as great or effective leaders, it becomes clear that they have very different qualities. One only has to think of political figures such as Nelson Mandela, Margaret Thatcher and Mao Zedong to confirm this (Bennis, 1998:3).

Instead of starting with exceptional individuals, many researchers turned to setting out the general qualities or traits they believed should be present. Surveys of early trait research reported that many studies identified personality characteristics that appear to differentiate leaders from followers. However, others found no differences between leaders and followers with respect to these characteristics, or even found people who possessed them were less likely to become leaders. The basic idea remains that if a person possesses these qualities she or he will be able to take the lead in every different situation. The following is a list of traits that are thought to be central to effective leadership, namely, physical vitality and stamina, intelligence and action-orientated judgment, eagerness to accept responsibility, task competence, understanding of followers and their needs, skill in dealing with people, need for achievement, capacity to motivate people, courage and resolution, trustworthiness, decisiveness, self-confidence, assertiveness and adaptability or flexibility (Wright, 1996:34).

In the light of the above discussions of the theory of qualities, it is very clear that this theory of leadership is considered to be misleading, because the early searches after traits often assumed that there was a definite set of characteristics that made a leader irrespective of the situation. They thought the same traits would work on a battlefield and in the staff room of a school.

They minimized the impact of the situation. In a nutshell, this line of thought ignored the situational and environmental factors that play a role in a leader's level of effectiveness.

3.4.2 *The situation theory*

The point of departure in this case is that certain types of leaders or leadership are the most suitable in certain situations (Bester, 1970:11). The situation is the most important factor which determines who emerges as a leader, what the nature of leadership action will be and how the group will act (Swartz, 1979:7-8). This means, for instance, that a politician would not necessarily be capable of being a leader in the defence force, or the other way round. In this regard, one might ask if Napoleon would today be the outstanding leader which he was in his particular situation (Cunningham & Gephart, 1973: 13).

According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:189), situational theory holds that there is no best style of leadership for all situations. The success of leadership lies in the fact that it should be applicable and should be accepted as a given; the planning of tasks and situations should ideally be done in such a way that a person's leadership style can be adapted to suit the specific situation.

The situational leadership theory involves two broad categories of leadership behaviour. The one is task behaviour. This refers to the extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group and to explain what activities each must do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. It is characterised by trying to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs done. Relationship behaviour is the extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and the members of their group by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support and facilitating behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977:104).

The model of Hersey and Blanchard deals with only one situational moderator variable called follower maturity. This is defined as the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness to

take responsibility, and education and /or experience (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977:161). The maturity of a subordinate is measured only in relation to a particular task that the subordinate has to perform. Therefore, a subordinate may be quite mature in relation to one task, but immature regarding another aspect of the job. According to this theory, follower maturity involves two related components: Job maturity, which is a subordinate's task-relevant skills and technical knowledge and Psychological maturity, which is a feeling of self-confidence and self-respect. A high maturity subordinate has the ability to perform a particular task and at the same time has a high degree of self-confidence about the task. A low maturity subordinate lacks ability as well as effectiveness. Although Hersey & Blanchard recognize that other situational variables may sometimes be as important as follower maturity, they have excluded these other kinds of situational variables in order to create a more narrowly focussed model of leader effectiveness (Fox, Schewella & Wissink, 1991:103). The situational leadership theory holds that as the level of subordinate maturity increases, the leader should make use of more relationship-oriented behaviour and less task-oriented behaviour, up to the point where subordinates have a moderate level of maturity. As maturity rises beyond that level, the leader should decrease the amount of relationship-oriented behaviour, while at the same time continuing to decrease the amount of task-oriented behaviour (Yukl, 1981:141).

In his evaluation of Hersey and Blanchard's theory, Yukl (1981:143–144) points out that they have not published validation studies testing their theory. The conceptual basis of the theory is weak, because they have neglected to provide a coherent, explicit rationale for the hypothesized relationship. However, despite these and other deficiencies, situational leadership theory does make a positive contribution, such as the emphasis on flexible, adaptable leader behaviour. The theory also advances the innovative proposition that leaders have other options besides just adapting to the present situation—they may change the situation by building the skills and confidence of subordinates. Another contribution is the recognition that leader behaviour must be exhibited within a given situation and will not be effective unless the leader has sufficient skills in using that style of leadership.

According to Smit and De J Cronjé (1992:343), to complement the trait and behaviour approaches to leadership and to tie in with Tannebaum and Schmidt's multidimensional view

on leadership, which gave rise to the contingency or situational approach to leadership, researchers started identifying factors in each situation that influence the effectiveness of leadership. The research for this approach and the shift in emphasis was that the trait and behaviour approaches indicated that no single trait or style is equally effective in all situations, and that good leadership is the result of additional variables. Hence a leader's success can be attributed partly to certain traits and behaviour patterns that he manifests, but it is determined primarily by how good his traits and behaviour are in satisfying the needs of his subordinates and the given situation. A leader's success is often determined by his ability to sum up a situation and adapt his style of leadership accordingly. This is the contingency or situational approach to leadership. Instead of searching for the best style of leadership managers should rather learn to establish interfaces with regard to themselves, the situation and the nature of their subordinates.

Hoy and Miskel (1987:273) argue that reaction, or perhaps more appropriately overreaction, to the trait approach was so intense during the late 1940s and 1950s that for a time it seemed that both psychologists and sociologists had substituted a strictly situational analysis for the then questionable trait approach. Researchers sought to identify distinctive characteristics of the setting to which the leader's success could be attributed; they attempted to isolate specific properties of the situation that had relevance for leader behaviour and performance. The following variables have been postulated as situational determinants of leadership: structural properties of the organization (size, hierarchical structure, formalization) organizational climate (openness, participativeness, group atmosphere), role characteristics (position power, type and difficulty of task, procedural rules) and subordinate characteristics (knowledge and experience, tolerance for ambiguity, responsibility, power).

Horner (1997:274) stresses that these contingency theories make the assumption that the effects of one variable on leadership are contingent on other variables. This concept was a major insight at the time, because it opened the door for the possibility that leadership could be different in very situation. With this idea a more realistic view of leadership emerged, allowing for the complexity and situational specificity of overall effectiveness. Several different contingencies were identified and studied, but it is unrealistic to assume that any one theory is

more or less valid or useful than another. One such theory considered two variables in defining leader effectiveness: leadership style and the degree to which the leader's situation is favourable for influence. Fiedler's concept of situational favourability, or the ease of influencing followers, was defined as the combination of leader-member relations, task structure, and favourability. He then developed a questionnaire to measure leadership style, called the least preferred co-worker scale. Through this research, he found that certain leadership styles were more effective in certain situations.

The Michigan studies under the guidance of Likert identified two basic forms of leadership behaviour. First task oriented leader behaviour, in which the leader is concerned primarily with careful supervision and control to ensure that subordinates do their work satisfactorily. This leadership style involves applying pressure on subordinates to perform. According to task-oriented leaders, subordinates are merely instruments to get the work done. Secondly, employee-oriented leader behaviour, in which the leader applies less control and more motivation and participative management to get the job done. This leadership style focuses on people, and their needs and progress (Smit & De J Cronjé, 1992:342).

Thus where the first leadership style stresses the actual job, the second concerns the development of motivated groups. In the first group, job satisfaction was and labour turnover and absenteeism low while exactly the opposite was true of task-oriented leaders. One conclusion drawn from the Michigan research which identified the two divergent leadership styles is that leadership does not have only one dimension, and that both dimensions (task-oriented leadership and employee-oriented leadership) may be necessary for successful leadership (Smith & de J Cronjé, 342-342).

Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:105) emphasize that this theory tries to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. According to House, a leader's motivational function consists of increasing personal pay-offs to subordinates for attaining work goals, making the path to these pay-offs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing pitfalls and roadblocks, and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction along the way. The leader has supplemental motivational functions. He should provide subordinates with



essential coaching, guidance, and performance incentives that are not provided by the organization or the work group.

Over and above its effects on subordinate motivation, a leader's behaviour will also effect subordinate job satisfaction. The theory holds that, leader behaviour will be viewed as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behaviour as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental future satisfaction. It is important to note that the effect of the actions of a leader on subordinate satisfaction is not necessarily the same as their effect on subordinate motivation. This depends on the situation. A given pattern of leader behaviour may increase satisfaction but lower motivation, and vice versa, while in other situations the same behaviour may increase satisfaction as well as motivation, or it may increase one without having an affect on the other (Yukl, 1981:145).

House's path-goal theory includes four categories of leader behaviour. Supportive leadership considers to the needs of subordinates, displays concern for their well-being and creates a friendly work climate. Directive leadership lets subordinates know what they are expected to do, give specific guidance, asks subordinates to follow rules and procedures, and schedules and co-ordinates the work. Participative leadership consults with subordinates and takes into account their suggestions and opinions when making decisions. Achievement oriented leadership sets challenging goals, seeks performance improvements, emphasises excellence in performance and shows confidence that subordinates will attain high standards (Fox, Schwella & Wissink, 1991:106).

Wright (1996:36-7) argues that as the early researchers ran out of steam in their search for traits, they turned to what leaders did and how they behaved (especially towards followers). They moved from leaders to leadership and this became the dominant way of approaching leadership within organizations in the 1950s and early 1960s. Different patterns of behaviour were grouped together and labelled as styles. This became a very popular activity within management training and perhaps the best known being Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid. Various schemes appeared, designed to diagnose and develop people's style of working. Despite different names, the basic ideas were very similar. The four main styles that appear are:

- (i) Here leaders emphasize the achievement of concrete objectives. They look for high levels of productivity, and ways to organize people and activities in order to meet those objectives.
- (ii) In this style, leaders look upon their followers as people – their needs, interests, problems development and so on. They are not simply units of production or means to an end.
- (iii) This style is characterized by leaders taking decisions for others and expecting followers or subordinates to follow instructions.
- (iv) Here leaders try to share decision-making with others.

According to Horner (1997:274), this theory deals with an analysis of the people who are led by leaders. The importance of the followers in leadership, and leadership was seen as an interaction between the goals of the followers and of the leader. The path-goal theory suggests that leaders are primarily responsible for helping followers develop behaviour patterns that will enable them to reach their goals or desired outcomes. Variables that impact on the most effective leader behaviour include the nature of the task, the autonomy levels of the followers, and follower motivation. The Vroom-yellow theory describes what leaders should do given certain circumstances with regard to the level of involvement of followers in making decisions. Following a decision tree that asks about the need for participation, a conclusion can be drawn about how the leader should go about making the decision to be most effective.

Armandi, Oppedisano and Sherman (2003:1077-8) maintain that the intention of the behavioural theorists was to identify determinants of leadership so that people could be trained to be leaders. Studies conducted at the Ohio State University, and the University of Michigan identified two behavioural dimensions that point to two general types of leader behaviour. The first consideration, or employee orientation suggests emphasis on employee's feelings and interpersonal relationships. The second initiating structure or production orientation suggests a focus on tasks to achieve goals. Research findings on which dimension is most important for satisfaction and productivity have been inconclusive. However, employee-oriented leaders appeared to be associated with high group productivity and job satisfaction. Another approach to leader behaviour focused on identifying the best leadership styles. Work at the University of

Iowa identified democratic, autocratic and laissez-future styles. Research findings at Iowa were also inconclusive. Five styles were identified: impoverished leader, task management, middle of the road, country club management and team management.

According to Hoy & Miskel, (1987:292-3) this theory explains how leaders influence their subordinates' perceptions of work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment. Accordingly, leaders are effective when they enhance the acceptance, satisfaction and motivation levels of their subordinates. Unlike Fiedler's theory, this theory focuses on leader behaviour, not the motivational basis of action. In particular, the theory includes four basic types of leader behaviour: behaviour that clarifies expectations, gives specific directions, asks subordinates to follow rules and procedures; behaviour that sets challenging goals, seeks performance improvements, emphasizes excellence, and shows confidence that subordinates will attain high standards; behaviour that is considerate, displays concern for the well-being of subordinates, and creates a friendly climate in the work group; that calls for consultation with subordinates and use of heir ideas before decisions are made.

In the light of the above discussion, styles of leadership discussed in the behavioural theories seem to be every effective and efficient when they are all employed simultaneously in a particular situation. A leader in a particular situation should be directive, achievement-oriented, supportive, task and employee-oriented, engage in participatory management – orientated for his/her organization to succeed in the execution of its task. By so doing the organization will be able to achieve its objectives and goals. In the context of this thesis, political and administrative leadership in local government in the Vhembe District Municipality should be directive achievement oriented, supportive, task and employee-orientated, participatory management orientated for the Municipality to achieve its objectives and goals, the principal of which is service delivery.

3.5 Theories of governance within international context

3.5.1 Agency governance theories

According to Bhasa (2004:5), a new era in governance has been ushered in across the world, in all sectors and industries, in the past decade, spearheaded by Britain's Cadbury Report, which defines governance as the system by which organizations are directed and controlled, and calls on boards of directors to take responsibility for the governance of their forms; the Canada's Dey Report, *Where were the Directors?* calling on boards to explicitly assume responsibility for governance including leadership, stewardship, risk management and information; the U.S Sarbanes-Oxley Act, which requires boards and three core committees (Audit, Governance, Compensation) to take direct responsibility for critical elements of oversight and control. This new era is actually a return to the way corporations (organizations) were originally governed, and according to Agency theory, ought to be governed. Agency theory was articulated in the 1700s by Adam Smith. Essentially what he said is that the members of every social organization (from hunter gatherer tribes to corporations to nations) rapidly specialize into different groups, depending on their competencies and expertise: principals (owners) are people with a knack for accumulating capital (wealth, resources), and agents (management) are people with a surplus of ideas to effectively use that capital (and get things done, i.e. create more value).

Economics is all about how we allocate these scarce resources (from the principals) to their most effective uses (by the agents). The Agency problem is that agents often have ideas to use capital that lies outside the intent (purpose) of the principals. This can apply to a single (financial) or triple (economic, social, environmental) bottom line: principals have a purpose in mind for their resources and agents aim to accomplish those (Bhasa, 2004:6).

Rayman-Bacchus (2003:180) asserts that governance exists to address this Agency problem. Governors act as intermediaries (boards in corporations), as the principals: representative (steward, trustee, fiduciary) with the agents, ensuring capital is directed to the right purpose. The governors also act as the voice of the agents to the principals, articulating their ideas for

uses of capital and making an accounting of the use of capital back to the principals. The governors (intermediary entity or board) therefore have these four core responsibilities, which comprise governance: (1) to set the strategic direction of the organization (purpose, mission) and (2) to put in place the leadership (CEO selection, board renewal) to accomplish that direction; (3) to shepherd resources belonging to others (trustee, fiduciary), that is, risk management, allocation of duties/roles/responsibilities, delineation of authority; (4) to receive and review measures of performance, and hold management (CEO) accountable for success (achieving the purpose, creating value) and account to the principals (owners, investors, stakeholders) on the results of using their capital (resources labour, etc.). According to Thomsen (2004:29), the principals and agents have specific core responsibilities as well; good governance is not about an adversarial or confrontational relationship among the three players, but each identifying and fulfilling their own unique competencies. Principals have three core responsibilities in agency governance: to select and put in place (elect, appoint) the governors (board of directors, trustees); to select and put in place (elect, appoint) the auditors (external, independent body that tests and reports on the integrity of financial reporting and controls); and to ensure there is an effective governance system in place.

In view of the discussion about agency governance theories it is important for both politicians and administrators in the Vhembe District Municipality to know and understand their competencies in local government administration. This will enable them (politicians and administrators) to carry out their obligations in accordance with the rules and regulations that regulate them in the performance of their duties. In this way, it will speed up the service delivery by the local government to the communities. This will ultimately minimize the interference of mayors or councillors in the administrative work, because everybody will be in the know as to what to do and what not to do.

3.5.2 Competing governance/management theories

According to Thomsen (2004:30), for a time in the 20th century, governance levers swung away from governing bodies (including boards) towards either management (often in the private sector) or owners (often in the public sector). In both cases, this results in a breakdown in

accountability, as the correct separation of powers (division of duties) fails to occur. The private sector, particularly in industrialized countries, was dominated by a swing to Management Theory (1920s through 1990s). Management theory says that agency theory was perhaps workable for the simpler, smaller corporations of Adam Smith's day, but in today's world, corporations are complex, large, multi-faceted entities that are extremely challenging to direct and control. Only a sophisticated, experienced, professional management team can effectively direct and control a modern complex corporation. It should be admitted that direction and control have been ceded by owners and boards (principals and governors) to these managers.

Management theory is what the new era in governance calls into question. Cadbury, Dey and Farbanes-Oxley do not deny that modern corporations are complex, but their main point is that management cannot be given all the levers over both governance (direction and control) and management (everything else) – to do so would create a circularity or tautology in accountability. In fact, Adam Smith's reasoning is that the more complex social organizations get, the more people need to specialize, to divide their labours. Boards (governors) are not given responsibility for governance because they understand the corporation any better than managers, but precisely because they are not the managers. Many today argue that one of the reasons Japan has failed to recover from its economic troubles of the early 1990s is because of its continued adherence to management theory (Thomsen, 2004:32).

In terms of the discussion about management theories, the politicians and administrators should have specialized knowledge and skills to run the local government administration effectively and efficiently. Without these specialized skills that should be acquired by the politicians and administrators, the municipalities in South Africa will become ineffective and stagnant. This will result in demonstrations by the communities registering their dissatisfaction with the poor service delivery rendered by the municipalities throughout the country. It could also be noted that leaders as politicians should exercise their leadership authority or mandate to cheer people up and direct them towards organizational goals, vision and mission. On the other hand managers should manage and coordinate activities in municipalities for municipalities to reach their goals of delivering service to the communities.

3.5.3 *Democratic theory*

According to Bhasa (2004:7), the public and cooperative sector have experienced a different dominating governance theory, namely democratic theory. This theory propounds that the levers of power for direction and control belong neither to the board nor to management, but to the owners of the organization. Under this theory, the board is selected based only on their ability to represent the interests of the owners. This is what is meant by a lay board – they have no specific experience or expertise in the business or in governance. They are meant to sit around the boardroom table and ask themselves: what would the owners want us to do? Clearly, there are at least two major weaknesses to democratic theory: the board lacks the authority to actually govern the organization; governance is usually divided in an ad hoc way between the owners (who may approve the strategic plan and budget, and select, compensate and evaluate the CEO directly). This is common place in the public sector and the management (who often set the strategic direction and priorities, design and use the performance measurement system) – and, in turn, accountability once again fails owing to circularity (how can the CEO hold himself accountable for failure?) and distance (how can the owners effectively hold management accountable?). This theory views accountability as counter to the law. In all British common law jurisdictions (the U.K, Canada and the U.S.A among them), the corporation is treated as a person under the law, with a birth (chartering, incorporation) and death (no corporation is expected to last forever) and a lifetime fulfilling a unique purpose. It is the board of directors that is the directing mind of this body corporate. The board is expected to act in the best interests of the corporation at all times, not in the interests of the owners.

For the municipalities in South Africa to succeed in their service delivery, they should be democratic and people-orientated municipalities. Civil societies should be brought on board in whatever the municipalities are planning to do for the communities. People should be given an opportunity to air their views on how their communities should be developed and looked after by the municipalities. In this way, municipalities should also be ready to take advice from the people or communities at large. Recognition of communities by local government administration is very important if local government is to operate effectively and achieve its goals and objectives.

3.5.4 *Stakeholder theory*

Stakeholder theory holds that every corporation or organization was created to serve more than just its shareholders. They should instead serve a diverse range of people who have a legitimate stake in the organization's outcomes and performance, and indeed also serve a broad societal purpose. Because of this, the board is selected to be as broadly representative of these stakeholders as possible. Employees, unions, leaders, even communities and minority shareholders are given seats on the board in addition to the major shareholders. Stakeholder theory is best known in continental Europe where it has roots in Germany, France, the Nordie and Low countries. Some business writers argue that continental European economic performance tends to lag behind British common law economic performance because its stakeholder boards are slow to act and react to a rapidly changing competitive global environment (Thomsen, 2004:34).

According to Bhasa (2004:8), stakeholder theory has both advantages and disadvantages, namely: It is inclusive, diverse legitimate points of view and expectations have a direct voice around the boardroom table and influence the strategic direction and priorities of the corporation. Corporations and management are more sensitive and responsive to broader social and environmental interests. The decision-making process is very slow. Inclusion of diverse voices necessarily means longer board meetings. Further, discussions are more often revisited, even when a strategic direction is approved, there is little board discipline in unifying behind it. Board members tend to act in their constituent's best interests, at times at the cost of the corporation's best interests. And so much time is taken up in direction that the board rarely pays sufficient attention to the other half of governance and control. Management and second tier boards often take on this responsibility in stakeholder governance.

Rayman-Bacchus (2003:190) argues that the different theories of governance can be arranged on a spectrum representing the degree of engagement of the governing body (e.g. board) with the organization's agents (management/staff).

Table 3. 1.

Management theory	Passive, rubber stamp, advisory board
	↓
Agency theory	Board actively engaged in direction and control
	↓
Democratic theory	Board acts in owners' interests not organization's board often active in management; owners and management have large roles in government.
	↓
Stakeholder theory	Board often more active in management than oversight and control, micro-managing

Source: Rayman-Bachus (2003:190).

There are constant tensions between flexibility and consistency, between control and diversity, between public/social policy and commercial/financial objectives, between mandated standards and risk-taking innovation. The right choice of entity and governance model will depend on where and how the principals seek to balance these competing dynamics.

In view of the above, Agency theory is meant to apply, not just to private sector firms of the 1700s, but to any social organization (including but not limited to corporations), cooperatives, hybrid and mixed governance models and their ethics can all benefit from the basic principles and lines of authority and accountability expressed in Agency theory.

3. 6 Leadership theories within South African context

Cotter, (2000:9) believes that in the context of South African public service ethics, leadership is important for at least three reasons. First, leaders set an example for others. A leader's strong commitment to ethical principles sets the tone for an organization. This leadership – by example – is important in every aspect of public service, from the most senior political leader to the supervisor of the smallest branch in government. Leading by example is a true test of character.

Secondly leaders can cause an ethical regime to be established to ensure that the public service, or at least that part of the service over which they have responsibility, will conduct itself in accordance with the highest ethical standards. In this respect, leadership has a significant influence on the second element – the ethics regime-within the public service. Thirdly, leaders will be an essential part of the accountability component of any ethics system. Leaders will in many cases be expected to exercise responsibility to ensure that the values of an ethics system are honoured and maintained. In some cases, this will mean that a sanctioning authority will need to be established. In other cases, it may require leaders to approach superiors and insist that they exercise their authority to address ethical shortcomings at senior levels within the organization.

Kemp (2000:28) argues that the biggest challenge facing anyone in a leadership position at any level, be it in government or the private sector, is to achieve the most with the limited resources available. The availability of resources plays a major role in the leadership style that leaders adopt. Generally speaking, the more resources at a leader's disposal, the more power the individual has; he or she can buy his or her way out of trouble and it often results in leaders being arrogant and not particularly caring. Those with more limited resources are often better people managers.

According to Hanekom (1981:6), the realization of community objectives depends on people working together as a team, irrespective of whether they work together voluntarily or not. Usually one member of the community serves as the individual who motivates the other individuals to act toward objective achievement. This person (called the leader) is called upon to direct the activities of the members of the community. Some theorists believe that leadership potential is determined by personal traits. Others believe that leadership depends on the position held by a person, while yet others are of the opinion that a specific situation (contingency) will determine which individual will act as a leader. Leadership may also involve carrying out specific clusters of functions aimed at inducing people to work to their ultimate mental and physical capacities. Leadership does not and should not emerge instinctively.

Hanekom (1981:6) goes on to argue that leaders should have certain personality traits and should be competent in their specific spheres of activity. It is possible to determine two poles in exercising leadership, the autocratic or leader-centred pole on the one hand, and the democratic or personnel-centred on the other. This implies that no two leaders will behave in exactly the same way, because aspects such as the personality of the leader, the personalities of subordinates, type of work, authority of the leader, norms and values, size of the organization, safety risks, the time factor, and other aspects may influence the selection or utilization of a particular style of leadership.

Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:91) argue that in the public sector political office bearers have to be advised by and the instructions of the legislature should be executed by competent persons with the potential to lead. This implies that people have to be formally prepared to lead others. As far as the preparation of leaders is concerned, there are two schools of thought. One school contends that all that can be done is to create conditions under which leadership potential may develop, and the other that formal training may contribute towards the development of leadership potential. In the latter case it should be remembered that formal training can only develop executing leadership potential and cannot install potential.

Smith and De J Cronjé (1992:333) state that leadership also entails activities, such as transmitting information to subordinates, formulating the enterprise's mission, objectives and plans and explaining these to subordinates, supervising the work of subordinates, taking steps to improve the performance of subordinates, disciplining subordinates and dealing with conflict.

According to Human (1998:75), the characteristics of the true revocrat are varied and may often seem contradictory. This stems from the high levels of complexity which these managers have to deal with. A linear, task-by-task approach to management works well during periods of equilibrium, but during punctuations, managers have to cope with both the present and the future at once: they need to simultaneously maintain and restructure current delivery levels, while juggling the demands from below and the directives from above with global realistic, local conditions, social dynamics, and technical complexities. The ability to manage many things simultaneously is known as cognitive complexity.

One may be forced to conclude that leadership is influencing and directing the behaviour of individuals and groups in such a way that they work willingly to pursue the objectives and goals of the organization. In the context of this research study, the more appropriate leadership for the developmental local government should be the following: visionary and charismatic leader, strategic leadership, builder of its capacity to make policy judgements, respected leader, accountable and transparent leader, development-orientated, builder of partnerships and coalition, a leader of action, able to represent a diversity of interests, a leader with a sound relationship with private sector, demonstrator of value for money, an outdoor person and good communicator.

3.6.1 Visionary and charismatic leadership

According to the Student's Dictionary & Grammar (1995:337), a visionary leader is a leader who has a vision about how things might be different in the future. While Hester and Rudolph (1994:34) define leader charisma as characteristic, inspiring, involved and dynamic, may be similar to extroversion (the tendency to be assertive, active and talkative). Indeed, extroversion may be a necessary element of the charismatic. Compelling evidence suggests that extroverts rank exciting personality in an ideal romantic partner higher than do introverts. Accordingly, extroverts may be more inclined to endorse charismatic leadership traits.

The White paper on local government (1998:81) states that local communities are often diverse and contain a municipality of diverging interests. By putting forward a vision for the local area, building coalitions of common interest and encouraging the development of a vibrant civil society, local political leadership can enhance the capacity of diverse groups of people to act together around shared goals.

In the light of the above discussion, it is important for South African leaders to establish a vision, to align the culture in local government and design a set of management practices based on that culture. Creating a vision means linking everyday events to a large set of values. It also means making employees feel as if they have a sense of purpose at work and that what they do is meaningful. In addition, a visionary and charismatic leader must be able to create a common

culture in the organization. It is also a known fact that all organisations have a culture or a set of traditions, beliefs, values, norms and patterns of behaviour that make them unique. The leader's role is to ensure that this culture includes a set of core values, such as open and trusting relationships, a commitment to people and teamwork, and a commitment to change and innovation. A visionary and charismatic leader must also be able to manage change. It is also believed that this type of leader will be able to solve the problem of poor service delivery facing local government in South Africa, because his/her leadership qualities will inspire every employee in local government work very hard for the success of municipalities.

3.6.2 *Strategic leadership*

To develop and sustain strategic leadership requires mentoring for strategic thinking, development and maintenance of core competencies, emphasis on building human capital, sustaining an effective corporate culture, establishing strategic control, and rewarding strategic actions. Strategic leadership entails the ability to integrate the short and long term objectives of the organization. In fact, the exercise of strategic leadership may require as long as ten to twenty year vision, while five years is arguably more common (Harbad, 1993:24-31).

In view of the above, political and administrative leaders of different departments and their subordinates at local level should arrange a general meeting wherein all stakeholders can identify the local government's internal strengths and weakness, determining the local government's external opportunities and threats in the new dispensation. They should also plan the local government's activities, based on national policies, together with national government. This practice will encourage all stakeholders to support the realization of the local government's programme, to enhance communication, coordination and participation in the process of strategy formulation and implementation. It is hoped and believed that this kind of action will, in time bring about solutions to the problem of poor service delivery facing local government in South Africa.

3.6.3 Respected (integrity) leadership domestically and internationally

According to the *Student's Dictionary & Grammar* (1995:157), integrity is the quality of being honest and firm in one's moral principles. A leader with integrity will be respected when fighting corruption in local government and can, therefore, successfully work towards attaining clean governance. In relation to the above discussion, suitable political and administrative leaders for local government in South Africa would always be those committed and dedicated to their work. These leaders should also lead exemplary lives free of all forms of corruption. They should, in addition always be ready to fight corruption in local government irrespective of whether the corruption has been committed by loyal members of the ruling party or not.

It is believed and hoped that this exercise may induce local government officials and political leaders to refrain from corruption practices themselves. Lack of corruption on the containment of corruption should attract investors from abroad. This in turn, will promote and enhance economic activities which will result in mass employment and service delivery.

3.6.4 Development-oriented leadership

According to Coetzee (1986:36), development-oriented leaders are leaders who are interested in the process of directing change that brings economic growth and political development resulting in autonomous and reconstruction. Leaders, who attempt to improve the general quality of life, meet the basic needs of the majority of the population. While Kotzé (1983:17) argues that development-oriented leaders are leaders who have a vision of integrated change within societal institutions (political, social, economic and cultural) according to collective evaluative preferences which may be executed in an evolutionary or a revolutionary manner through conscious human action.

In consideration of the above, mass participation in decision-making and in the implementation of decisions is required to contribute to development efforts and meaningful progress. Mass participation implies the genuine involvement of the people not as passive spectators of what is happening in their own environment but as active agents for change. It is a process whereby

people are mobilized to become involved in development activities in their municipalities. In addition to this, it may also be fair for political leaders (council) to establish a department solely responsible for the development of the municipalities, particularly among the disadvantaged communities. Such a department may serve as a nodal point between other municipal departments and the communities to be developed. The existence of this kind of department may promote effectiveness and efficiency in the reconstruction and development programme in the municipalities.

3.6.5 Builders of its capacity to make policy judgements

According to White Paper on Local Government, 1998 (1998:81), governing is about making choices, from prioritisation of a range of demands to the allocation of limited resources. Local political leaders can actively strengthen their ability to make policy judgments through deepening their understanding of the dynamics in the local area, anticipating changes and learning from past practices.

3.6.6 Builders of partnerships and coalitions

The challenge of meeting the needs and aspirations of local communities requires political leaders able to build partnerships with communities, business, labour and other public agencies. Political leaders who engage in ongoing dialogue with a wide range of local actors will be able to identify and act on opportunities to build partnerships between sectors. In this way, human and financial resources and capacity can be mobilized to achieve developmental goals (White paper on Local Government, 1998:82).

3.6.7 Leaders of action

There is an English saying which asserts that 'Actions speak louder than words'. In the light of this saying, the researcher is in a position to indicate that our local government needs leaders who stand by their words. Their words should be followed by an action. Local government in South Africa does not only need eloquent speakers, but also leaders of action. Leaders who are

committed and dedicated to their work and who are ready to serve their communities in their municipalities are in dire need in local government in South Africa.

3.6.8 *Leaders who represent a diversity of interests*

Municipal Councils which represent the diversity of interests within the local community are best able to provide credible and effective leadership. Municipalities should take active steps to ensure that representation from groups which tend to be marginalized (such as women, people with disabilities and the poor) is encouraged and these groups should stand for elections. One way to achieve this is through the running of support programmes, which provide information to prospective candidates on issues, such as electoral systems and processes, and the functions and operations of local government. Also necessary is the building of skills in areas, such as public speaking, organizing public meetings, fundraising and so forth (White Paper on Local Government, 1998:82).

3.6.9 *Leaders with relationships with the private sector*

Municipalities in South Africa need leaders who will be able to construct good relationships between public and private sectors. According to *A Manual for South Africa's National and Provincial Government Departments*, 2001 (2001:3) a public/private partnership is a contractual arrangement whereby a private party performs part of a department's service delivery or administrative functions and assumes the associated risks. In return, the party receives a fee according to predefined performance criteria, which may be entirely different from service tariffs or user charges, within a departmental or other budget.

The first black president of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, was a leader who cultivated friendships with the private sector. His friendship with the private sector was evident when, for example, the Anglo American Corporation was seriously engaged in building houses for the poor in the Free State Province. In the Limpopo Province, Gencor had also built six schools and clinics. These projects were officially opened by the President himself on 10 September 1996.

3.6.10 Leaders who demonstrate value for money

According to White Paper on Local Government, 1998 (1998a:82) local political leadership is responsible for ensuring that local taxes are utilized to the maximum benefit of the local community. Local political leadership should, therefore, be concerned with the efficiency and effectiveness of the local administration, and constantly seek to enhance performance and service quality. In consideration of the views under leaders who demonstrate value for money, leaders in the municipalities of South Africa should deem service delivery rather than their salaries to the communities as their core priority. Most municipalities in South Africa are failing to achieve their main responsibility (service delivery) because most of the monies are spent on the salaries of officials.

3.6.11 An outdoor person and a good communicator

An outdoor person is considered to be a leader who does not confine himself or herself in his or her office but who goes outside and meets the people in their own environment. In addition, he or she should be a person who is able to communicate effectively and successfully or convincingly.

Domestically, such a leader should be able to visit people in their environment and in person in order to find out what the particular problems are in their communities. Visiting the dwelling and work places of his or her people will enable a leader to determine how to address problems encountered by the people. At the same time the leader will have time to communicate policies of the local government or municipalities face-to-face with the people. This will enable people to understand the policies of the local government better than when the policies are communicated to them in a written form.

Internationally, the leader should be able to visit different countries abroad in order to construct relationships with other countries. Once the relationship is established with other countries, the local government concerned may be able to survive socially and economically. But this does not encourage a local government to be entirely dependent on other countries. It should be able

to generate its own funds. The leader should also be able to communicate convincingly with countries defending policies of his or her country. For example, Mr Pik Botha as a Minister of Foreign Affairs used to defend policies of apartheid effectively and convincingly during the time of apartheid; likewise Ms Dlamini-Zuma, the current Minister of Foreign Affairs defends South Africa's policies on HIV Aids and crime, for instance.

3.7 Theories of governance within South African context

According to Draper (2000:29), a review of the spheres of convergence reveals some common threads. These elements are central features of the movement for good governance, as well as core elements of the new public management. There is a clear concern with focusing on people issues and ensuring they are the focal point for development. At the national level this is manifested in concerns about poverty eradication, and other social issues. At the public service organizational level this is also manifested in concerns for citizen engagement and citizen satisfaction. Within the organization, it is manifested in increased concerns with quality of work life issues. This is manifested in the acceptance of the need for more comprehensive development frameworks, as well as more comprehensive reform agendas. There is the move away from some of the more piece-meal approaches which characterised earlier reform agendas. All the spheres of convergence point to the absolute essential of stakeholder participation and involvement. These points to the importance of mindsets which value diversity, and the need for institutional frameworks that facilitate full involvement and participation. The concept of the learning organization. Very explicitly focuses on the importance of shared visions. The effective transformation of public services, and indeed societies also demand clarity and sharing of visions.

An element of the reform agenda for all sectors is the importance of accountability. This focuses on the need for capacity building within institutions on accountability, as well as enforceability codes that enshrine the principle of accountability. One tenet of reform work across all sectors is the importance of openness. This element also underscores the importance of known systems and procedures for decision-making as well as the need for public access to information. All the spheres of convergence outlined point to an increased focus on outputs and outcomes, and move

away from traditional concerns with inputs: The increasing complexities of our time and the face of change demand a commitment to continuous learning. The learning organization model argues that it is the only way to ensure on-going organization success and effectiveness. A central feature of the dialogue about good governance and the new public management is the need for clear ethical principles. The earlier discussion on corporate citizenship also pointed to the growing importance of corporate governance. More than this, the importance being placed on the need fight corruption has also served to highlight the importance of ethics and values. In this century, organizations in all sectors will be challenged to work in partnerships. New network organization forms will become the norm. These spheres of convergence also speak to the importance of effective leadership. It is leadership that recognizes the concept of stewardship (Draper, 2000:30).

Duvenhage (2002:56) argues that governance implies orientating people in terms of task and destination; the arrangement of power for controlling and directing people; the way power is distributed within the system (centralized; decentralized); development of policies; the mission and vision of the institution or the purpose and direction of the institution. Governance is a means to maintain social stability and well-being through deepening democracy, structuring social relationships and conflicts and ensuring responsive delivery. Governance is not about the impartial mediation of various interests in society; rather it is promoting a set of values in the context of diverse interest and concerns.

Unlike government, governance means governing with people, rather than by people. In addition to the traditional methods, governance seeks to build partnerships with civil society, organized labour, NGOs, business and other groups outside of the government. It seeks the active participation of community. It sees its role as being to facilitate, to enable and to promote, rather than simply to rule. In this way, it is a truly democratic process of governance (Molomo & Somolekae, 1998:100).

According to Kotze (1998:15), the effectiveness of the government and the participation of inhabitants in it are what constitute good governance. Johnson (1991:396) describes good governance as follows: efficiency and rationality in allocating resources, in other words sensible

priorities; curbing corruption which is strangling development and inhibiting investment; enhancing legitimate freedoms of association, of speech, of press, of above all the individual; the rule of law, and so an unfiltered judicial system; guarantee of civil and human rights; transparency-making information and statistics readily available and accountability to people.

Thakhathi (1995:3) argues that in order to ensure that the people are getting the necessary and effective services, the governance structures should be guided by the following principles: political and management commitment by all government leaders, clear understanding of the constitution of the country and its implementation process, a effective legal framework which defines standards of behaviour for prosecution, efficient accountability mechanisms, workable code of conduct, professional socialisation mechanisms by which public servants learn and in which they calculate ethics, standards of conduct and public service values, supportive public service conditions of service, respect for the rule of law, effective maintenance of law and order, advancement of welfare for the people and the development of clear policies.

Thakhathi (1995:14) identified the following principles which could assist managers to implement their policies effectively and enhance effective governance: deduction the concept of effective and democratic government composed of responsible, elected office-bearers and the belief that professional general management is essential to the achievement of the service objective; affirmation of the dignity and worth of the services rendered by government and maintenance of constructive, creative and practical attitude towards effective delivery of services and a deep sense of social responsibility as trusted civil servants; recognition of the fact that the chief function of government at all times is to serve the best interest of all the people of South Africa; demonstration of the highest standards of personal integrity, trustfulness, honesty and fortitude in all public activities in order to inspire public confidence and trust in public institutions and serve the public with respect, concern, courtesy and responsiveness, recognising that service to the public is beyond service to oneself.

In an effort to promote the principle of administrative law in all public activities, Thakhathi (1995:5) argues that the following norms should be observed: public administration must occur legally. This means that all the actions of any public official must take place strictly within the

framework of the existing legislation; public officials must be able to account to the public in relation to their actions; public officials must treat all members of the public equally and impartially; and public administration must occur in an official manner. This entails greatest measure of goal attainment within available resources. Public administration must be sensitive to and responsive to the needs of the public and public officials must act responsibly.

According to Starling (1993:10-18), the managers in the public service now realize that there is a cluster of key roles and functions which they need to perform in order to maintain their departments and to improve their performance, adapting themselves to the vicissitudes of a turbulent, complex environment and the inherently more difficult task of governing and maintaining their institutions. It is important for managers to understand their roles, tasks, functions and responsibilities very clearly so as to enable them to position themselves strategically for the many challenges that they face. The following actions could assist managers to cope with these challenges: cultivate their capacity for strategic thinking; develop strategic perspectives about their departmental and where it is going, and share those perspectives with all the workers within their department; focus on a few vital issues at a time and devise strategic initiatives to resolve them; create an internal capacity to carry out the initiatives; and structure opportunities for broad participation in developing them, seeking external support for their implementation. They should also set up ways to exert strategic control over how the department performs on the new initiatives and measure what goes on inside the department and listen for the impact on customers and stakeholders as strategic initiatives are implemented and let those signals guide learning.

Bernsten (1995:10) argues that there are ten ways of governing better, namely, catalytic government: steering rather than rowing; community-owned government empowering rather serving; competitive government injecting competition into service delivery; mission-driven government: transforming rule driven organisation; results-oriented government : funding outcomes, not inputs; customer-driven government: meeting the needs of the customer not the bureaucracy; enterprising government: prevention rather than cure, decentralized government from hierarchy to participation; and market –oriented government; leverage change through the mark place.

According to Khosa (2000:239), the concept governance in western literature used to refer largely to the domain of the state. However, since the rise of neo-liberal universalism governance as a concept has come to proliferate in development discourse and increasingly also includes the domain of the non-state. The World Bank, for example, has come to support good governance programmes. These are programmes designed not only to curtail the power of the estate and make it more efficient, but also to shift the balance of power in society away from government and the public sector to private individuals and groups.

Habermas (1993:33) and Offe (1985:26) identified distinctive mechanisms of governance by which institutions operate-rational communication, influence, prestige, authority and money. Each has quite different implication for representation democracy and accountability, yet they are interrelated. Anchoring institutions such as property rights and bureaucratic rules create money and authority. These two institutions are interdependent but stand at some remove from influence and prestige which as mechanisms of governance, are tooted in networks of limited rather than rational communication. The institution that utilise these mechanisms and the mechanisms themselves are continuously contested and negotiated.

Thus, according to De Antentara (1998:30), in future, if the discourse on governance is to open new opportunities for resolving the current crisis of livelihood and governability, the following should be attended to: encouraging the creativity and originality of people in actual social settings to be shifted to align with others. Broadening dialogue on the needs for change in specific programmes; strengthening the public sphere and rewarding contributions to the common good, thereby developing the discourse on citizenship; recognizing the necessary interrelation between institutional reform and macroeconomic policy and moving away from artificial separation of national governance and international issues.

In conclusion, under theories of governance within a South African context, one is bound to conclude that for the Vhembe District Municipality and its four local municipalities to succeed in the delivery of services to the communities, communities should be actively involved in the activities of their municipalities. The governed people in the municipalities are the ones who know exactly what they need in their communities. Hence they need to be involved in the

planning of each and every activity that will affect their daily lives. In this way, the demonstrations that are riddling municipalities in South Africa may be averted.

3.8 Politicians / Politics

Thornhill (1995:13), rightly asserts that politicians and political activity are concerned with a broader range of tasks than participation in the running of governmental institutions. Of these, the task of marshalling points of view and securing public support for them is probably the most important. In pursuing these activities, politicians will gain information and develop ideas which they will wish to apply in their work in governmental institutions. It is from this wider experience that politicians get the impetus which presses them towards an involvement wherever possible with executive affairs. The work is not a self-justifying activity and is only a limited element in the functioning of government and public bodies generally.

The role of politicians is to maintain equilibrium in the overall system by monitoring and adjusting the relationships amongst the professional administrators and interest groups (Fry, 1989:79). Sharkansky (1982:13) asserts that for politicians, it is essential to appreciate the roles administrators play in shaping public promises, but, once elected, they cannot deliver them alone. Not only must other politicians be considered in a democratic government with several centres of power, but also, even if all politicians acted in concert, they would still have to take administrators into account. While the law and constitutional tradition assign greater power to elected officials, reality often favours administrators.

Ridley and Blondel (1969:15) argue that it has become difficult to draw a clear distinction between administrative and political posts since the return to power of General de Gaulle in 1958. It was sometimes hard to know where the civil service began and where the government ended. This could be seen by the establishment of senior civil service posts where junior ministers might previously have been appointed. The distinction had in any case become somewhat academic because civil servants were then often appointed to what were really practical posts, previously held by parliamentarians only that it was true that French law never made it compulsory for ministers to be members of parliament.

According to Fry (1989:81), politics means seeking selfish advantage or advancement through the control of rules. In its true sense, politics mean actions by which rules control. The problem is that there is no objective way of distinguishing between vulgar and true politics, since the distinction lies in the motivation of the actor rather than in the action itself. The Oxford Dictionary (1996:190) defines politics as ‘an art and science of government, public life and affairs, political principles or practice and activities concerned with seeking power or status’.

Thornhill (1985:19) asserts that politicians are concerned with the acquisition and intention of office and the exercise of the power that goes with it, as with the search for the most acceptable course of action in any given situation. Despite politicians, projections of themselves in electoral campaigns as the fronts of the people, one cannot but think that the desire to wield power is the most important driving force of all but a minority of party politicians. Even those who do not enjoy high office nevertheless share the sense of power from their association with those who do.

In view of the discussions under politicians, both politicians and administrators should work within their own parameters. Politicians (Mayors and Councillors) in the Vhembe District Municipality should know their role in local government administration and when to interfere in administrative activities so that the professional administrators are in a position to carry out their day-to-day activities efficiently and effectively. It is also clear that politicians have nothing to do with the professional administrator of the public sector but it is mainly concerned with the acquisition and retention of office and the exercise of power that goes with it. It may also be gathered that politicians are there in the local government administration to guide the professional administrators by formulating public policy which has to be implemented by the professional administrators.

3.9. Governmental institution and functionaries of local authorities

3.9.1 Status of municipalities

In terms of Section 151 of the Constitution Act, 108 of 1996, subsection (1-4) stipulates that the local sphere of government consists of municipalities, which must be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic. The executive and legislative authority of a municipality is vested in its municipal council. A municipality has the right to govern, on its own initiative, the local government affairs of its community subject to national and provincial legislation as provided for in the Constitution. The national or a provincial government may not compromise or impede a municipality's ability and right to exercise its powers or to perform its functions.

3.9.2 Powers and functions of municipalities

In terms of Section 156 of the Constitution Act, 1998 108 of 1996, subsections (1-5) spells out powers and functions of municipalities and declares that a municipality has executive authority in respect of, and has the right to administer local government matters listed in Part B of Schedule 4 and B of schedule 5; and any other matter assigned or delegated to it by national or provincial legislation. A municipality may make and administer by-laws for the effective administration of the matters which it has the right to administer. Subject to Section 151 (4), a by-law that conflicts with national or provincial legislation is invalid. If there is a conflict between a by-law and national or provincial legislation that is inoperative because of conflict referred to in Section 149, the by-law must be regarded as valid for as long as that legislation is imperative. National and provincial governments must assign or delegate to a municipality, by agreements and subject to any conditions, the administration of a matter listed in Part A of Schedule 4 or Part A of Schedule 5 which necessarily relate to local government, if that matter would most effectively be administered locally, and the municipality has the capacity to administer it. A municipality has the right to exercise any power concerning a matter reasonably necessary for or incidental to the effective performance of its functions.

According to the Municipal Systems Act, 32 of (2000:22) a municipality's administration is governed by the democratic values and principles embodied in Section 195 (1) of the Constitution. The administration of a municipality must be responsive to the needs of the local community; facilitate a culture of public service and accountability amongst staff; take measures to prevent corruption; establish clear relationships, and facilitate cooperation and communication between it and the local community; give members of the local community full and accurate information about the level and standard of municipal services they are entitled to receive; and inform the local community how the municipality is managed and of the costs involved and the persons in charge.

In terms of Section 83 of the Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) Subsections (1-3) stipulate that a municipality has the functions and powers assigned to it in terms of Section 156 and 229 of the Constitution. The functions and powers referred to in Subsection (1) must be in the case of a district municipality and the local municipalities within the area of the district municipality, as set out in this Act, 117 of 1998. A district municipality must seek to achieve the integrated, sustainable and equitable social and economic development of its area as a whole, promoting bulk infrastructural development and services for the district as a whole, and building the capacity of local municipalities in its area to ensure appropriate levels of municipal services within the area.

In consideration of status, and their functions, one may conclude that if both political and administrative leaderships are familiar with the contents of the Constitution, the Municipal Structures Act, the Municipal Systems other such regulations, they would be able to make municipalities powerful and would be able to deliver goods and services to the communities. On this note, it would be proper and fitting for political and administrative leadership to have a thorough knowledge of local government's legislations so that they (political and administrative leaderships) are enabled to operate in local government administration as expected by the local communities.

3.10. Roles of politicians in local government administration

Molomo and Somelokae (1998:209), states that politicians play a crucial role in the promotion of good governance and democracy in that they confer the mantle of political legitimacy through the charade of the democratic process; they absorb public discontent and channel grievances into the political system. Councillors must, first and foremost, be seen as representatives of the people. They derived their mandate to rule from the people, and therefore must serve them to the best of their ability. Councillors are legislators who not only formulate directives which will become a norm of conduct for others, but at the same time create the instruments by means of which the directives themselves will be followed, and by means of which they will verify their execution. Councillors are, therefore, obliged to promote governance and democracy by conducting the affairs of municipalities in an accountable and transparent manner, free of corruption and illicit behaviour.

Councillors, as representatives of the people, have as one of their principal functions the formulation of by-laws. In democratic practice, the process of by-law making originates at the grass-roots level of the party and is channelled through its various organs until it is adopted in the form of a resolution at the national congress as party policy. In another process of policy formulation, councillors, through various organs of political parties, play a dynamic role in creating platforms and translating those platforms into policy initiatives. It is on the basis of these policies that political parties canvass for support, win elections and form the government (Molomo and Somelekae, 1998:209).

According to Roux, et al. (1999:145-6), the official policy makers are those persons who have the legal authority (power) to formulate public policy. These persons mainly include the legislators and the officials. Each has his own particular task regarding policy making. For study purposes, a distinction can be made between primary and supplementary policy makers. Primary policy makers, for example, the various ministers, have direct constitutional authority to act. The supplementary policy makers derive their authority from the primary policy makers, are partially dependent on the latter, and are also controlled by them. The legislators do not have unlimited power to make council decisions. The role of the legislator will, therefore, vary in accordance

with the problem concerned. It may also occur that the draft legislation is very technical and that the legislator does not know much about it.

In consideration of the roles of politicians in local government administration, it is evident that councillors in local government administration are there to make by-laws and council decisions. Councillors are there in local government to guide and monitor activities of the professional administrators. If councillors adhered to their roles in local government administration, municipalities would be in a better position to operate efficiently and effectively, because professional administrators would be free to execute their day-to-day activities.

3.10.1. Municipal council

According to Cloete (1993:81), an examination of the impressive lists of matters entrusted to local councils shows that no local council, in fact, performs all the functions that it, in terms of the ordinances, may undertake. The majority of municipal councils do, however, perform the following functions entrusted to them by the provincial councils and by Acts of Parliament, namely, construction of drainage works to drain streets; provision of electricity; provision for the naming of streets, provision of meters, control over the construction of buildings in the municipal area; combating contagious and infectious diseases; refuse removal; night soil removal and/or sewerage services also known as sanitary services, licensing of motor vehicles and the enforcement of traffic regulations, provision and maintenance of cemeteries, and the establishment and maintenance of parks and recreation grounds.

In terms of section 151 of the Constitution Act 108 of 1996, Subsections (1-4) stipulate that municipalities must be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic. The executive and legislation authority of a municipality is vested in its municipal council. A municipal council has the right to govern, on its own initiative, the local government affairs of its community, subject to national and provincial legislation as provided for in the Constitution. The national or provincial government may not compromise or impede a municipality's ability or right to exercise its power or perform its functions.

A municipal council functions in terms of Section 157 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996. Subsections (1-8) stipulate that a municipal council makes decisions concerning the exercise of all the powers and the performance of all the functions of the municipality. It is expected to elect its chairperson and may also elect an executive committee and other committees, subject to national legislation. It may employ personnel who are necessary for the effective performance of its function. At the same time, there are certain functions that may not be delegated by municipal councils and are as follows: the passing of by-laws, the approval of budgets, the imposition of rates and other taxes, levies, duties and the raising of loans.

A majority of the members of a municipal council must be present before a vote may be taken on any matter. All questions concerning matters mentioned in Subsection (2) are determined by a decision taken by a municipal council with a supporting vote of a majority of its members. All other questions before a municipal council are decided by majority of the votes cast. It is also clear that no by-law may be passed by a municipal council unless all the members of the council have been given reasonable notice and the proposed by-law has been published for public comment. National legislation may provide criteria for determining the size of a municipal council, and whether a municipal council may elect an executive committee or any other committee. A municipal council may make by-laws which prescribe rules and orders for its internal arrangements, its business and proceedings and the establishment, composition, procedures, powers and functions of its committees (RSA Constitution, Act 108 of 1996:65).

In terms of Section 160 of the Constitution Act 108 of 1996 Subsections (2-3) stipulate that a municipal council must conduct its business in an open manner, and may close its sittings, or those of its committees, only when it is reasonable to do so having regard to the nature of the business being transacted. Members of a municipal council must be able to participate in its proceedings and those of its committees in a manner that allows parties and interests reflected within the council to be fairly represented and consistent with democracy. Such proceedings may be reprinted, and may be regulated by national legislation.

According to Municipal Systems Act, 32 (2000:20) the council of a municipality has the right to govern on its own initiative the local government affairs of the local community, exercise the municipality's executive and legislative authority, and to do so without improper interference and finance the affair of the municipality by charging fees for services and imposing surcharges on fees, rates on property and, to the extent authorised by national legislation, other taxes, levies and duties. The council of municipality, within the municipality's financial and administrative capacity and having regard to practical considerations, has the duty to exercise the municipality's executive and legislative authority and use the resources of the municipality in the best interest of the local community; provide without favour or prejudice, democratic and accountable government encourage the involvement of the local community; strive to ensure that municipal service are provided to the local community in a financially and environmentally sustainable manner; consult the local community about the level, quality, range and impact of municipal services provided by the municipality, either directly or through another. Service provider and the available options for service delivery, give members of the local community equitable access to the municipal services to which they are entitled; promote gender equality in the exercise of the municipality; and contribute, together with other organs of state, to the progressive realization of the fundamental rights contained in sections 24,25,26,27 and 29 of the constitution. In the same breath a municipality must in the exercise of its executive and legislative authority respect the rights of citizen and those of other person protected by the bill of rights.

In noting the discussion under municipal council, it becomes clear that municipal councils have been established in order to serve the local communities. For the municipal councils to succeed in carrying out their obligations, they should use the recourses of the municipalities in the best interest of the local communities; provide without favour or prejudice, democratic and accountable governance; encourage the involvement of the local communities in the activities of the municipalities; strive to ensure that municipal services are provided to the local communities in a financially and environmentally sustainable manner and be impartial in rendering their services to the local communities.

3.10.2. *An executive mayor*

Craythorne (1992:154) states that the Marais Commission recommended that no change be made to the traditional status of the mayor, pointing out that tradition had decreased the role of ceremonial head for the mayor. The suggestion that the mayor be the coordinator for councils was rejected as being too drastic a change in the traditional role of the mayor. The Slater Commission describes the American strong mayoral system as totally foreign to South African ideas of government, and unacceptable, as this would entail the direct election of the mayor by the electorate. Cloete, (1985:34) states that it is not customary in South Africa to clothe the mayor with administrative powers; in general, the mayor is the first citizen, responsible for entertaining visitors. On the other hand, Burger, (1978:40) makes the point that a councillor functioning as a mayor operates as an individual, not as a decision making political representative. The mayor is not just a social figure, because he operates at the highest level of public relations in local government.

According to Craythorne (1992:154), there has been some discussion on whether the office of mayor should be converted from its present representative and ceremonial role, to an executive role, something that such a move needs at least to be considered in the development of local government in South Africa. Should any such chance occur, there is likely to be conflict between an executive mayor and the town clerk as chief executive officer, because in public administration there has historically been the development of two separate roles, namely, government and representation by elected representatives and executive and administration by appointed officials. Thus, elected representatives are not required to have certain educational qualifications or managerial skills and such qualifications are not required of a politician. It follows that as the daily management of the public machine grows in complexity and size, skilled administrators are needed to keep it operating, and by interfacing with the elected politicians, to work in administration. Those who lack the knowledge and managerial skills to perform these tasks will probably be ineffective and, under certain circumstances, could place the rendering of municipal services on a footing of political patronage or allow inefficiencies, something which could be a recipe for disaster.

In terms of Section 5.6 of Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998, Subsections (1-6), an executive mayor is entitled to receive reports from committees of the municipal council and to forward these reports together with a recommendation to the council when the matter cannot be disposed of by the executive mayor in terms of the executive mayor's delegated powers. The executive mayor must be able to identify the needs of the municipality; recommend to the municipal council strategies, programmes and services to address priority needs through an integrated development plan, and to prepare estimates of revenue and expenditure, taking into account any applicable national and provincial development plans; and recommend or determine the best way, including partnerships and other approaches to deliver those strategies, programmes and services to the maximum benefit of the community. The executive mayor in performing the duties of office must identify and develop criteria in terms of which progress in the implementation of the strategies, programmes, and services referred to in Subsection (2) (c) can be evaluated, including key performance indicators which are specific to the municipality and common to local government in general; he or she should evaluate progress against the key performance indicators; review the performance of the municipality in order to improve the economy, efficiency and effectiveness of the municipality; the efficiency of credit control and revenue and debt collector services and implementation of the municipality's by-laws. The executive mayor should also monitor the management of the municipality's administration in accordance with the direction of the municipal council, oversee the provision of services to communities in the municipality in a sustainable manner, perform such duties and exercise such powers as the council may delegate to the executive mayor in terms of Section 32; annually report on the involvement of communities and community organizations in the affairs of the municipality; and ensure that attention is given to public views and report on the effect of consultation on the decision of the council (Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998:46).

In carrying out his/her obligation, an executive mayor must perform a ceremonial role as the municipal council may determine. He/she must report to the municipal council or all decisions taken by the executive mayor. The deputy executive mayor of a municipality executive mayor if the executive mayor is vacant (Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998:46).

3.10.3 The executive committee

According to Municipal Structures Act, 117 (1998:40) an executive committee is the principal committee of the council of a municipality of a type that is entitled to establish an executive committee, and the committee of a municipal council which receives reports from the other committees of the council and which must forward these reports together with its recommendations to the council when it cannot dispose of the matter in terms of its delegated powers. The Executive Committee must identify the needs in order of priority; recommend to the municipal council strategies; programmes and services to address priority needs through the integrated development plan and estimates of revenue and expenditure, taking into account any applicable national and provincial development plans, and recommend or determined the best methods, including partnerships and other approaches, to deliver those strategies, programmes and services to the maximum benefit of the community.

In performing its duties, the Executive Committee must identify and develop criteria in terms of which progress in the implementation of the strategies and programmes and services referred to in subsection (2) (c) can be evaluated, including key performance indicators which are specific to the municipality and common to local government in general. The Executive Committee must evaluate progress against the key performance indicators; review the performance of the municipality in order to improve the economy, efficiency of credit control and revenue and debt collection services and the implementation of the municipality's by-laws (Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998:41).

For municipalities to be more effective and efficient in the delivery of service, the Executive Committee must monitor the management of the municipality's administration in accordance with the policy directions of the Municipal Council; oversee the provision of service to communities in the municipality in a sustainable manner, perform such duties and exercise such powers as the Council may delegate to it in terms of Section 32; annually report on the involvement of communities and community organizations in the affairs of the municipality, and ensure that regard is given to public views; and report on the effect of consultation on the decisions of the council. At the same time an Executive Committee must report to the

municipal council on all decisions taken by the committee, (Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998:42).

3.10.4 *The councillor*

According to Craythorne (2003:101), a councillor must perform the functions of the office in good faith, honestly and in a transparent manner and at all times act in the best interest of the municipality and in such a way that the credibility and integrity of the municipality are not compromised. In effect, councillors are required to behave ethically and to be objective about the best interests of the municipality as opposed to a personal or sectarian interest. Besides these duties, councillors must attend meetings of the Municipal Council and of a committee of which those councillors are members, except when leave of absence has been granted in terms of an applicable law or as determined by the rules and orders of the council, or that councillors are required in terms of this code to withdraw from the meeting.

Cloete (1993:73), points out that councillors have three groups of duties, namely, representing the electorate, committee work and deliberating in council meetings. A councillor is elected to represent the residents of a ward and of a municipality. To perform this task, the representative must ascertain the expectations and needs of the residents. To perform this task, the Councillor must also study the activities undertaken by the Council and its officials. It is unfortunately a fact that municipal affairs and therefore fail to inform their elected representatives about their real needs and to afterwards call the councillors to account for failure to perform effectively.

Generally the town or city council meets monthly. As a rule no significant matter will be placed on the agenda for a full council meeting before a committee has dealt with it. Numerous committee meetings usually take place between full council meetings. A councillor who wants to reach specific objective will therefore have to be fully informed about the activities of the committee dealing with the matter even if he/she is not a member of the committee. Therefore a councillor could possibly devote more time to committee meetings than to council meetings (Cloete, 1993:74).

The Council has the final and decisive authority in the local matters entrusted to it. The overwhelming majority of matters dealt with by a municipal council are introduced by officials and debated by one or more committees before recommendations are made to the Council. Where the Management Committee must consider all matters before submitting them to a full council meeting, according to Cloete (1993:74), it is then expected of councillors to access the recommendations of the officials and committees and, where necessary, to amend or reject the recommendations. Bearing in mind that every council meeting a councillor could be required to study voluminous documents on a number of matters, it is evident that he would be able to make a meaningful contribution on all items. However, steps should be taken to prevent the development amongst councillors of the attitude that they are powerless to change the recommendations of the officials or the committees. The City or Town Council would in such a case, merely rubber stamp official documents, brief council meetings would be held and few members of the public would be interested in meetings held mainly to meet statutory requirements.

In consideration of the discussion under the roles of politicians in local government administration, one is bound to conclude that they (the politicians) are clearly and explicitly defined in the rules and regulations that govern the operation of municipalities in South Africa. It is also clear that if the politicians can adhere to their rules enshrined and contained in the legislative framework for local government administration in South Africa, service delivery to communities can be sped up and meet the needs of community members within their municipalities. Demonstration and strikes by dissatisfied members of the community should be averted at all costs. One other important issue is that the Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, Municipal systems Act, 32 of 2000 and other sources used in this section have not empowered political figures to interfere in the activities of administrators in local government administration. They are only empowered to monitor the smooth running of the Local Government Administration and the implementation of by-laws made by them. It may also be indicated that such a tendency to interfere in the activities of administrators slows down planned service delivery.

3.11 Roles of administrators in local government administration.

According to Fry (1998:81), the administrators' role is to understand and coordinate public policy and interpret policy directives to the operating services, but with unquestioned loyalty to the deacons of elected officials. The administrator differs from the political executive in that the administrator does not make final decisions on policy; no does he or she advocate policies before the public, and does not succeed or fail on policy positions.

For prospective and present administrators, the study of public administration offers both training in the machines of how to do it and an understanding of the larger context in which they operate. The elements of agency management budgeting, personnel selection, and programme evaluation concern almost all administrators during their careers either as they are affected by the way other administrators practice them. Code of ethical conduct regulations on conflicts of interests, and rules governing political activities come to administrators from legislatures and chief executives. These rules and regulations define how administrators should deal with clients who receive their services, how to do business with firms that sell to the government, and what limits exist for the role that administrators can play in election campaigns. Administrators must also learn much about the methods available for the analysis of social problems and programme options (Sharkansky: 1982: 13).

Alderfer (1968:153) points out that a line administrator can make or order an inspection on the spot to see what needs to be done or what has been done. This inspection may be routine or used periodically whenever more knowledge is deemed essential. It can also be made without warning or by special arrangement. It may be delegated to their agencies, even private ones.

To attain this objective, all public officials must accept one of the central professional values of public administration: the ethos of objective competence. For public officials to be objective, they must be impartial in their dealings with the public and must adhere to the law and must provide equal treatment of equal cases under the law. To be competent is to apply knowledge and skills obtained through training to any problem or situation that has to be considered. The competence, to be objectively exercised, is grounded in a body of public administration

knowledge and skills. Greater competence increases rationality in problem solving (Mafunisa, 2000:90).

The Constitution of South Africa Act, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) section 195(1) stipulates that public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles entrenched in the Constitution, including the following principles: a high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained; efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted; public administration must be development –oriented; services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias; people’s needs must be responded to and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making; public administration must be accountable, transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely; accessible and accurate information, good human resource management and career-development practices; to maximize human potential must be cultivated, and public administration must be broadly representative of the South Africa people; with employment and personnel management practices based on ability objectively, fairness and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation. The above principles apply to administration in every sphere of government, organs of state and public enterprises.

According to the Municipal Systems Act, 32 of (2000:22), a municipality’s administration is governed by the democratic values and principles embodied in Section 195(1) of the Constitution. The administration of a municipality must be responsive to the needs of the local community; facilitate a culture of public services and accountability amongst staff; take measures to prevent corruption, establish clear relationships; and facilitate cooperation and communication between it and the local community. They should, in addition, provide members of the local community with full and accurate information about the level and standard of municipal services they are entitled to receive, and inform the local community how the municipality is managed, of the costs involved and the persons in charge.

Mafunisa (2000:25) argues that public officials should not only strive towards attaining predetermined public service goals, they should also ensure that, in the quest for those goals that have been set, they adhere to ethical values. Ethical values include efficiency and effectiveness.

It is the responsibility of superordinate public officials to also exemplify the ethical values to be followed by newly appointed subordinate officials, which are congruent with those of the public services. It is their duty to try to change unethical values into ethical ones. Ways of ensuring this include the strict enforcement of a code of conduct, the strengthening of political conscience, and ethical education and training in public administration.

Chapman, (1993:18) defines a formal code of conduct as a statement of principles and standards about the right conduct of public officials. It normally contains only a position of a government's rules on public service ethics and is therefore, a narrower term than ethical rules which includes statutes, regulation and guidelines while Rosenew and Rosenthal (1993:360) define a code of conduct as a set of principles adopted by associations or institutions stands. A formal code of conduct makes a specific policy selection of the basic ethics in general society and seeks to use them to determine an institution's definition of its programme of action and what kind of institution –oriented behaviour is acceptable.

According to Hanekom, Rowland and Bain (1987:163), codes of conduct have the following objectives: promoting and maintaining the responsible conduct of public officials; providing guidelines for public officials in their relationships with other public officials elected representatives and members of the public, and providing guidelines for public officials in exercising their discretionary power.

Chapman (1993:18) also remarks that a code of conduct is necessary to promote public trust and confidence in the ethical performance of public official; decrease and, if possible, eliminate unethical practices by discouraging and punishing them; legitimise the imposition of sanctions for unethical behaviour; sensitise both current and aspiring public officials to the ethical and necessary value dimensions of bureaucratic divisions; develop skills in the analysis of ethical and value issues; and assist public officials to resolve ethical and value dilemmas; and finally, to promote moral development.

Adherence to Chapman's principles would ensure that public officials and their political office bearers would benefit from the increased public trust in government that tends to result from the

careful drafting and effective administration of a code of conduct. Such a code provides a means by which political office bears can hold public officials accountable for their activities. In addition, if ethical standards are raised by the existence of a code, the possibility of the government of the day suffering political embarrassment from the ethical misconduct of its public officials is reduced. Members of the public obviously resent poor performance and misconduct by public officials. Taxpayers are assured that public officials on the public payroll are less likely to use their positions for personal gain if these are an accepted code of conduct. Therefore citizens can expect and demand that public officials serve them in an equitable and impartial manner (Kernaghan & Divivedi), 1983:10.

Considering the above discussion on the roles of administrators in local government administration, the researcher claims that administrators in local government should have relevant knowledge and skills to run municipalities effectively and successfully. For municipalities in South Africa to succeed in service delivery, officials in local government or municipalities must be development-oriented; they must provide service impartially, fairly, equitably; and the employment of officials in municipalities must be based on ability and the capability of the candidate. The code of conduct contributes to developing ethics and accountability in municipal officials. The reason for this is that municipal officials will endeavour to perform their duties effectively and efficiently so as not to violate the provisions of the code of conduct and so as to avoid censure.

3.11.1 *Municipal manager / town clerk*

In term of Section 25 of Act 75 of 1988 as quoted by Craythorne (1992:313), the town clerk is also the chief accounting officer of his or her local authority. The inclusion of this function in Act 75 of 1988 is inevitably going to cause friction between the town clerk and municipal treasurers. By training, a town clerk is not an accountant, yet in his or her general managerial capacity he or she directly supervises the function of municipal treasury department. The root meaning of the term accounting is to give a reckoning of something or an explanation, and on this basis it is submitted that the role of the town clerk as his/her council's chief accounting officer is to ensure that municipal organizations can give an account of the resources they use

or spend. Unfortunately, authors of this act have not made this clause more specific. A wise town clerk should liaise closely with the treasurers, rather than attempt to usurp this function. When the municipal machine or its organizations are not appropriate or are inefficient, the municipal manager is required to act. It is submitted that the legislation outlined earlier places a positive duty on the Town clerk as municipal manager to act where the situation justifies it.

According to Craythorne (1992:313), it goes without saying that every municipal manager is required to show leadership. How each municipal manager will fulfil his or her leadership role depends to some extent on personalities, but where leadership is absent, organizational problems that may occur are idle drifting, hostility between chief officials (heads of departments), inefficiency and opportunism. In his or her leadership role, the municipal manager will need to operate on at least two levels: he or she must demonstrate leadership to the bureaucracy so as to ensure that it has direction; act within the policy framework of the council concerned; and operate efficiently and effectively by ensuring that the council it receives accurate and meaningful policy and strategic advice, to enable the councillors to take decisions based on facts and the best forecasts that can be made available to them.

According to Municipal Systems Act, 32 of (2000:5615) Section 55 (1-2) stipulates that as head of administration the municipal manager of a municipality is subjected to the policy directions of the municipal, authority. He or she is responsible and accountable for the formation and the development of an economically effective, efficient and accountable administration equipped to carry out the task of implementing the municipality's integrated development plan in accordance with Chapter Five. The municipal manager must operate in accordance with the municipality's performance management as set out in Chapter Six and must be responsive to the needs of the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality. The municipal manager is responsible and accountable for the management of the municipality's administration in accordance with this Act and other legislation applicable to the municipality; for the implementation of the municipality's integrated development plan and for monitoring the progress in implementing the plan; for the management of the provision of services to the local community in a sustainable and equitable manner; for the appointment of staff other than those referred to in section 56(a), subject to the Employment Equity Act, 55

of 1998. The management, effective utilisation and training of staff, the maintenance of staff discipline the promotion of sound labour relations and compliance by the municipality with applicable labour legislation are other responsibilities. Yet others include advising the political structures and political office bearer of the municipality; managing communications between the municipality's administration and its political structures and political office bearers; carrying out the decisions of the municipality; the administration and implementation of the municipality's by-laws and other legislation; the exercise of any powers and the performance of any duties delegated by the municipal council, or sub-delegated, by other delegating authorities of the municipality, to the municipal manager in terms of Section 59; facilitating participation by the local community in the affairs of the municipality; developing and maintaining a system whereby community satisfaction with municipal services is assessed; the implementation of national and provincial legislation applicable to the municipality; and the performance of any other functions that may be assigned by the municipal council. As accounting officer of the municipality, the municipal manager is also responsible and accountable for all income and expenditure of the municipality; all assets and the discharge of all liabilities of the municipality; and proper and diligent compliance with applicable municipal finance management legislation.

Craythorne (1992:315) sees the town clerk as a facilitator. A facilitator is someone who makes things easy, or who promotes or helps progress. In the scheme of things, facilitation in the sense of reconciling different views is within the field of politics but the town clerk, by the quality and nature of the advice he or she gives, can assist and support councillors in any reconciliation necessary within the community.

According to Craythorne, (1993: 316) where the town clerk could well play a moral or ethical role is in ensuring that employees behave properly and honestly. Where dishonestly or improper behaviour occurs, the remedy lies in the field of law. However, the town clerk will find it difficult to take disciplinary action against an employee whom he believes has acted immorally or improperly, unless the applicable law provides a remedy. Where policy advice from another official has an immoral base, the town clerk need not put the report concerned to his or her council.

3.11.2 Heads of department chief officials

A head of department is responsible for the efficient management and administration of his or her department including the effective utilisation and training of staff, the maintenance of discipline, the promotion of sound labour relations and the proper use and care of state property (Section 7(3) of the Public Service Act, 1994:07).

Craythorne, (1992:317) notes that the chief officials of a council are the heads of departments but, in the larger cities, they may also be persons in posts controlling groups of functions or departments for example, the deputy town clerk of Johannesburg and Pretoria. The chief officials have a dual role, namely, to manage their departments or functions efficiently and to work with and support the town clerk on wider or corporate issues. This, in turn, gives rise to a special relationship between them and the municipal manager. The town clerk needs to keep contact with the chief officials; while the municipal manager must resist the temptation to meddle in the direct management of the departments. Such meddling draws the town clerk away from his primary chief executive functions and roles, but also angers the heads of departments who are affected. Such interference understandably undermines the discipline in the departments.

Another dimension of the town clerk and heads of departments' relationship is the extent to which the town clerk meets with them and discusses common problems or policy issues with them. Many local authorities have committees or teams of heads of departments which meet on a regular basis and some do not. Whether this happens or not depends to some extent on the personalities involved, but there are committees to filter the flow of information to them. Town clerk and heads will sometimes form a block or cabal which will unite against councillors. One cure for this attitude is to let councillors have copies of the agenda for and minutes of these meetings. Of more importance, however, is the extent to which these meetings can or should influence the functions and roles of the town clerk.

In consideration of the discussion on municipal managers and chief officials, it is clear that the South African public service needs public officials who are competent and loyal in their work.

The main reasons for this are that the factors of production they use are limited and they are paid for using tax payers' money. Therefore, they should use public funds both effectively and efficiently for the benefit of every member of the public. Unfortunately this is not the case in South African municipalities because almost every municipality in South Africa is manned by educators from schools who are not competent to perform their duties accordingly. In addition owing to a lack of the necessary skills and knowledge about municipal affairs work. This is one of the reasons why local community members today are staging demonstrations in the streets to register and display their dissatisfaction regarding service delivery by municipalities. Municipal managers and head of departments are being arrested and expelled from their positions on the grounds that they have misappropriated funds and are corrupt. Positive work ethics and attitudes, such as loyalty to public service goals and values, do not develop automatically. It needs the concerted effort of all interested parties to develop ethical norms and suitably professional behavioural patterns among public officials.

3.12 Roles of partnership in local government administration

According to Wright (1978:8), intergovernmental relations as a concept does not recognize only nation-state and inter-state relations, it also recognises national-local, state-local, national state-local and inter-local relations. In a word, intergovernmental relations encompassed all the permutations and combinations of relations among the units of governmental in our system. Hatting, (1986:7) argues that intergovernmental relations refers to formal government structures and the relations they share as a results of constitutional, legislative and regulatory provisions. It also refers to pragmatic relations between officials in governmental bodied. It covers the whole field of governmental and administration and it can be looked at from a number of approaches, including the constitutional/legal approach; the democratic, the financial and the normative/operational approach.

According to Wright (1978:2), intergovernmental relations are rendered complex by various functions of government which permeate all levels of human activity and necessitate the emergence of many governmental bodies which also become increasingly interdependent a as matter of necessity. The distinctive features of this complex and interdependent system of

intergovernmental relations are the number and growth of governmental units; the number and variety of public officials involved in intergovernmental relations; the intensity and regularity of contacts among those officials; the importance of officials' actions and attitudes; and the preoccupation with financial policy issues.

According to the Constitution Act 108 of (1996:21), Section 41 (h i- vi), spheres of government should cooperate with one another in mutual trust and good faith by fostering friendly relations; assisting and supporting each other; informing each other and consulting on matters of common interest; coordinating their actions and legislation; adhering to agreed procedures; and avoiding legal proceedings against each other.

In terms of Section 3 (1-3) of Municipal Systems Act, 32 of (2000:18), municipalities must exercise their executive and legislative authority within the constitutional system of cooperative government encouraged in Section 41 for the Constitution, exercise their executive and legislative authority in a manner that does not compromise or impede a municipality's ability or right to exercise its executive and legislative authority. For the purpose of effective cooperative governance, organized local government must seek to develop common approaches for local government as a district sphere of government; enhance cooperation, mutual assistance and sharing of resources among municipalities; find solutions for problem relating to local government generally; and facilitate compliance with the principles of cooperative government and intergovernmental relations.

According to Atkinson (2000:119), the Constitution makes provision for developmental local government operating within a new system of intergovernmental relations, a system of cooperative governance. In terms of this vision, three spheres of government will be distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. They are meant to function in a mutually supportive fashion, and there is a positive obligation on the national government and provincial governments to support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their own affairs, to exercise their powers and to perform their functions. In this context, different national and provincial line departments have taken different approaches with regard to municipal involvement in service delivery. The overriding impression is that the departments should engage in meaningful

decentralisation. There have been large variations amongst provinces and amongst departments in their approaches to decentralisation to transitional municipalities. The White Paper on Local Government , 1998 (1998:37) notes that the New Constitution states that government in South Africa is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres of government. As noted above, these three spheres are distinctive interdependent and interrelated. Local government is a sphere of government on its own right, and is no longer a function of national or provincial government. It is an integral component of the democratic state. All spheres of government are obliged to observe the principles of cooperative governance put forward in the Constitution. Cooperative government assumes the integrity of each sphere of government. But it also recognizes the complex nature of government in modern society. No country today can effectively meet its challenges unless the components of government function as a cohesive whole. This involves: collectively harnessing all public resources behind common goals and within a framework of mutual support; developing a cohesive, multi-sectoral perspective on the interests of the country as a whole; and respecting the discipline of national goals, policies and operating principles, coordinating their activities to avoid wasteful competition and costly duplication; listening to human resources effectively; settling disputes constructively without resorting to costly and time-consuming legislation, rationally and clearly deciding the role and responsibilities of government between them, so as to minimise confusion and maximise effectiveness.

Intergovernmental relations are the set of multiple and informal processes, channels, structures and institutional arrangements for bilateral and multilateral interaction within and between spheres of government. In South Africa, a system of intergovernmental relations is emerging to give expression to the concept of cooperative government contained in the constitution. A system of intergovernmental relations has the following purposes: to promote and facilitate cooperative decision-making; to coordinate and align priorities, budgets, policies and activities across interrelated functions and sectors; to ensure a smooth flow of information within government, and between government and communities, with a view to enhancing the implementation of policy and programmes; and the prevention and resolution of conflicts and disputes (White Paper on Local Government, 1998:38).

3.12.1 Factors promoting intergovernmental relations

There are various factors promoting intergovernmental relations. Intergovernmental conflict has inevitably become part of governance as a result of the emergence of increasingly complex multi-sphere political systems. Government has become extremely complex, especially in view of the fact that most functions of any body or organ of state are not actually carried out solely by the body concerned. The problems of intergovernmental relations are political and administrative in nature, as well as constitutional, legal, practical, theoretical, economic, ideological and social. Their combination and interrelation makes it difficult to determine the real scope of the problem. Another problem associated with intergovernmental relations is that many prescribed and other governmental regulations are applied by people in their respective positions of authority, which implies that the quality and success of any rational situation between specific governmental bodies depends also on the behavioural patterns of the person involved. It should thus be taken into account that any relations between governmental bodies of necessity also involve human actions and the influence of such actions on relations (Hatting, 1986:4).

(a) National, provincial and local relations.

According to the Department of Finance (1999:22), Section 100 of the Constitution Act, 108 of 1996 provides for national monitoring of and intervention in provincial affairs when a province cannot or does not fulfil an executive obligation in terms of legislation or the constitution, by taking appropriate steps to ensure the fulfilment of that obligation. Such steps can take the form of issuing directives to the provincial executive or assuming direct responsibilities for the obligation in question. National intervention is permitted so as to maintain national security, economic unity, national norms and standards or to avoid prejudicial activities by any provincial government. Section 100 (1) of the Constitution Act, 108 of 1996 provides for any appropriate steps to make sure provinces fulfil their executive obligations. But this section has so far only been applied to budget and financial management matters, even though the section applies broadly to all executive obligation of provincial governments.

Wetnner (2000:8) argues that some provinces are finding it difficult to carry out the functions assigned to them by the Constitution. In 1998 for example, the pension crisis left thousands of pensioners and their dependants in the Eastern Cape without funds. The collapse of local delivery structures in Butterworth's municipality in the same year also forced the Eastern Cape provincial government to take over the municipality.

Section 139 of the Constitution Act, 108 of 1996, touches on the relations between provincial and local government by placing municipalities under provincial supervision when a municipality cannot or does not fulfil an executive obligation in terms of legislation. In such a case, the relevant provincial executive may intervene by taking any appropriate steps to ensure fulfilment of that obligation. This is the section which enabled the Eastern Cape provincial government to take over Butterworth municipality through the despatch of administrators to take over the functions of the municipality (Wetnner, 2000:10).

The Constitution Act, 108 of 1996, Section 155 enjoins provincial governments to provide for the monitoring and support of local governments in the province and to promote the development of local government capacity so that municipalities can adequately perform their functions and manage their affairs. The section further requires national and provincial governments to see to the effective performance by municipalities of their functions. It is necessary to point out at this point that a province, according to Section 125 of the Constitution Act 108 of 1996 has executive authority only in so far as that province has the administrative capacity to effectively assume the responsibility. The section further states that the national government must assist provinces through legislative or other measures to develop the administrative capacity necessary for the effective exercise of their powers and execution of their functions. A monitoring system has been devised at the local level which may form the basis for a generally applied system of selective intervention to support municipalities that are struggling to cope (Wetnner, 2000:12).

(b) Political consideration

A fundamental political consideration in the reform of urban governance in South Africa concerns the abolition of the racial basis of the local government system. Political consideration also relates to the creation of a system of local government through which members of the local council can be held responsible and accountable for decisions they make. In considering the political aspects of structuring urban governance, therefore, policy makers have the difficult task of choosing an organization for financing and delivering services that is best able to strengthen the political institutions of democracy while enabling markets and fiscal instruments to hold local officials accountable. How this interplay between political institutions, markets, and fiscal instruments evolves will certainly influence the choice between jurisdictional and functional fragmentation form of government for the cities of South Africa (Bennis, 1998:25).

(c) Centralization of intergovernmental relations

Rapo (1999:2) states that the reforms that took place between 1994 and 1996, resulted in a centralised system of intergovernmental relations, which is coordinated at the centre and used as a tool, with the involvement of the province, to achieve a nationally defined and driven policy agenda. The current provincial system is still not satisfied and there is growing clamour for it to be transformed, even after some years since the introduction of a constitutionally dispersed system of government. Even though provinces are responsible for the delivery of health, welfare and educational services, they do not have much influence on some vital standards for determining their actual competence to deliver in these areas (Wettnner, 2000:2). Although the three spheres of government are presented as equal, the Constitution of South Africa is not clear whether all the municipalities including metropolitan municipalities are under provincial regulations or whether municipalities are an independent sphere of government.

(d) Intergovernmental relations forum

The following are the main forums and positions that came into existence in the intergovernmental relations process: the senate; financial and fiscal commissions; intergovernmental forums; a national minister and members of provincial executive committees; the premier's forum; and technical intergovernmental committees. South Africa Year Book (2001:07) asserts that a number of intergovernmental structures have been instituted to promote and facilitate cooperative governance and intergovernmental relations between the respective spheres of government. These include, among others, the following: The President's Coordinating Council comprising the President, the Minister for Provincial and Local Government and the nine Premiers. The President's Coordinating Council replaces the Premiers Forum and the intergovernmental Forum and meets six times a year. Ministerial clusters, Director-General clusters and the forum of South African Directors-General, which promote programme, at national and provincial level. Ministerial forums between responsible line function ministers at national level and their respective counterparts at provincial government level, which normally meet on a quarterly basis. These forums are supported by technical committees. A number of intergovernmental forums that facilitate cooperative government and intergovernmental relations.

3.12.2. Public participation in local government

A careful analysis of the contemporary situation in South Africa where members of communities throughout the country are demonstrating and registering their concern about the non-delivery of services by municipalities in the country indicates that many local authorities are not consulting and empowering communities to participate effectively in local government processes. The understanding is that municipalities must be people centred, people-driven and people-controlled for development and reconstruction. These demonstrations might have been caused by the incapacity of both politicians and officials of local government to run municipalities and misunderstandings amongst community members about how municipalities should be run. As already stated in earlier contexts, it is important that government develops an effective mechanism to draw in communities, particularly when crucial matters, such as

service delivery and budgets are under discussion. The achievement of this goal will enhance governance in many areas and prevent repetition of the current chaos.

Bekker (1997:73) stresses that democratic local government requires government by the people or, at the very least, with their active involvement in what municipalities do and how they do it. Therefore, on the one hand, it is as much the right of municipalities to expect inhabitants to participate actively in the decisions that may affect their daily lives as it is the right of the community to have a significant say in local public affairs. As much as citizens may demand the commitment by municipalities to democratically govern and manage, municipalities may expect citizens to meet their obligations to participate in local government affairs. Citizen participation, in the simplest of terms, requires a balance between the right of citizens to participate and the obligation to do so. Participation cannot take place successfully without a proper understanding and maintenance of such a balance. In the South African context, these requirements to a certain extent contrast with past practice as well as with contemporary realities.

In areas falling under traditional leaders, the local government should see to it that it draws traditional leaders with their communities into its councils. Traditional leadership should play a role closest to the people, and their role should, therefore, be defined principally in relation to Category (B) municipalities, although larger kingdoms covering an entire district will clearly require similar relationships with district governments. Their role includes attending and participating in meetings of the councils and advising councils on the needs and interests of their communities. In this regard, traditional leaders will have representation on such councils (White Paper on Local Government, (1998:77).

In taking into account the decision under public participation, one may conclude that it is important that there should be a healthy relationship between municipalities and the public to operate and function without insurmountable problems. In this relationship, politicians or councillors should take the initiative to visit their communities, teaching and educating them about how municipalities function and operate. The importance of participation in a municipality's activities should also be explicitly explained. Public participation may be

improved in local government if the following are applied: regular consultation and decision-making; respect for one another; attendance of joint meetings; clear demarcation of lines of authority, using identified channels of communication properly; representation of both communities and having a single vision and common goals. Good relationships between communities and municipalities cannot be over-emphasized. They need each other and should work closely together in local government building and development. This may be demonstrated by active public participation in municipalities. Both municipalities should bring harmony, peace and security in area of their jurisdiction. Municipalities should have good relationships with the communities for the survival of municipalities.

3.12.3 Public-public partnership

Public-public partnership or public joint ventures allow horizontal cooperation between municipalities to exploit economies of sufficient scale. They also allow for vertical cooperation to improve coordination at the point of delivery. Public-public partnerships are common internationally in areas, such as joint purchasing consortia, training initiatives, technical support and information service. Within South Africa, municipalities are beginning to explore innovative partnership agreements, such as partnering with the post office for the collection of municipal revenue. This makes it easier for citizens to pay their municipal bills and decreases the strain which revenue collection places on municipal capacity. Substantial benefits can be derived from public-public partnerships. Municipalities are this encouraged to explore the option with individual organizations and through organized local government (White Paper on Local Government, 1998:97).

3.12.4 Public-private partnership.

According to Harmse, Jordan & Van Rensburg (2004:388), public-private partnerships are essentially partnerships between public sector organizations (municipalities) and private sector investors for the purpose of designing, planning, financing, constructing and/or operating infrastructure projects. Theoretically, a public-private partnership are not only about the private sector financing capital projects in return for an income stream, but also makes use

of private sector skills and management expertise to deliver and operate public projects more efficiently over their respective lifetimes.

In essence, the focus of public-private partnerships must demonstrate value for money; be affordable; be procured, using transparent and competitive processes; show substantial risk transfer to the private; and be implemented within a sound project management framework (Russel & Bvuma, 2001:248). Although it is not universally accepted that a public-private partnership is necessarily, the best option in providing public utilities seems to be a combination that allows for greater efficiency, based on the use of their comparative advantages. However, it would still be imperative to create a working relationship between the two entities in such a manner as to optimize the level of efficiency. A regulating environment with the necessary legislation and control measures should thus be established.

3.12.5. Partnership with community-based organization and non-governmental organizations.

According to the White Paper on Local Government, 1998 (1998:98), partnerships with community-based organization (CBOs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) can be effective gaining access to external expertise and experience. These partnerships can also stimulate local economic development. Community-based organizations and non-governmental organizations often have particular skills relating to facilitating development initiatives, developing small, medium and micro enterprises, and capacity building. Another advantage of these partnerships is that community-based organizations often have close link with community groups and can act as effective intermediaries in development initiatives.

Municipalities should also consider including non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations in partnerships with other public or private institutions (White Paper on Local Government, 1998:98). For example, some municipalities have found three ways in which partnerships with public-private community-based organizations can be very effective with respect to maintenance projects, such as sewer rodding. In such partnerships, the municipality provides funding and projects' management capacity; the

private sector contractor provides access to equipment and training; and the community-based organizations provide functions, such as the recruitment and management of local labour and community liaison. This approach enables the transfer of skills, creates employment and provides an effective service without draining municipal capacity.

Taking into account the discussion under public-public partnerships, public-private partnerships and partnerships with community-based organisations, one is compelled to conclude that municipalities should assist one another in order to improve and enhance service delivery. It is believed that the private sector is manned by personnel who have expertise in many fields. Therefore, it would be advisable for municipalities to establish healthy relations with private sectors for municipalities to be able to tap into those skills. This will assist the municipalities in the country to improve their service delivery. The centrality of the relationship between municipalities and community-based organizations cannot be overemphasized. Both groups need each other for the municipalities to succeed in its activities and for the people to benefit from such collaboration.

3.13 Conclusion

To conclude this chapter, the study is compelled to state that for local government in South Africa to tackle poor service delivery, confusion and ambiguity with regard to roles, functions, and powers of various institutions of governance and its officials, it should have leaders with vision and charisma, leaders who are good at strategic planning, are respected domestically and internationally. Leaders require skills in development; they need to be active, outdoor leaders, good communicators with good relationships with the private sector. Local government should uphold the principle of being people-centred, people-driven and people-controlled. This means that people should be afforded an opportunity to actively take part in the activities of local government. The development of communities should involve all stakeholders so that it can take place effectively and successfully.

In Chapter Four, a case study is outlined wherein an investigation was conducted in the Vhembe District Municipality and its four local municipalities, namely, Makhado, Musina, Mutale and Thulamela.