

CHAPTER 1

RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH DESIGN

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to investigate the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal services. A thorough investigation of the process of municipal service delivery by traditional leaders will create an understanding of the significant role that traditional leaders can play in promoting municipal services.

The institution of traditional leadership has been in existence on the whole continent of Africa from time immemorial. The African people knew no other form of government. Contrary to popular belief, the African ruler's power was never absolute in the past. However, in the South African context, the institution of traditional leadership was undermined and eroded by forces of imperialism and colonialism. The study intends to explore the history and development of public administration and the pre-1994 situation with specific reference to the history of traditional leaders in South Africa. The relation between leadership and governance, types of policy initiatives and their significance pertaining to traditional leaders is explored in detail.

Thirdly, it is important for this study to use relevant case studies on traditional leaders in South Africa such as the Royal Bafokeng Administration. The role of Congress of Traditional Leaders of South Africa (CONTRALESA) and the government's position on traditional leadership are discussed in detail. The use of case studies pertaining to traditional leaders provide clues and suggestions about what avenues to follow. It saves time and avoided making errors, duplication and unnecessary repetition.

Fourthly, an analysis of the effects of the government environment on traditional leaders in the three spheres of government is provided. The analysis consists of the economic, political, legal and social environment. The policy implication of the 1996 Constitution and its significance to different stakeholders concerning traditional leaders are outlined.

Finally, the aforementioned issues open the possibility of investigating the role of traditional leaders in municipal service delivery. What progress has been made, what went well, what went wrong and what should be done? Since 1994, controversy has been raging over the role of traditional leaders in local government. The passing of the Local Government Transition Act. no, 209 of 1993, the Local Government Municipal Structures Act. no, 117 of 1998 and the Local Government Demarcation Act. no, 27 of 1998 fuelled the controversy.

The passing of the above legislation provide for a restructured local government system, the demarcation of municipalities and the 2000 municipal elections that ushered in a new local government system. The controversy arose because the new municipalities cover the whole country including the rural areas under the jurisdiction of traditional leaders. In rural areas, municipalities have powers and functions that largely overlap those exercised by traditional leaders.

In October 1994, the Congress of Traditional Leaders of South Africa held a workshop and the following resolutions were adopted:

- ❖ Traditional leaders have the right to put their names forward for election to public office; provided that once they are elected, they must vacate their position as traditional leaders.
- ❖ The Constitution must acknowledge and protect the status of traditional authorities as fully-fledged primary local government structures in rural areas. This means that all functions and powers guaranteed to local government should also be accorded to rural local government. The structures of local government should be such that:
 - ❖ traditional areas of jurisdiction are regarded as rural local government areas;
 - ❖ elections are held in such areas;
 - ❖ traditional leaders of the area are automatically members of the council

District councils should be established to combine rural and urban local municipalities on a sub-provincial basis. These councils could render particular services on behalf of or in partnership with all municipalities, whether urban or rural. Traditional authorities could also request local and provincial governments to render services on their behalf. The senior traditional leader of the rural municipality is afforded *ex officio* participation in the district councils in addition to indirectly elected representatives from the various urban and rural municipality structures.

- ❖ Traditional authorities should in their capacity as rural municipality, render services to all individuals residing in their areas of jurisdiction irrespective of their gender, community affiliation, race or language. The powers of the provincial houses of traditional leaders should in general be strengthened and expanded and the same applies to the National Council of Traditional Leaders. The fact that the houses in terms of the interim Constitution, 1993 have only advisory powers and that their advice can be ignored by the provincial legislature and Parliament, undermine their credibility and legitimacy. The respective houses of traditional leaders should at least have powers regarding those matters pertaining to the powers and functions of rural local government structures, the demarcation of rural government areas, the organisation of district councils and matters that directly affect the culture, customary laws, communal land, conventions and usages of communities served by traditional authorities.

- ❖ The provisions of customary law and the Bill of Rights should be placed on an equal footing, which means they should be interpreted in a harmonious manner. Only when an irreconcilable conflict occurs, should the provisions of the Bill of Rights be binding on all. The Bill of Rights should therefore state explicitly that all its provisions should be interpreted in a manner that respect, uphold and further the interests and beliefs of customary law (Keulder, 2000:4).

1.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

It is of vital importance to explore the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of service delivery because traditional leaders have historically been the basis of local government in most of Africa. In pre-colonial Africa, societies were ruled by kings supported by a hierarchy of chiefs and council advisors selected from their communities.

Traditional leaders served as political, spiritual and cultural leaders and were regarded as custodians of the values of society. They safeguarded the welfare of their people by providing them with land for their subsistence needs through agriculture and for grazing. They also provided for the very poor and orphaned. They were responsible for the defence of their people against external aggression and for keeping law and order in their communities. They resolved disputes and inspired unity among their people (Rugege, 2000:13).

The fact that traditional leaders can rise to the challenge of providing credible governance that will contribute significantly to the new constitutional dispensation is explored. The study focuses on the following aspects:

It explores the possibility of finding an appropriate, relevant and value- adding role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal service delivery. It also analyses whether traditional leaders are only recognised or are participative in the new constitutional dispensation.

The aspects focused on are as follows:

- ❖ rediscover and incorporate the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of the municipal service delivery;
- ❖ discover alternative ways of ensuring full participation of traditional leaders in service delivery;
- ❖ face contextual realities;

- ❖ search for principles of an Afro-centric approach, which empower traditional leaders.

Chapter 12 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 as amended by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa twelfth Amendment Act, 2005 section 211 (1) (2) and (3) establishes the institution, status and the role of traditional leadership, according to customary law, subject to the Constitution. According to subsection (2), a traditional authority that observes a system of customary law may function subject to any applicable legislation and customs that include amendments or repeal of that legislation or those customs. Subsection (3) states that the courts must apply customary law subject to the Constitution and any legislation that specifically deals with customary law.

According to section 212 (1) (2) the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 national legislation may provide for a role for traditional leaders as an institution in the local sphere matters affecting local communities. Subsection (2) deals with matters relating to traditional leadership, the role of traditional leaders, customary law and customs of communities observing a system of customary law, namely:

- a) national or provincial legislation may provide for the establishment of houses of traditional leaders;
- b) national legislation may establish a council of traditional leaders.

The above sections of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 confirm the relationship between traditional leadership and public administration. South African public administration advocates the guidelines emanating from community values without contextualising them into the values of specific communities, be it Western, African or otherwise. These guidelines; namely thoroughness, balanced decision, fairness and reasonableness, effectiveness and efficiency, as well as religious consideration identified by Cloete (1995:78-83) dominate the concept of *public administration*.

The theory and practice of public administration adopted and adapted a generic and neutral approach towards community value systems. When a neutral approach is applied to understand the essence of community values and belief systems, dysfunctionality becomes the outcome at all levels of interactions between the public officials and members of the community (Tshikwatamba, 2004:256).

Hanekom and Thornhill (1982:128), explain that it is only when the system of community values exists that reference can be made to a community. Hanekom and Thornhill (1982:128), further contend that in the South African context, because various communities share common values based on religion, language and culture, it is essential to isolate the components before establishing commonalities. The assumed commonalities, if identified, require extensive analysis at the content level before they are accepted to the groupings. Cloete (1995:78-83), assumes that these guidelines are values in themselves. On aggregate the impression created is that the guidelines inform values which should be perceived to inform the guidelines (Tshikwatamba, 2004:256).

Mulemfo (2000:44) argues that colonisation deprived the African people of their cultural dignity. The Africans were made to accept that their cultures were no longer valuable for the development of Africa. The cultures and values of the African people were uprooted and Africans themselves began to overlook their cultural heritage. In order to make the concept of an African renaissance more palpable and relevant to the lives of the African masses, their cultural orientation should be viewed as an important asset.

Owing to the scope of government activities, public officials constantly have to deal with officials whose functions involve other fields of knowledge. So, for instance, natural scientists, medical practitioners, geologists, historians, agriculturalists and psychologists are employed in government institutions. If public administrators and public managers ignore the knowledge to be gained from other disciplines, they could be inefficient and ineffective. The practice of public administration cannot take place in a vacuum. It is important in government institutions that constant interaction takes place between public administration and experts of other disciplines (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:49).

The indigenous people living in South Africa when Europeans arrived in various parts of the country were nomadic people who moved from place to place with their cattle. The settlements which were more or less comparable with white urban areas were tribal settlements established in the African territories which later became known as Qwaqwa, Boputhatswana, Venda, Gazankulu, Kwa-Ndebele, Lebowa, Kangwane, Ciskei, Transkei and Kwa Zulu under the former government (Cloete, 1997:3).

It has already been explained that Africans lived and are still living in tribal villages in their traditional territories. These tribal villages are referred to as informal urbanisation. An advantage of tribal villages is that the people construct their own houses with the aim to keep their self-respect and independence. The people also meet their own needs according to their expectations (Cloete, 1997:9).

The literature on indigenous administration is insufficient. Lungu (in Ismael, Bayat and Meyer, 1997:118), for example, observes that existing descriptions of indigenous administration come mainly obtained from anthropologists and historians and little from administrative theorists. The tribe is the basic political unit of the indigenous communities replete with instances of local government. Each tribe retains its own name, manages its own affairs, occupies a specific territory and acts as a single unit in a battle.

Although chiefs and headmen made decisions through councils of indunas (advisers, ministers) they also extended the decision-making circles to include all adults through village forums. Thus there were mechanisms to consult the general community. It is this open-forum approach to decision-making that made the leaders of Nguni speaking tribes (Zulu, Ndebele and Shangaan) popular (Ismael *et al.*, 1997:119). A second feature of interest to local government is decentralisation of monarchical systems, especially in religious ritual kingdoms. The tribal chiefs performed the duties of territorial chiefs and acted as vassals serving the paramount chief or king. Ranking below territorial chiefs were headmen responsible for village administration. It is worth noting that in some instances headmen continued to be elected by the community while in others their ascendance to powers were hereditary. The subdivision of tribes into territorial chiefdoms and villages inevitably led to a certain measure of autonomy for rulers at those levels (Ismael *et al.*, 1997:119).

According to Mulemfo (2000:48), human beings have the ability to organise and govern themselves in an accurate and sensible way and according to their contexts. When the Western colonialists came to Africa, they found that the indigenous people of Africa were organised and had government bodies according to their contextual realities.

The traditional governments were a big threat to the colonialists who wished to impose colonial ideas on colonised areas. In order to succeed in the colonial endeavour, the colonialists either persuaded traditional chiefs or kings to obey the new colonial ways of government or just used force to destroy all existing structures. It is important to note that the traditional African governments were not organised in the same structural manner as Western models but, without any disrespect, this political tradition served African societies much better than the present political systems derived from those imposed on societies for a period of hundred years by European colonial powers. African traditional leaders played an important role looking after the public affairs of the people and territories (Mulemfo, 2000:48).

In terms of section 152 (1) (b) of the Constitution, 1996, municipalities are responsible for ensuring the delivery of basic services to all South Africans. Therefore it is of vital importance for traditional leaders to participate in policy making and policy implementation in rural areas to ensure that municipalities deliver way that is sustainable, equitable, efficient and effective services.

Public administration consists of various functions and one of them is public policy. Policy influences service provision in the local government sphere. It is of vital importance for the traditional leaders to participate in policy-making in the local government sphere in order to improve service delivery.

Hanekom and Thornhill (1995:54) define *policy* as a desired course of action and interaction which is to serve as a guideline in the allocation of resources necessary to realise societal goals and objectives, decided upon by the legislator and made known either in writing or verbally. In the public sector, policies are the output of the political process and serve as initiators for executive action.

A considerable number of factors always serve to change the nature and the extent of the activities undertaken by public institutions. These factors must always be watched and taken into account for the purpose of making new policies or adapting existing policies (Cloete, 1998:133).

Cloete (1998:133-136) describes the main factors that influence public policy as follows:

❖ Circumstances

This means the total environment as determined by time and place in which the authorities operate. It includes the state of community life as regards economic, technological and social matters. Even geographical and climatic factors can exert an influence on these.

❖ Needs and expectations of the population

Every public institution exists to satisfy the real needs and the justified expectations of the population. Public institutions do not start providing services without due cause. There will first be a period during which the public will become aware of a need, and then the public or interest groups will start making representation to the authorities to satisfy the need.

❖ Policies of political parties

In most states, there will always be two or more opposing political parties in continuous rivalry to gain power and rule the country. The parties base their claims to power on their respective views with regard to various policies and these views may fundamentally affect the activities of the executive institutions.

❖ Activities and representation of interest groups

In the Republic of South Africa as in most other states, members of the population have created numerous associations with similar interests, e.g. workers or employee

associations and industrialists. These groups are continually engaged in making representations to various authorities about changes in policy.

❖ Personal views of political executive office-bearers

Political executive office-bearers are ideally placed to influence the policies of the institutions entrusted to them. These office-bearers are leaders in the legislative institutions, which have the final say in policy matters.

Research and investigations as well as the views and experience

Nowadays public institutions do research on an ever-increasing scale and this could inevitably have an influence on policy matters.

Policymaking is inherently political and is an outcome of a political process that involves negotiation, bargaining, persuasion and compromise. Policies involve the participation of government institutions, political parties, interest groups and other role-players such as the media (Van Niekerk, 2001:113).

The process of policy analysis is a series of intellectual activities carried out within a process comprised of activities that are essentially political. These political activities can be described usefully as the policy-making process and visualised as a series of interdependent phases arrayed through time: agenda-setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy assessment. Policy analysts may produce information for policy analysis relevant to one, several, or all the phases of the policy making process depending on the problem faced by the client (Dunn, 1994:15).

Policy can be initiated through interest groups acting on behalf of society. The role of public managers in this context is to involve all role-players from society and encourage public participation in the policy-making process. They should constantly make a needs analysis in the various communities to improve the general welfare. Public managers serve as means of communication between society and the legislative

authority through which policy-relevant information is conveyed (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1999:210).

There are many ways for people trying to affect the degree of attention given to particular items. These people are sometimes called policy entrepreneurs with the willingness to invest personal time and energy in, for example, publicity campaigns, direct contact with decision-makers, petitions and publicity drives. People can be involved in major institutions, such as the media, political parties, interest groups that provide access to decision makers (Denhardt, 2006:52).

Members of public and non profit organisations play important roles in building the policy agenda and shaping legislative policy, but are also involved in policy making as part of the implementation process (Denhardt, 2006:54).

Traditional leaders cannot be neutral about public policy making. There is an interface with the communities in the local government sphere and traditional leaders can identify problems and participate in policy formulation. The participation of traditional leaders in the policy making process will enable them to promote the general welfare of the public they service.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The plain wording of section 157(1) (a) of the Local Government Transition Act, no. 209 of 1993 does not do justice to the dramatic change it brought to the old institution of traditional leaders. As stated earlier, prior to the implementation of the Local Government Transition Act. no. 209 of 1993, traditional authorities performed many local government functions in rural areas. The Constitution makes a unequivocal choice for a Western type of democracy for local government. It reserves local government decision making for democratically elected representatives (De Visser, 2004:90).

In terms of chapter 3 of the White Paper on Traditional Leadership and Governance 2002, Section 3.1, it is evident that the current constitutional dispensation does not vest traditional leaders with administrative and legislative powers. Section 3.1 states

that traditional leaders have over the years performed various governance functions. These functions were not exercised in the unified territory called South Africa, as this only came about later with the formation of the South African state in 1910. The institution therefore, was never a government of South Africa. The institution operated within the defined limits of its prescribed jurisdiction. The institution was, however, affected by colonisation as it altered its functions and roles.

Given the new order, it is clear that the institution cannot be restored to its traditional or pre-colonial form. It has to adapt to a Western democratic change. It also means that the system was egalitarian because traditional leaders treated all their subjects equally even though their leadership style was often autocratic. Thus society were not rejected to a discriminatory practice as they experienced under colonialism. Traditional leadership is a creature of custom and generally carries out customary functions. In the current formalised governmental structures traditional leaders should be acknowledged as supporting structures in the delivery of services to communities in rural areas.

Rugege (2000:13) states that by virtue of the constitutional provisions in Chapter 7 of the Constitution, 1996 spelling out the functions of 'wall- to- wall' municipalities, the powers and functions of traditional leadership and traditional authorities, whether under customary law or statute are by implication curtailed.

The impact of the Constitution, 1996 is compounded by the fact that, traditional leaders are afforded *ex officio* council observer status by the Constitution. The 1996 Constitution establishes their *ex officio* status but the Municipal Structures Act no. 117 of 1998 relegated their influence to a nonvoting role. The reduction of the status of traditional leaders unleashed a political battle, which came ahead in the run- up to the 2000 elections and has remained largely unsolved to date. Traditional leaders seek recognition in local government in rural areas i.e category C municipalities (De Visser, 2004:90).

According to Mabutla (2001:1), the growing tension needs the government's immediate attention. The role of traditional leaders in the Republic of South Africa has remained a controversial issue. The continuing dialectical clash between forces of

modernity for development and the persistent strength of traditional leaders is still an issue in the country. Traditional relations and social structures are crumbling, while the new relationship remains to be formed. Traditional leaders constitute a form of local government in terms of indigenous law. They were previously mandated to legislate on specific functional activities of local government in charge of development. The previous apartheid regime silently manoeuvred to subjugate some traditional leaders while removing others from power. The same government designed and employed policies that were strategically and tactically ideal to keep itself in power while using traditional leaders for its own benefit. The new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 recognised traditional leaders and made provision for them to establish a national body that will be part of the deliberation in the Parliament. However, the role of traditional leaders in the local, provincial and national sphere of government is not clearly defined.

Traditional leaders, both chiefs and headmen, still have the powers and functions accorded to them under colonialism and apartheid as contained in various pieces of pre-1994 legislations. The Black Administration Act, no. 38 of 1927, the Black Administration Act, no. 68 of 1951 and the Regulations prescribing the duties, powers, privileges and conditions of service were established to govern the affairs of traditional leaders. Some of the roles of traditional leaders under the preceding legislation were as follows:

- ❖ to promote the interests of the tribe or community, support and actively encourage the moral and social well-being of the traditional leaders;
- ❖ report any condition of unrest or dissatisfaction to the government;
- ❖ inform the people about new laws, orders and instructions;
- ❖ convene meetings of the people when requested by government and ensure attendance.

The initiatives of the South African democratic system to accommodate traditional forms of governance are outlined in Chapter 11 of the Constitution of the Republic of

South Africa, 1996, protecting the institution and status of leaders. The government acknowledged the importance of traditional leadership in South Africa by enacting the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act, no. 41 of 2003 in order to clarify the role, traditional leaders should play. Secondly, the Communal Land Rights Act, no. 11 of 2004 was also promulgated with the intention to resolve land tenure problems in the rural areas of South Africa.

The promulgation of the preceding two pieces of legislation do not clarify the role of traditional leaders. There is a need to explore this situation because there are problems that are associated with the unclear role of traditional leaders. Regardless of the government's initiatives of democratising traditional leadership, there is still tension between democracy and traditional authorities.

The Constitution recognises traditional leaders and envisages a role for them in local government. Thus Section 211 of the Constitution 1996 states, "The constitution, status and role of traditional leadership according to customary law, are recognised, subject to the Constitution".

A traditional authority that observes a system of customary law may function subject to any applicable legislation and customs, including amendments to or repeal of that legislation. Traditional leaders have argued that the provision is too vague and that the role needs to be clearly spelt out as done with elected municipal councillors. That role is subject to the Constitution and at the same time, requires the extension of elected municipalities to areas under the jurisdiction of traditional leaders assigning them specific powers and functions. It does not spell out a specific role for traditional leaders, but awards power to the national legislature to pass legislation to provide for a role of traditional leadership as an institution at local level (sphere) on matters affecting local communities (Rugege, 2000:16).

Traditional leaders of all political persuasions are dissatisfied with their constitutional and legal position with regard to governance. They argue that their status and powers and functions have been whittled away under the Constitution and the post-1994 government. Traditional leaders further argue that the Constitution should have spelled out their functions as it did for municipalities. As this has not been achieved, it

is further argued that the national legislation referred to in Section 212 of the Constitution of, 1996, which was supposed to set out their role, should have been processed at the same time as the legislation for local government such as the Local Government Municipal Structures Act, no.117 of 1998, and the Local Government Municipal Demarcation Act, no.27 of 1998.

Parliament has a statutory duty to pass legislation on any matter within the framework of the Constitution; what is important is the extent to which traditional leaders are offered an opportunity to make inputs on what roles relate to the institution 's leadership. During the pre-colonial era, autonomous chiefs or kings governed most communities. The authority of the chief or king was hereditary and in him was vested almost all political, economic and social power. The policies of the colonial era and apartheid era tried to dilute the institution of traditional leadership. The policies in the colonial era and even the current constitutional arrangements did not succeed in establishing a successful system of traditional leadership. The question is what does the new democratic dispensation in South Africa do regarding the role of traditional leadership because it is the indigenous form of government that was practised for many years before colonialism? As explained earlier, democracy is a borrowed form of government from Europe and the United States of America.

Therefore, the research problem is to determine to what extent the role of traditional leaders can contribute to the existing local government structures in South Africa.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION

To what extent can traditional leaders provide and add value in the promotion of municipal service delivery which will contribute to the new constitutional dispensation of South Africa?

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study are:

- ❖ to investigate, compare and analyse the role and functions of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal service delivery in South Africa;
- ❖ to reflect on the relationship between traditional leaders and local, provincial and national government by investigating the formal and informal arrangements existing among them;
- ❖ to provide an overview of the roles assigned to traditional leaders, by indicating their functions, decision-making powers and administrative functions pertaining to municipal service delivery;
- ❖ to provide possible lessons for South Africa deduced from these experiences.

The research provides a theoretical exposition of traditional leaders in South Africa. It investigates and identifies strategies that can be utilised to ensure that the traditional leadership as institution is fully integrated into the new constitutional dispensation. The study also recommends measures that will enable the government to define the clear role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal service delivery. It will also contribute to discover how traditional leaders could be fully integrated in the new constitutional dispensation. Finally, the key outcome of this research is to provide both the government and the public within a framework with which to understand the role of traditional leaders.

1.6 FOCUS OF RESEARCH

The current status of traditional leaders is recognised by national legislation. However, the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal services is not clearly defined. The traditional leaders' functions and powers are limited and rural municipalities are vested with powers and functions that largely overlap those exercised by traditional leaders.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Some of the respondents have shown reluctance in disclosing important information because of the fear of endangering their relations with their country 's ministry of local government. Traditional leaders have been reluctant to disclose some of the confidential information deemed as sensitive information. The different tribal authorities in South Africa differ considerably. Therefore, it was decided to investigate three particular communities intensively to determine common characteristics that may be used in determining generic trends.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

The qualitative methodology is used to investigate the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal service delivery. Data was collected by means of document study and interviews. The interviews were conducted with traditional leaders, selected from three tribal authorities. The tribal authorities of the three communities with whom the interviews were conducted are listed in alphabetical order as follows: Botswana, Modjadji, the Royal Bafokeng Administration. Tribal Authority. Participants from all these tribal authorities ranged from two to eight traditional leaders. Open-ended questions were asked in a relatively informal format. Participants were encouraged to answer the questions honestly and as broadly as possible. Where necessary, issues that needed clarity were followed up so that the discussion could flow. Interviews were recorded. The purpose of the interviews was to assess the participant's knowledge, experience and views regarding the promotion of municipal service delivery through the contributions traditional leaders. Four traditional leaders, (13) headmen, one member of the Botswana Parliament and seven tribal authority officials were interviewed.

1.8.1 Data collection methods

❖ Population and sampling

Participants were selected from tribal authorities representing the three communities in Botswana and South Africa. The positions of all participants were recorded so that sampling could be determined. The researcher secured a list of all traditional leaders

from tribal authorities. The list was used as a sampling frame for interviews with traditional leaders, members of traditional councils, headmen and the officials of tribal authorities. To obtain a systematic sample of (25) research participants, traditional leaders, headmen and officials of tribal authorities were drawn systematically from the total population by using the registered lists from all these categories.

1.9 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

1.9.1 Chief

The chief is the most important figure in the central tribal government and is the eldest son of the reigning chief's principal wife. The chief holds a hereditary position and is therefore generally the most senior member of the most senior lineage and clan in the tribe. Although the chief is qualified by birth to succeed the father, there is a need for formal designation, training and inauguration as chief (Zungu,1992:162).

1.9.2 Local government

A working definition of local government attributes to it the following features, namely a defined geographical area and resident population for which the local government is responsible; the authority to provide services to the public; and plans for the development of the locality (Craythorne, 1997:28).

1.9.3 Municipality

In terms of section 151 subsection (1) of the Constitution, 1996, the local sphere of government consists of municipalities, which must be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic of South Africa. Subsection (2) states that the executive and legislative authority of a municipality is vested in its municipal council. In terms of subsection (3), 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 in the Constitution. Subsection (4) states that the national or provincial government may not compromise or impede a municipality's ability to exercise its powers or perform its functions.

1.9.4 Municipal services

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act, no. 32 of 2000 defines basic municipal services as municipal services necessary to ensure an acceptable and reasonable quality of life and if not provided, would endanger public health, safety and the environment.

1.9.5 Traditional leadership

Traditional leadership is an institution governing a particular tribe according to customary law and has developed over many hundreds of years in Africa. It has served the people of Africa through wars, periods of slavery, famine, freedom struggles, economic and political restructuring and during colonial and apartheid periods (De Villiers, 1997:39).

1.10 SUMMARY AND SEQUENCE OF CHAPTERS

The study is divided into six chapters forming a sequential whole. Chapter 1 serves as an introduction to the study. In this chapter, the research problem is identified and listed. Ten pertinent issues regarding the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal services in Botswana, the Phokeng and Modjadji districts in South Africa are identified as follows:

- ❖ training
- ❖ municipal services rendered by traditional leaders
- ❖ land allocation
- ❖ customer service
- ❖ staff shortages
- ❖ communication

- ❖ infrastructure development
- ❖ the impact of legislation on traditional leaders
- ❖ challenges faced by traditional leaders pertaining to municipal service delivery
- ❖ source of revenue

The aims and objectives of the study are formulated based on the 10 issues identified for research purposes,

Chapter 2 deals with the history and development of public administration. In this chapter, the historical antecedents of public administration with specific reference to the European, American and South African developments are discussed in detail. Public Administration, the nature of public administration, the purpose of public administration, new public management and the functions of public administration are discussed in detail.

Chapter 3 concerns the legal, political, social and cultural as well as the economic environmental components. The main objective of the chapter is to establish to what extent the government's macro environment has impacted on traditional leaders.

A brief historical background and the role of traditional leaders from 1847 to 1994 as well as the Royal Bafokeng Administration case study is the subject of Chapter 4. The history of the Royal Bafokeng traditional leadership system is discussed in detail. The Royal Bafokeng nation corporate entities and the Mutual and Federal as well as Fraser Alexander transactions are discussed. The Royal Bafokeng governance and the Communal Land Rights are fully discussed in this chapter. The Impala Platinum mines and Royal Bafokeng Nation Royalties are also discussed. Royal Bafokeng customary law structures and the road building by the Royal Bafokeng and the National Government are discussed in this chapter. The municipal services rendered by traditional leaders are outlined. The chapter also entails a comparative study among different traditional leadership systems of, for example, Botswana, Swaziland,

Lesotho, Namibia and the KwaZulu-Natal Kingdom. The main objective is to establish to what extent they differ from the Royal Bafokeng Administration regarding municipal service delivery.

Chapter 5 outlines local government service: selected case studies comprising empirical evidence gathered by means of interviews to validate arguments raised in the chapters regarding the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal service delivery. For this purpose, interviews were conducted in five tribal authorities, namely Balete, Kweneng, Modjadji, the Royal Bafokeng Administration and Tlokweng. The responses were analysed to determine the role of traditional leaders in the promotion of municipal service delivery.

Chapter 6 provides a summary, conclusion and recommendations based on the research as a whole.

CHAPTER 2

THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Traditionally the study of Public Administration concerns the administrative activities required to govern and the administrative requirements to give effect to governmental policies. The contemporary state has developed to such an extent that the area of study of the Discipline needs to be reconsidered to be able to provide training and research in relevant matters. The demand for efficient and effective public administration and management within a globalising world context contributes to the need for re-assessment of the domain. It has to be established whether the term public sector could still be identified unambiguously. It seems as though scholars of Public Administration should reconsider the area of study and even commence discussions with related disciplines in an effort to enhance the knowledge base of the Discipline and to improve the quality and service rendering by employees with a sound ethical base and properly trained in the art and science of administration, management and governance(Thornhill, 2008:2).

Public administrators work at all levels of government both at home and abroad. The substantive fields within which public managers work, range across the varied interests of government and public affairs from defence and national security to social welfare and environmental quality, from the design and construction of roads and bridges to the exploration of space and from taxation and financial administration to human resource management. Though public administration varies tremendously in its scope and substance, those who work in public organisations share certain commitments. Among these, none is more important than commitment to public service (Denhardt, 2006:1).

Henry (2001:2) remarks that public administration is the device used to reconcile bureaucracy with democracy. Public administration is a broad ranging and amorphous combination of theory and practice; its purpose is to promote a superior understanding

of government and relationship with the society it governs. It also aims to encourage public policies that are responsive to societal needs and to institute managerial practices attuned to effectiveness and efficiency and the deeper human requisites of the citizenry.

According to Mutahaba, Baguma and Halfani (1993:6), before colonialism, African governance systems varied according to the level of development and the socio-political systems in place. Generally administrative systems in Africa lacked the attributes of a modern state. Colonialism to a great extent supplanted or suppressed the various traditional administrative organisations and with them their administrative cultural values. In most parts of Africa, the traditional administrative organisations were done away with and replaced by bureaucratic organisations styled after the system in the mother country. The evolving public administration culture manifested itself more significantly in three important aspects: management styles, management of financial resources and management of information. Public administration had to be oriented towards development as well as be responsive to the interests and expectation of the governed. It had to recruit personnel with a greater range of knowledge and skill.

Dimock and Dimock (1969:3) refer to public administration as the accomplishment of politically determined objectives. More than the technique or even the orderly execution of programmes, however, public administration is also concerned with policy, for the contemporary world bureaucracy, it is a major contributor to policy-making in government.

As a field of practice, public administration is as old as human society; as a theory, Public Administration goes back only about a century and as an academic subject it is now taught in most countries in the world, although in many instances only since the end of World War 2, when the practical demands of statehood and economic development needed to be met to support the political independence of the emerging nations. In all governments, the most influential category of employees is administrative, a group having influence on the shaping of policy and the law. Administration exists to perform the enabling actions required to provide services

directly to the citizen, are in the form of e.g protection, regulation or more tangible activities such as water supply and schools (Dimock and Dimock, 1969:4).

In this chapter, the historical antecedents of public administration with specific reference to the European, United States of American and South African situation are discussed in detail. An overview of public administration, the nature of public administration, the purpose of public administration, new public management and the functions of public administration are given.

2.2 THE HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS

Evidence exists that the Egyptians practised decentralisation and the use of staff advice 2000 years before Christ. The mere physical presence of the pyramids confirms that there had to exist formal plans, organisation, and leadership and control systems. How else would it have been possible to build a structure covering as much as 13 acres? Construction is estimated to have taken the labour of over a hundred thousand men for 20 years. To put this into perspective this achievement is equivalent to administering an organization three times the size of the Shell Oil Company. Clearly such an undertaking indicates the effective practice of administrative functions (Robbins, 1980:34).

Two other institutions that contributed to the development of organisation design and administrative theory are the Roman Catholic church and the military structures. The Roman Catholic church has endured nearly 2000 years with a simple five-level hierarchy. In the Catholic Church, the chain of authority moves from the Pope to cardinals to archbishops to bishops and finally to parish priests. Military organisations are also singled out as contributors to the field. The use of staff support advice, uniform methods for performing tasks and discipline were practised by Alexander the Great, Hannibal, Caesar and Napoleon. More recently, the armed forces serve as a major source of studies in leadership, authority and conflict (Robbins, 1980:35).

2.2.1 The history of public administration in the European context

The European development of the science of Public Administration consists of the oldest public administration representatives who were German and Austrian Cameralists. Already active in the middle of the sixteenth century; the German and Austrian Cameralists became notable in the eighteenth century. The administrative bureaus called *Kammern*, chambers or cameras were studied in Germany. The aforementioned administrative bureaus were also called budgetary procedures, administrative technology and the art of administrating or *Verwaltungskunst*. Public Administration studies were half scientific, half routinely descriptive, involving the primitive, haphazard mixing of information about political economy, taxation, politics, governing, assorted statistics and accounting. The work of the Cameralists provided the basis for the development and growth of the European pattern and standard for administrative services (Langrod, 1961:72). The Cameralists approached the problems of administration or the carrying out of political policy from one fundamental point of view. The central concern of their studies was the concept and functions of the *Polizei* or police. The police in Europe was the grandfather of the modern public administrator. The Cameralists' studies were published under the heading of police studies (Langrod, 1961:73).

Public administration in Europe consists of the following two generations: the pre-generation and the first generation. The abovementioned generations will be discussed in detail below.

2.2.1.1 The pre-generation

The pre-generation includes thinkers such as Plato, Aristotle and Machiavelli. Until the birth of the national state; the emphasis lay principally on the problems of moral and political nature and on the organisation of the public administration. The operation of this administration was a less urgent problem. From the sixteenth century the national state was the reigning model of the administrative organisation in Western Europe. These states needed an organisation for the implementation of law and order and the setting up of a defensive structure. The need for expert civil

servants, with knowledge about taxes, statistics, administration and the military organisation, grew (Anon,2007:1).

2.2.1.2 The first generation

Lorenz von Stein from Vienna is considered the founder of the science of Public Administration in 1855. Public Administration was considered to be a form of administrative law. Lorenz von Stein's opinions were innovative in several respects:

- ❖ the science of Public Administration was considered a melting pot of several disciplines such as sociology, political sciences, administrative law and public finance. Public Administration was an integrating science;
- ❖ Public administration was an interaction between theory and practice. For example the practice was considered to be the leader, but the theory had to form the base; and it was suggested that public administration should strive to adopt a scientific method

White (1955:1) argues that the building of the pyramids was an administrative achievement of the first order as well as a remarkable technical accomplishment. Managing the affairs of the Roman Empire with the means then available was a huge task, well performed for centuries. Organising the national state out of medieval feudalism and creating disciplined armies from an undisciplined crowd of armoured knights were administrative as well as political feats.

2.2.2 The history of public administration in Britain

The history of public administration in Britain dates back to 1215 when King John introduced a new era in the government and administration of England. The privileges and rights of the elite and clergy of Britain were guaranteed with the signing of the Magna Carta at Runnymede. These guarantees were later embodied in further legislation in Britain and have become the cornerstone of English laws. With the expansion of the British Empire during the sixteenth to eighteenth centuries many existing British laws and practices were made applicable to the overseas possessions.

The questions that arise are: to what extent were privileges and rights embodied in laws and practices of the British Empire made applicable to its territories for example, South Africa, especially the Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State? What was the line of thinking of the British government when it was decided to make British practices applicable to the South African colonies, and to what extent is the South African system of government and administration based on the British philosophy of government and administration ? (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1982:11).

According to Caiden (1982:8), the genesis of modern public administration is to be found in the organisation of the king's household in a country where the crown had many rival contenders and where the church assumed responsibility for social services. Household officials could be divided into two groups: one responsible for personal services to the monarch and the other distinguishable by education, special skills and superior functions, responsible for the administration of the king's lands, his finances, justice and the raising of armies. Amenable to the crown's will and dependent upon its pleasure the latter group exercised delegated powers. The officials were drawn from educated classes of the bourgeoisie and the clerics and enjoyed, in practice, permanent tenure and a certain amount of discretion. The officials gained positions through patronage and purchase in turn for which the fees and prerequisites of office were kept. Over the course of time, officials often developed proprietary claims to positions. The official's business was to make the monarch the richest and most powerful person in the country and also to enrich themselves. The aims of the king were to dominate the royal household, have full control over officials and enlarge the power of the crown (Caiden, 1982:8).

The officials employed by the king regarded delegation of authority as inheritable freehold. The vacancies were filled by co-optation and profits were made from farming taxes, billeting of troops, contracting supplies and communications and placing of relatives and friends as sinecures (Caiden, 1982:8).

Gradually crown administration and finances became separated from the management of the king's household the complex duties of the state were consolidated into compartments headed by ad hoc bodies of officials emphasising collective leadership. In this way, a greater measure of uniformity was produced at the centre. Field

administration still remained autonomous. National administration at this stage was confused, cumbersome and slow.

The scope of government depended at the king's will and inclination and the extent to which the rivals could be persuaded among the clergy, nobles and the burghers to accept his authority. Decision-making was centred on the king's court but depended on local enforcement. Public service was confined to law and order, regulatory activities and selected public works. Even warfare was limited to small armies, which were quipped with a premium on ritual. Technological aids were simple. Governmental functions were integrated with other societal institutions and barely consolidated internally into specialised areas (Caiden, 1982:9).

The eighteenth century heralded the age of reason with the scientific challenge to religion and the application of scientific thought to human society. The reorganisation of government created a favourable climate to meet the challenges of rural displacement, industrialism, technological advances, large scale warfare and middle class professionalism.

The divine right of kings was one of the first victims. Republicans deposed kings in some countries altogether or absolute powers were strictly regulated and controlled by the aristocrats and middle class. The king's household either disappeared altogether or was more closely defined. Persistent threats to the polity from within and without forced the central authorities to extend influence over local administration. The central authorities directly assumed concentrated services. The nation-state began to establish its own educational system in competition with the church and to seek competent staff outside traditional sources. Antiquated methods and procedures were exposed and more efficient methods and techniques substituted (Caiden, 1982:9).

Government needed bigger armies, better weapons, consistent supplies, more money, different forms of taxation, new organisations for the administration of social services, better policing and more inspectors, greater co-ordination, uniformity and standardisation and higher efficiency. Moreover, the people demanded better communications and postal facilities, relief from poverty, oppression, distress and insecurity and equality before the law with abolition of legal disabilities and ancient

privileges. New social classes and changes in social structure brought demands for participation in government and the employment of more businesslike methods in public administration (Caiden, 1982:10).

According to Mutahaba *et al.* (1993:6), before colonialism, African governance systems varied according to the level of development and the socio-political systems in place. However, their administrative systems lacked the attributes of a modern state. Colonialism to a great extent supplanted or suppressed the various traditional administrative organisations and with their administrative cultural values. In most parts of Africa, the traditional administrative organisations were done away with and replaced by bureaucratic organisations styled after the system in the mother country. The evolving public administration culture manifested itself more significantly in three important aspects, namely management styles, management of financial resources and management of information. Public administration had to be orientated towards development as well as responsive to the interests and expectations of the government. It had to recruit personnel with a greater range of knowledge and skill.

According to Hanekom and Thornhill (1982:20), the colonial policy provided for the introduction of political institutions and the franchise into those colonies that received, enjoyed and used these powers wisely and moderately as viewed by the colonial powers. In granting political rights to the colonies, a uniform model was followed throughout the British Empire, whereas with the establishment of self-government in the colonies, a specific approach was followed. The first step after conquest was the establishment of military government which was an interim measure until matters were stabilised to accommodate a colonial model of government as viewed by the colonial powers. The second step was to establish crown colony government which provided for a crown-appointed governor entrusted with all legislative, executive and judicial authority of the colony. Later an advisory council on which the colonists had representation assisted the governor in administering the colony.

It should be emphasized that the governmental systems introduced in the British colonies were based on a Western ideology and Western value systems.

The British politicians and public officials' Western orientated beliefs and ideals were embodied in the approach followed when the government, administrative institutions and practices were introduced in the British colonies. There was a continuous changing of British foreign and colonial policies; undue influence was exerted by British officials appointed to colonial service both in Britain and in the colonies; ideological reasons were used for transferring British systems and practices to the colonies. It could be argued that the colonies were compelled to accept a system of government and administration that had the following characteristics:

- ❖ it was beneficial to the mother country;
- ❖ the system of government applied to, transferred to, and made applicable by law in the colonies was designed to ensure that the sovereign power of England remains paramount and that British interests in foreign countries were protected;
- ❖ the system of government and administration created for colonies was founded upon uniformity , the prevention of maladministration and the promotion of civilisation as defined by the British and Christianity throughout, for example Southern Africa; and
- ❖ government institutions such as Parliament, the municipal councils were created not merely for administrative convenience, but in the hope that it might prove a step towards a federation of for example British South Africa.

It could be deduced that the systems established in the colonies did not acknowledge the traditions and customs of the indigenous population. It thus did not cater for the specific norms and values of each tribal authority which existed. The systems were mere duplications of the British system. Thus the colonial systems were not characterised by justness, equality and efficient service delivery. Paternalism and racially based practices were often introduced to the detriment of the indigenous population. These practices became ingrained in the systems which developed under successive White governments and difficult to evaluate without stabilising the current traditional authorities.

The origin of the guidelines or normative factors of the present South African public administration can be found in the approach to and the system introduced by the British government in their colonies. (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1982:35-36).

2.2.3 The history of Public Administration in America

The United States of America has apparently developed a science of Public Administration on its own without any reference to European practices and without any knowledge of similar developments elsewhere. Thus American students of Administration act as though a scientific interest in Public Administration developed fully grown out of Woodrow Wilson's article without any historical antecedent (Langrod, 1961:69). In the USA, the history of administration is traced to the work of the early authors such as Frank Johnson Goodnow and William F. Willoughby and the deans of the public administration movement, namely Leonard D. White and John Gaus. An entirely new literature of Public Administration has been growing rapidly out of the American approach. However it was conceived in a strange isolationism with complete disregard for the historical developments utilised in Europe one or two centuries ago. Thus American studies in Administration tended to ignore the fact that many serious methodological, expository and comparative studies have been made elsewhere and in other languages than English (Langrod, 1961:70). However Woodrow Wilson himself and other early American scholars of Public Administration looked across the Atlantic to Europe for the beginnings of their new science (Langrod, 1961:70).

In the United States of America Woodrow Wilson was the first to consider the importance of the science of Public Administration. In 1887, Woodrow Wilson in his article: The study of Administration argued as follows:

- ❖ separation between politics and public administration;
- ❖ consideration of the government from a commercial perspective;
- ❖ comparative analysis between political and private organisations and political schemes;

- ❖ reaching effective management by training civil servants and assessing their quality

The separation between politics and the public administration has been the subject of fierce debates for a long time and the different points of view on this subject differentiate periods in the science of Public Administration (Anon,2007a:2). The discussion about the separation between politics and public administration continued to play an important role up to 1945. Early authors on the science of Public Administration, Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick, integrated the ideas of earlier theorists like Henri Fayol into a comprehensive theory of administration. The scholars of the science of Public Administration believed that the thoughts of Fayol offered a systematic treatment of management, which was unique at that time. It was opinionated that this could be applied to the management of companies as well as to public institutions. The separation of the two disciplines was discouraged and a single science of administration, could not develop. Later on the science of administration would focus primarily on governmental organisations and succeeded in developing on its own (Anon,2007a:2).

After 1945, the third generation arose and the ideas of the first and second generations were questioned. Initially, the distinction between politics and public administration was strongly familiarised by the third generation, but discussion would continue. Because of the unsuccessful American intervention in Vietnam and the Watergate scandal politics got discredited and in the eighties there was again a plea in favour of bureaucracy especially in America. Public Administration had to detach itself from Political science and is currently reorganised as a separate science (Anon.,2007a:3).

2.2.4 The history of public administration in the South African context

Public administration practised in the Western world was brought to South Africa by the Dutch settlers who settled at the Cape of Good Hope on 6 April 1652. The Dutch practices were adapted by the British after taking over the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch in 1806.

In this section, the development of public administration at the Cape of Good Hope and afterwards in Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, which were the territories that became the Union of South Africa in 1910, will be explained in detail.

2.2.4.1 Cape of Good Hope under the Dutch regime

During the first period of the Dutch ruling the Cape of Good Hope between 1652 and 1795, the inland expansion of the territory was gradual and the population growth was slow. In 1795, the total white population of the Cape of Good Hope was 15 000. The population lived mostly off farming in rural areas. The result was that the public administration needs of the territory were limited and largely restricted to the maintenance of law and order. The second Dutch regime from 1803 to 1806 was too short to result in distinctive developments in the field of public administration.

2.2.4.2 Cape of Good Hope under the British regime

The first period of British rule of the Cape of Good Hope was between 1795 and 1803 and it was too short to lead to major developments in public administration. After the British took permanent possession of the Cape of Good Hope in 1806 there was a bigger inflow of immigrants. The white population increased to 377 000 in 1891. This rapid population increase created a greater need for a new and more comprehensive public administration.

After 1806, there were no drastic changes in the public administration of the Cape of Good Hope. Indeed, from 1834 to 1838, the colony lost a substantial part of its white population to Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal during the Great Trek. Nevertheless, the British governors changed the governmental and public institutions and practices gradually to meet the needs of the changing circumstances. The public administration of the Colony was placed on sound footing from 1850 onwards after the first public service regulations were made, soon after the British annexed the Cape of Good Hope, and subsequently legislation was passed to ensure orderly financial administration of the Colony (Gildenhuis, *et al.*, 1988:81-82).

2.2.4.3 *KwaZulu-Natal*

When the white Voortrekkers settled in Natal after 1834 the settlement had little opportunity to develop into a state before the territory was annexed by Britain on 15 July 1842. The governmental and administrative institutions and practices developed for this Colony corresponded with the existing system in the Cape of Good Hope.

2.2.4.4 *Orange Free State and the Transvaal*

The Voortrekkers managed to develop the Orange Free State and the South African Republic (Transvaal) as independent republics with own governmental and administrative institutions and practices. These two territories however were conquered by Britain to become British colonies after the Anglo-Boer War from 1899 to 1902. The British modelled the governmental and administrative institutions and practices for the Orange Free State and the Transvaal on those existing the Cape of Good Hope (Gildenhuis *et al.*, 1988:82).

2.2.4.5 *Unification*

The result of the aforementioned developments was that by 31 May 1910 (the date on which the four colonies known as the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State were united to form the Union of South Africa, the British colonies mentioned above had more or less similar governmental and administrative institutions and practices. A general characteristic of administrative systems of the four provinces was that they were unified systems for the purposes of financial and personnel administration. Career systems for the purposes of personnel administration existed in each of the four colonies. Each of the four colonies had its own system of municipal government and administration. These systems, however, differed only in detail because all of them were modelled on the system developed in the Cape of Good Hope in 1836 (Gildenhuis *et al.*, 1988:83).

The administrative system of the Union of South Africa established on 31 May 1910 provided for a number of state departments, which functioned under the control of the Treasury as far as financial affairs were concerned and the Public Service

Commission as far as personnel matters were concerned. The number of state departments was changed to meet the needs of changed circumstances and to give effect to the notions of political office-bearers or leading officials. Significant developments after World War 2 between 1939 and 1945 were, firstly the establishment of a number of public corporations at the central level of government. Secondly, the granting of self-government and independence to the black national states after 1948 resulted in the development of 10 further governmental and administrative systems in the area which became the Union of South Africa in 1910. Thirdly, the doubling of the number of municipal authorities after the 1960s as local authorities were established for the urban areas populated by Blacks, Coloureds and Indians (Gildenhuis *et al.*, 1988:83).

2.3 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

According to Van Wyk *et al.* (2003:60) the term Public Administration (with capital “P” and a capital “A”) refers to the academic discipline in Universities, restructured technikons and technical colleges . The term public administration (with a lower case “p” and lower case “a”) refers to the activities performed by officials in supervisory posts, both strategic and operational within the public sector.

Klinger (1983:6-7) states that public administration includes the functions performed by administrative agencies at each level of government and related administrative and judicial activities. Public administration and the agencies, administrators and employees involved, do not exist in a void. A host of environmental factors affect what public administrators do and how they should do it. These factors in the context of public administration include cultural values, environmental conditions, interest groups, political parties and laws.

Values are the underlying beliefs and sentiments that people have concerning the nature of public administration, its purpose and the expected behaviour of public agencies and administrators towards citizens.

Academic thought on Public Administration in South Africa seems to have been in a state of limbo since the late 1960s. This observation is based on the fact that the

dominant approach in literature, discussions and teachings on Public Administration during this time has been based on a generic administrative model. As an analytical tool, the model has become so deeply entrenched in the approach of South African Public Administration teaching that it practically resembles a dogma. This entrenchment has, to a large degree, led to stagnation in academic thought and discussion regarding a general theory of Public Administration (Hanekom, Rowland and Bain, 1986:58).

According to Gladden (1972:3) administration in simpler terms is an ingredient of social activities and therefore universal, operating as a matter of course wherever a few persons operate to attain some objectives. Administration in fact is that sector of social activity performed by officials in supervisory posts which is involved in the running of daily activities. Public administration in particular is the type of administration that is involved in the conduct of communal or public affairs by the various public bodies.

Swain (1987:1) states that public administration involves getting done what governments do. Public administrators' decision making processes involve government employees. However government employees work within a complex environment, which makes heavy demands upon them and leaves them only partially in control of their assigned duties. Public administrators, especially working in the national sphere are also directly affected by international, economic, political and military conditions. The national government strives to develop and maintain effective international relations with other nations.

Marais (1991:221) argues that one of the persistent ideas within the study of Public Administration is the bureaucratic model of Max Weber. It has been thoroughly criticised since it was first propounded. It has been proved that a pure bureaucratic model never existed and cannot exist in practice. Marais (1991:221) further states that the environment of public administration had changed intrinsically since Weber propounded the bureaucratic model; it has also been proved that the demands of modern civil service go far beyond the narrow prescriptions of the Weberian model. As a theory in Public Administration it is too limited to be of use and as an instrument of prediction it falls dismally short; but in spite of this, it remains a point of departure

for many writers (Marais, 1991:221). Weber succeeded in identifying the advantages of hierarchical organisational structure. However it was based on the German political theories. It does not necessarily provide for the traditional African systems which provide for common values and negotiated settlements and authority based on tradition.

As far as governmental institutions are concerned, the Weberian hierarchical model applied in most public institutions. The model ensures that public employees keep to the habitual rules and regulations and thus ensure that policies are being executed as envisaged by the governing structures (Marais,1991:221). Thus the persistence of the bureaucratic model remains in operation, not necessarily due to its academic correctness, but due to its usefulness to persons considering themselves secure within the prescriptive model. The bureaucratic model proposed by Weber is not quoted to prove that it was indeed the most appropriate for early twentieth century public services, it is still possible to utilise strictly defined hierarchical lines, unambiguous lines of authority and adhere to rigidly prescribed organisational structures (Thornhill, 2008:60).

The word bureaucracy carries both favourable and unfavourable meanings. Even in its derogatory sense, bureaucracy has two contradictory meanings. On the one hand, bureaucracy refers to red tape, inefficient, negative, impolite and unhelpful to citizens seeking services. On the other hand it conjures up visions of a body of all too efficient exercisers and often abusers of power arbitrarily deciding matters without due process. Bureaucracy has a neutral or even a favourable meaning in the professional study of administration. Here it refers to the formal rational organisation of relations among persons vested with administrative authority and the staffing of administration with qualified, fulltime, salaried public servants (Fesler, 1980:2-3).

The public service has moved beyond the confines and limitations of the turn of the century. The quality of personnel has improved through increased levels of education and in-service training. More particularly, the level and intensity of participation of public servants in the social, economic and even political life of many countries have increased to such an extent that public servants can no longer afford to be the mere

applicator of rules and regulations but have to contribute to the improvement of existing practices (Marais, 1991:238).

Public administration is part of a much wider sphere of administrative activity, which is universal in its operation. Public administration consists of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfilment of public policy. Government operates at several levels and in different forms as different types of government seem likely to call for different types of public administration. Normally, the government consists of central, regional and local government levels. National government has the assistance of the most important branches of public administration namely the central departments under their ministerial heads and staffed by public officials appointed according to the relevant legislation. In the modern welfare state this administrative set-up has to provide the nation with a great variety of services often calling for widespread decentralization (Gladden, 1966:16).

Nigro and Nigro (1970:11) define public administration as co-operative effort in a public setting. It covers all three branches, which are executive, legislative and judicial, and their interrelationships. It has an important role in the formulation of public policy and is thus a part of the political process. It is different in significant ways from private administration and is closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community.

After World War 2 the concept of public administration expanded. Scientific management and the emphasis upon efficiency were not abandoned, but it was recognised that there was much more to public administration than management techniques and processes. The preoccupation with organisation charts and formal lines of authority changed to include a much broader focus, namely the analysis of organisations as social systems in which the workers interact in many different ways frequently at variance with the directives and views of those officials in charge. The principles approach was repudiated and the quest commenced for administrative science founded on a new basis of behavioural research testing hypotheses in different kinds of organisations (Nigro, 1970:14).

The values and ethics of public officials were dealt with to some extent in the post-World War 2 literature. However, they were not particularly emphasised. In the 1970s, the values and ethics of public officials were made critical issues by the new public administration movement, mostly younger scholars in the field. New public administration postulates that public officials should drop the facade of neutrality and use discretion in administering social and other programmes to protect and advance the interests of the less privileged groups in society. Client- focused administration is recommended along with debureaucratisation, decision-making and decentralisation of administrative processes in the interests of themes in public administration (Nigro, 1970:14-15).

The action of public administration has to do mainly with government institutions producing specific products and services for the benefit of society. Governments are expected to render particular services to society. In some cases, private institutions are not interested in producing certain products and services because there are no profits in such service delivery. The result is that governments have to accept responsibility for rendering these services. (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:8).

According to Hattingh (1986:1), public administration as an activity has definite origins and has developed into what it is today. Public administration is needed when people work together to perform and achieve a common goal together. There is enough proof that orderly communities existed thousands of years before Christ. Wherever people formed communities, there were common needs. The communities were willing to conclude an agreement with government to ensure an orderly existence. In terms of this agreement, the government would govern on behalf of the community. This community meant, inter alia , that the freedom of individuals were limited to a certain extent, but that the government has a duty towards the individual and the community. This duty means that the government has to promote the interests of the community by rendering common or collective services such as defence, water and health to the inhabitants. Each government requires public administration for it to render these collective services. One can therefore trace the origins of public administration to the people who came together to make a living in particular circumstances and within particular geographical localities. As a result of prevailing

circumstances, people have specific needs for collective services to be rendered for the benefit of a community (Hattingh, 1986:1).

The following main factors contribute to the origins and further development of public administration from a Western perspective:

- ❖ Human needs: The most basic human needs for survival are water, food and shelter. The earliest humans lived on the basic means provided by nature. Nature did not always make it easy for people to meet these primary needs. There is therefore an important relationship between the level of development of a particular community and the community' level of needs for services rendered by government through public administration.
- ❖ Common needs: Settled communities were formed because people are social beings and can meet basic needs easier in a group. Initially these settlements were in small groups and individual members could meet basic needs. As the number of people in communities increased and people became more sophisticated, it became increasingly difficult for needs to be met by individuals. People can for instance buy food, clothing, a house, a car, pay for water and electricity. However owing to restrictions placed on individuals by the orderly coexistence of people, it has become impossible for individuals to meet basic needs for water and electricity. The result is that these services have to be rendered by someone else. Typical needs which cannot be met by the communities include the provision of water and electricity, refuse removal and roads. Individual needs become common needs.
- ❖ Increasing needs for services: In today's sophisticated communities, governments must render a multitude of services to the citizens. Owing to urbanisation and the consequent high concentration of people in one place, the need for services grow along with cities. In South Africa there is an increasing need for government services not only due to population growth but many communities are relatively disadvantaged in respect of basic needs met.

- ❖ Need for better distribution of services: The common need for guidance and services across the country was a decisive factor in the division of government authority and services into three levels: central government, regional government and local government. The common need for security, for example, can be met better by central government since the central governing body is responsible for protecting the country's inhabitants against external aggression and internal strife. At regional level, provincial governments can meet the needs experienced specifically at regional level, for example the development of the region. At local government level, the need for specific services could be better met by local authorities such as the provision of water and electricity (Du Toit and Van der Waldt, 1997:22-24).

According to Fesler (1980:1-2), public administration was never defined as a field that commands general assent. Examples of public administration abound from the prosaic delivery of mail, collection of trash and licensing of motor vehicles to the dramatic putting of a man on the moon and the dispatching of peace corps volunteers. Hodgkinson (1978:151), contends that one of the difficulties of discussing administration with understanding lies in the fact that some of the text books lack scientific substance and do not provide a clear meaning of public administration.

The difficulty of matching the stated goal with the administrative requirements are compounded in the modern complex organisation by what can be called the hierarchic dilemma. What occurs, is that the distribution of power becomes out of phase with the distribution of organisational rewards. In the pathological sense, monetary and status accrue disproportionately to the administrative responsibility, while employees become increasingly conscious of power implications of their technological expertise. This leads to conflict in the hierarchy lacking specialisation. Thus insecure or incompetent administrators may exacerbate the rift by resorting to reaction 'dramaturgy' (Hodgkinson, 1978:154).

Another increasingly recognised deficiency in administration arises from the interaction of workload, time and information flow. Managers notoriously tend to dispose of time as a resource through diaries and structured appointment routines. They are often ostensibly very busy employees who appear to work longer, if not

harder than their fellow organisation members (Hodgkinson, 1978:155). However the question should be posed. Do they produce the results anticipated?

2.3.1 Foundations of public administration

Public administration is a special field of activity characterised by historically foundations, which serve as guidelines and norms according to which the activities of those in public employment have to be guided. The guidelines, which can be identified but not quantified, can be divided into three main groupings namely the nature of the political dispensation, societal values and norms and the rules of administrative law (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1995:18). The three groups as described briefly below are particularly identifiable in formally organised states with stable governments reasonable for satisfying indentified societal needs:

2.3.1.1 Nature of the political dispensation

The Republic of South Africa is a democratic state (Constitution,1996, section 2). Thus it is obvious that the principles according to which a democratic state functions should be present in the activities of those in public service:

- ❖ every political office-bearer and every appointed public official should, in the execution of official work, show responsibility to render work of such a high quality that accountability should be ensured;
- ❖ official action at the executive level should acknowledge political supremacy.

2.3.1.2 Social values and norms

Since societal values and norms do not stand apart from government and administration, no official may act contrary to them. Acknowledging societal values and norms entail the execution of administrative, managerial and functional activities by the official in such a way as to show:

- ❖ honesty and probity;
- ❖ fairness and justness towards every citizen, irrespective of race, language, religion or political views;
- ❖ diligence and the willingness to make sacrifices;
- ❖ respect for the religious values inherent in a community;
- ❖ the endeavour for efficiency by ensuring that the greatest measure of qualitative and quantitative satisfaction of societal needs is achieved with the resources available

The social values and norms do not address current special issues such as equity and gender equity. In contemporary society equity is a major concern and political sensitive matter. Therefore is should specifically mentioned even in the case of traditional authorities. In most cases(except Modjadji) the lineage is patriarchal and does not accept women as chiefs. Thus, although the Constitution, 1996 provides for equality in the Bill of Rights it is still not fully accepted in all communities or tribes. Thus, it remains a matter that requires attention.

2.3.1.3 Rules of administrative law

In performing administrative, managerial and functional activities public officials should take into account both the rules of natural justice and the rule of law. Thus it follows that:

- ❖ public activities can be undertaken only once they have been authorised by a legislative institution (Parliament, municipal council);
- ❖ public officials may not exceed authority;
- ❖ public officials may not cede authority to others without due processes are honoured;

- ❖ prescriptions regarding administrative activities should be followed rigorously (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1995:19).

Stillman (1991:5) states that administration is undoubtedly a science and no science can be improved if discoveries and observations of successive generations are not connected in the order in which they occur. One person invents a means of executing; the latter reduces a truth to a formula and human gather fruits of individual experiences on its way and gradually forms a science. Democracy pushed to its furthest limits is prejudicial to the art of government and for this reason it is better adapted to people already versed in the conduct of government. This is the environment within which managers in the public sector have to manage to achieve goals stated in political terms.

2.3.2 The nature of public administration

The co-ordination of humans and materials are required to achieve specific goals. Like administration in the private organisations, public administration is concerned with accomplishing identifiable purposes in public institutions. There are two ways in which the term public administration can be used. Public administration is concerned with the achievement of goals to benefit society as a whole as opposed to goals of e.g trade unions and businesses. Public administration is therefore concerned with servicing the state (MacRae and Pitt, 1980:7).

The state is uniquely placed in a society. It operates in the name of its people. In terms of administration, the state contains a specialised group of people, namely the “government” which establishes priorities for the delivery of services. The government, therefore can be said to provide policies aimed at establishing the goals or ends to be attained for society while public administration is concerned with creating the framework for achieving them. Public administrators deal with the activities as identified by government as compared with private administrators who are concerned with the goals of private organisations (MacRae and Pitt, 1980:7).

Traditionally, public administration is considered as the accomplishing side of government. It is supposed to consist of all activities involved in carrying out the

policies of elected political office bearers and activities associated with the fulfilment of those policies. This focus on the means and ends of government defines public administration, at the start of the twenty first century, perhaps the most important field in the study of governmental systems (Starling, 2002:1-2).

According to Caiden (1982:4), some social problems in societies do not respond adequately to individual initiatives. Effective remedial action requires the organised efforts of the whole community. Such collective problems range from child-rearing, food gathering and protection from wild beasts in primitive societies to urban blight, carcinogens and delinquency in contemporary societies. How people are organised as a public collectively in which mutual obligations are recognised and duties to handle common problems and achieve common goals, constitute the subject matter of public administration.

Contemporary society is an administered society and large organisations dominate the social landscape, though small organisations provide the background, foreground and much of the interest in the picture. There are scholars who argue that administration is the same whether in business firms, government agencies or non-profit and private concerns. Schools of management exist that are premised on the notion of generic management even though within the curricula of those institutions are divisions of public management and courses specifically focusing according to these proponents on public management. If there is nothing unique to public organisations, then there is no need to study public management as a separate field. However, such views ignore the unique role of politics in public services and thus in managing such services (Lerner and Wanat, 1992:1-2).

According to Cloete (1986:3), the words public and administration are used to refer to the administrative 'processes' (which are in fact functions), which must be carried out and which are inextricably linked with the functional activities (just as oil and fuel are inextricably linked with the engine of a motor vehicle) of the various public institutions. Examples of functional activities are nursing in the case of hospital and education in the case of training and development. However it must be borne in mind that wide ranging public activities are usually classified into three main groups, namely:

legislative,

executive

judicial activities

It should also be explained that the term public administration is in fact a broad term used to describe the administrative activities carried alongside the many functional activities of the different categories of public institutions.

People often erroneously assume the introduction of public management into the theory and the practice of public administration suspends, subsumes or replaces that discipline. This fallacious assumption is especially prevalent among those who view public administration as merely a process. Public administration is a system consisting of identifiable functions. Public management consists of functions carried out within public administration. The study of public management does not suspend the need to study public administration as a whole with its own societal contexts, structures and functions. In this sense, public management represents foci of separation within public administration. Theoretically and practically such focuses are useful for managing public institutions. These foci do not negate the need to study other aspects of public administration (Schwella, Burger, Fox and Muller, 1996:5).

Public administration is aimed at policy execution and also in policy formulation. It has other meanings as well, but these provided above are sufficient to orientate and offer clarity to introduce the subject. What a government accomplishes for society depends on what policies are formulated and adopted and on how effectively these are put into practice.

Administration is a function common to all group efforts public, civil or military, large scale or small scale. It is a function in a department store, bank, a university or high school, a railroad and a city government. Administration in its broadest sense is a generic noun. When the adjective public is added it defines administration as applicable to the public sector i.e. to governmental institutions. Thus the development of a public school, a public road and government department fall within the domain of

public administration. Although it varies in form and objects and although the administration of public and private affairs differ at many points, there is an underlying similarity in the function wherever observed. Defined in the broadest terms public administration consists of all those operations having for their purpose the fulfilment of public policy. This definition covers a multitude of particular operations in many fields, such as the delivery of letters, the sale of public land, the negotiation of a treaty, the award of compensation to an injured workman, the quarantine of a sick child, the removal of litter from a park, the manufacturing of plutonium and licensing the atomic energy (White, 1955:1). Thus in the public sector efficient public administration is a precondition for efficient policy execution.

2.3.3 The purpose and scope of public administration

The immediate objective of public administration is the most efficient utilisation of resources at the disposal of employees. Good management seeks the elimination of waste, the conservation and effective use of people and materials and the protection of the welfare and interests of employees. In their broader context, the ends of administration are the ultimate objects of the state itself such as the maintenance of peace and order, the progressive achievement of justice, the instruction of the young, protection against disease and insecurity and the adjustment and compromise of conflicting groups and interests. What administration is called upon to do varies with people's expectations of the services they should receive from government.

Two centuries ago most people expected little but oppression from government. A century ago people expected chiefly to be left alone. Now they expect a wide range of services and protection from internal strife and external aggression. Throughout the Western world, the demands made by people upon governments have increased. This trend inevitably means more administrative agencies, more officials and more urgent demands for administrative skills (White, 1955:3-4).

From a Western perspective and based on the requirements of a contemporary state public administration could be discussed and justified under the following headings.

However it should be noted that in a traditional African system these functions cannot be classified as rigidly as outlined due to customs and traditions.

2.3.3.1 Policy formulation and execution

When the government has adopted a policy, it means that the elected policy-makers have enacted e.g a law forbidding, directing and permitting members of the society to behave in specified ways. The law is a merely printed document. The task of the public administrator is to translate statute into changed behaviour by individual members of society, to convert words into action, form into substance (Fesler, 1980:2-3).

Administration's second role is in the policy formulation process. This role is played at two stages of the process as follows:

- ❖ before the constitutionally empowered legislature and chief executive have made the policy decisions;
- ❖ after the statutes have been enacted or issued on executive orders and passed on to administration.

At the first stage, proposals for statutes and for amendments of statutes flow from many sources. Administrative agencies are among the most important sources of policy (Fesler, 1980:2-3).

2.3.3.2 Large- Scale and small-scale administration

Public administration is large-scale administration. The American federal governments' s total receipts from public in the calendar year 1976 equalled a third of the combined sales of the country's 500 largest industrial corporations. The government of the 10 000 municipalities with not more than 1000 inhabitants to serve is clearly engaged in small-scale administration (Fesler, 1980:4-9).

In South Africa housing and the eradication of informal settlements remain at the forefront of the national government infrastructure investment plans. It impacts significantly on employment creation and poverty reduction. In the past three years, the municipal infrastructure grant programme has spent about R32 billion. Over the next three years, infrastructure grants to municipalities is R67 billion. A further R45 billion will be spent on the Breaking New Ground housing programme. The investment in roads and public transport constitute the largest areas of expansion of public sector spending. They are prioritised as part of the national government 's response to the current deterioration in employment and economic activity (Manuel,2009:15).

2.4 THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

For many years, scholars of Public Administration ignored managerial philosophy because it was argued that the management philosophy examines the utilisation of means of production for gaining profit, while public administration is aimed at studying government institutions which are service orientated. Gradually it was realised, however, that administration as organised institutional group action can also be managed (Botes, Bynard and Roux, 1992:240).

Traditional systems and institutions were not designed to respond to demands for social and economic developments. They were expected to be responsive to the needs of the people. They did not recognise the function of rectifying malfunctioning social systems. They were not concerned with the encouragement or support of economic growth or the distribution of the benefits of that growth as with the allocation of resources to assure continuing profits and revenue to government or rather to those who control the government (Gant, 1979:18-19).

Gant (1979:19-20) states that the term Development Administration was coined in 1955 or 1956. It seemed to be a simple and clarifying way of distinguishing the focus of administration on the support and management of development from the administration of law and order. In some respects, it is the counterpart of the term *development economics* which came into renewed and heightened usage with the growing impact of planning in newly independent countries after World War 2.

There is general agreement that it is useful to distinguish development administration from other types of administration as a separate focus for research. The term *development administration* became a fashionable expression at some stage in the past, but is somewhat artificial. Its meaning is unexplored and deceptively vague and it is in danger of becoming merely a slick expression for efficient public administration. Development Administration adds nothing to professional vocabulary or views about the challenges facing public administration. To assert that development administration is the process of guiding an organisation towards the achievement of development objectives tells little more than that development administration is the administration of development (Waldo, Savage, Gunnell, Diamant, Ilcham, Sherwood, Jowitt and Bock, 1970:47- 48). It could therefore be deduced that no justification exists for the term development administration as all administration is used at development.

2.4.1 New Public Management

In the last quarter century there has been a significant shift within the field of Public Administration. Traditional values and norms have been undermined in a number of ways. One aspect of this trend is the emergence of a concept which became known as New Public Management (NPM). At the most basic level this concept promotes the public sector use of private sector management techniques. Due to a number of pressures, NPM spread across the world influencing various states. However, there are reservations over the general applicability of NPM, especially in the developing world. Those who favour a more traditional approach believe that more must be done to address the issues of capacity building before NPM reforms are implemented (Baird,2004:1).

NPM is guided by the principle that the economic market should be used as a model for political and administrative relationships; however, there is no clear consensus in the precise definition of NPM with different scholars and practitioners focusing on different aspects.

One basic definition that encompasses the major themes consists of the following five key factors:

- ❖ the adoption of private sector management practices in the public

sector;

- ❖ an emphasis on efficiency;
- ❖ a movement away from input controls, rules and procedures toward output measurement and performance targets;
- ❖ a preference for private ownership, competitive provisioning and contracting out of public services; and
- ❖ the devolution of management control with improved reporting and monitoring mechanisms.

Another important aspect of NPM is the rigid separation between policymaking and service delivery, which signifies a shift away from the policy-administration continuum (Baird,2004:2). When taken together, these five factors will form the definition of NPM .

Alongside this concept is the concept of capacity building which is extremely important in any discussion of public administration in the developing world. Capacity building relates to the enhancement of capacity, where capacity means the ability to carry out a particular task or function. NPM has two dimensions: internal organisational capacity, of human resources, management or leadership, financial resources, physical/logistic resources, and information resources; and external or institutional context within which the mobilisation and use of organisational capacity occurs which are factors emanating from the economic, social and political environment. In this context the task or function which is to be carried out, is that of administration, and as such capacity building refers to the promotion of the resources and environment necessary for efficient administration (Baird,2004:2).

While NPM deals with the content of reform, capacity refers to the ability of Administration as a whole to ensure efficient service delivery. For many scholars who study the developing world, NPM should be a secondary thought. It should be addressed once capacity building measures have been introduced, enhancing the basic skills and tools of administration. After steps have been taken to improve capacity then it may be appropriate to advocate NPM reforms, but for many experts in public administration the initial goal should be limited to the establishment of traditional administration (Baird,2004:2).

The term *new Public Management* was first used in 1991 as a label to denote recent administrative reforms. Thus it is important to emphasise that reform agents did not

use this term when launching administrative reforms in the 1980s and early 1990s, even if the reform content was later classified as new public management. In contrast to general change processes, reform involves deliberate change. To label new public management a new approach has an element of intentional effort by political office bearers to change the structure and processes followed by public sector (Christensen, 2002:267).

New public management consists of two main features. The first one is the primacy of economic norms and values. The second feature is the hybrid character of new public management. The abovementioned features will be discussed in detail below.

2.4.2 The primacy of economic norms and values

The main feature of new public management is its one-dimensional emphasis on economic norms and values. This implies an ideological dominance of economic norms and subordination to them of many traditionally legitimate norms and values e.g broader political concerns, sector political goals, professional expertise, and different considerations becoming more evident. In new public management, this dominance is also connected to strong and often not well-founded opinions based on economic theories and management theories about how an efficiency focus should change the formal organisation of the public sector, the procedures used, the expertise needed and its relationship to the private sector.

New public management is essentially a concept of generic management because it is argued that management faces similar challenges and hence should be approached in similar ways not differentiated according to structure the environment within which management takes place. The new model of public management challenges both the traditional notion of the welfare state and the role of the citizen in the state (Christensen, 2002:268-269).

2.4.3 The hybrid character new public management

Even though the new public management cultivates economic values and objectives it is still a loose and multifaceted concept, embracing diverse elements which comprise

a kind of shopping basket for reformers of public administration. The main components of new public management are hands-on professional management which allows for active, visible, discretionary control of an organisation by officials who are authorised to manage; explicit standards of performance; greater emphasis on output control; increased competition; contracts; devolution; desegregation of units; deregulation; customer service orientation and private sector management techniques. Tension arising from the hybrid character of the new public management, which combines economic organisation theory and management theory, could detract from the main focus i.e on the delivery of services.

The tensions result from centralising the tendencies inherent in contractualism as against the revolutionary tendencies of managerialism. The first set of ideas comes from economic organisational theories such as public choice and principle agent theory and focuses on the primacy of representative government over bureaucracy as a corps of appointed officials. The implication of this paradigm is that the power of political leaders must be reinforced to retain their authority against possible bureaucratic tendencies. This concentration of power requires attention to centralisation, co-ordination and control, and contractual arrangements are main devices for attaining the stated goal (Christensen, 2002:269).

2.4.4 The new institutional framework: national and provincial government

The three branches of government are the legislature, executive and judiciary. The legislature consists of Parliament, provincial legislature, local government. The legislature approves legislation. The executive authority consists of the cabinet or government, provincial executive council and the council itself in the local government sphere and it carries out policy. The judiciary consists of the courts, and it interprets such legislation.

Government departments in the national sphere are headed politically by ministers who are also members of the executive authority. There are also links between the administration and the legislature, in that the legislature body authorises policy, which is implemented by the officials under the direction of the respective political office bearers. There are also links between the administration and the judicial arm of

government, in that the courts can review the actions of government (Christensen, 2002:269).

2.5 THE FUNCTIONS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration consists of the six generic administrative functions as basis for managerial functions. They are policy-making, organising, public finance, and public personnel management, procedures, control and rendering account.

The six generic functions of administration are all essential building blocks in the practice of any public institution and no institution can function on efficiently or will continue to exist without all these building blocks. On the one hand, there are the administrative functions and actions necessary for determining and carrying out aims and projects and, on the other hand, there is the functional or technical component requiring specialised knowledge, for example, the construction of dams and roads, medical care, hospital services, educational services and customs and excise inspections (Botes, Fourie and Roux, 1992:240).

The generic administrative and managerial functions will be discussed in detail below.

2.5.1 Policy- making

Public administration comprises various functions. One of them is public policy. Policy formulation influences service provision at every governmental sphere. It is of vital importance for the communities to participate in policy making in order to improve service delivery.

Hanekom and Thornhill (1995:54) define *policy* as a desired course of action and interaction which is to serve as a guideline in the allocation of resources necessary to realise societal goals and objectives, decided upon by the legislator and made known either in writing or verbally. In the public sector, policies are the output of the political process and serve as initiators for executive action.

There are always a considerable number of factors that serve to change the nature and the extent of the activities undertaken by public institutions. These factors must always be monitored and taken into account for the purpose of making new policies or adapting existing policies (Cloete, 1998:133). Cloete (1998:133-136) describes the main factors that influence public policy as follows:

- ❖ **Circumstances:** This means the total environment as determined by the time and place in which the authorities operate. It includes the state of community life as regards economic, technological and social matters. Even geographical and climatic factors can exert an influence on these.
- ❖ **Needs and expectations of the population:** Every public institution exists to satisfy the real needs and the justified expectations of the population. Public institutions will never start providing services without a need of having been identified. There will first be a period during which the public will become aware of a need, and then the public or interest groups will start making representation to the authorities to satisfy the need.
- ❖ **Policies of political parties:** In most states, there will always be two or more opposing political parties in rivalry to gain power and rule the country. The parties base their claims to power on their respective views with regard to various policies and these views may fundamentally affect the activities of the executive institutions.
- ❖ **Activities and representation of interest groups:** In the Republic of South Africa, as in every other state, members of the population have created numerous associations with diverse interests for example, workers or employee associations and industrialists. These groups are engaged in making representations to various authorities about changes in policy.
- ❖ **Personal views of political executive office-bearers:** Political executive office bearers are ideally placed to influence the policies of the institutions entrusted to them. These office-bearers are leaders in legislative institutions, which have the final say in policy matters.

- ❖ Research and investigations as well as the views and experience of officials: Nowadays public institutions do research on an ever-increasing scale and this inevitably has an influence on policy matters.

Policy-making is inherently political and is an outcome of a political process that involves negotiation, bargaining, persuasion and compromise. Policies involve the participation of government institutions, political parties, interest groups and other role-players such as the media (Van Niekerk *et al.*, 2001:113).

Dunn (1994:15) states that the process of policy analysis is a series of intellectual activities carried out within a process comprised of activities that are essentially political. These political activities can be described usefully as the policy-making process and visualised as a series of interdependent phases developed through time: agenda-setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy assessment. Policy analysts may produce information relevant to one, several, or all the phases of the policy-making process, depending on the problem faced by the client for policy analysis.

According to Van der Walldt and Du Toit (1999:210), policy can be initiated through interest groups introducing policy. The role of public managers in this regard is to involve all role-players from society and encourage public participation in the policy-making process. Public managers should constantly make a needs analysis in various communities to improve the general welfare. Public managers serve as a means of communication between society and the legislative authority through which policy-relevant information is conveyed.

There are many ways in which people try to affect the degree of attention given to particular items. These people are sometimes called policy entrepreneurs and are willing to invest personal time and energy in projects such as publicity campaigns, direct contact with decision makers, petition drives and many others. Policy entrepreneurs can be involved in major institutions, such as the media, in this process political parties and interest groups that provide access to decision-makers (Denhardt, 2006:52).

Members of the public and non-profit organisations play important roles in building the policy agenda and shaping legislative policy, however the involvement in policy-making as part of the implementation helps to expedite the process (Denhardt, 2006:54).

2.5.2 Public human resources management

The South African public institutions increased constantly in number since 1910. The activities of the existing institutions also increased. These expansions were caused by a number of factors. Firstly, the population of the Republic of South Africa increased rapidly from a total of about 6 000 000 in 1911 to 22 000 000 in 1970 and an estimated 41 000 000 in 1996 (Cloete, 1997:10).

Secondly, the Republic of South Africa underwent substantial development particularly during and after the period of the World War 2 between 1939 and 1945. This development required more and more services from the increasing number of public institutions; for example, education and tax collection services increased in pace with economic development.

Thirdly, the educational development of the population created new needs, which had to be satisfied by public institutions. For example, there was an increasing demand for improved schools and universities.

Fourthly, the people could learn because of better education, improve their economic and social circumstances with the result that they required and could afford better services, which were previously regarded as luxuries, for example, communication, transport and recreational facilities and services.

Fifthly the increasing prosperity of the growing population also results in social dilemmas such as drug and alcohol abuse as well as criminality which have to be combated by public institutions.

Sixthly, as a result of scientific and technological developments, public institutions can undertake services, which were previously beyond their reach. For example, the

research findings in the fields of social and natural sciences cause the activities of public institutions to change and expand. For example new developments in medicine allows people to grow older and thus require more social assistance.

The aforementioned developments brought about needs for a greater number of goods and services to be rendered by the public institutions. The required services also become more complicated demanding the employment of more skilled workers (Cloete, 1997:10-11).

The Constitution 1996, provides for Parliament to be the legislative authority in and for the Republic. In practice, it means that all human resource administration in the Republic of South Africa will be subject to the provisions of the Constitution and acts of Parliament. This statement applies in particular to the public service where the Public Service Commission Act, no. 30 of 1996, the Public Service Act 1994, Proclamation 103 of 1994 and other pieces legislation prescribe the personnel policies and administration.

According to Schwella *et al.* (1996:13), public resource management is not practised in a vacuum. As public resources are used to pursue policy objectives, it becomes clear that a number of contextual variables influence the management of these resources. This notion also finds support in the open system theory where the influence of the environment is an important variable in describing and explaining management and organisational phenomena.

The environment of public resource management can be conceptualised using general or specific environmental components as departure points. The environment can be divided further into the components of its general environment, namely the political environment, the economic environment, the social environment, the cultural environment and the technological environment. It also distinguishes specific participants, namely regulators, suppliers, consumers and competitors (Schwella, *et al.* 1996:14).

Human resources planning is a critical subset of an organisation's strategic planning efforts. Without a thoughtful plan, each line manager must decide how to allocate

resources and prioritise unit activities with guidance only from the next higher echelon. Agencies that take the time to plan are better able to co-ordinate the efforts of various units towards agreed upon objectives.

Planning is a fact of agency life whether agency managers wish it or not. Few organisations can afford to remain static because of changes in the agency's environment. Shortfalls in projected revenues, for example, frequently spur public executives to rethink the resources that are allocated to various components of the mission. The election of a new public executive whose view of government radically differs from that of the previous administration may stimulate a spate of planning activities in agencies (Sylvia, 1994:129).

2.5.3 Public finance

Management consists of various principles and functions, of which financial management is one manifestation. These principles and functions form the basis of performance to meet objectives within the resources available. Financial management focuses on using limited public resources to ensure effective use of the public money and assets, to achieve value for money in meeting the objective of the government in delivering services to the public (Kuye, Thornhill, Fourie, Brynard, Crous, Mafunisa, Roux, van Dijk and van Rooyen, 2003:100).

Just as a person cannot initiate a business undertaking without money, a public institution also cannot initiate any work without money. However, all public institutions are dependent on the citizens for their income. For this reason, special legislative directives have to be followed in the procurement and expenditure of money in the public sector (Cloete, 1992:133).

Financial management issues in the public sector have become the focus of increasing attention in recent years. Cuts in the public expenditure have been the cause. These cuts have put pressure on public authorities to maintain services with limited budget allocations and to do so, they have to improve their financial analysis so that action can be taken to improve value for money (Henley, Liekerman, Holtham and Perrin, 1983:1).

The public sector is both extremely diverse and extremely large. Even ignoring the large sums expended on transfer payments require good accounting and financial control, the total expenditure of the public sector on employing people, goods and services in carrying out both trading and public services is large (Henley *et al.*, 1983:3).

In public sector organisations, there is rarely a bottom-line figure, such as profit, which can provide a single evaluative measure of performance. This is because many services are provided out of taxation, either centrally or locally and do not generate sales revenue, which can be the basis for calculating profit or loss. Examples include primary and secondary state education, defence, and the national health service (Coombs and Jenkins, 1994:30). The general government expenditure is the expenditure of national and local government excluding transfers between them such as the Revenue Support Grant to local governments' medium-term financial strategy (Coombs and Jenkins, 1994:4).

Gildenhuys (1997:50-51) identifies the following democratic values, which should serve as basic principles in public financial management:

- ❖ the first value which can be established is that public financial decision-making should always aim at the most reasonable and equitable way in which the financial resources can be allocated, as well as the most efficient and effective way in which financial resources can be applied to satisfy the collective needs of the public;
- ❖ the second value is the fact that the utilisation of public financial resources must satisfy collective public needs optimally;
- ❖ the third value is based on the tenets of participatory democracy, namely direct or indirect participation by the tax payers, consumers and users of public services in the financial decision-making process;

- ❖ the fourth value is the principle that no tax or other charges can be collected from taxpayers without their consent and this tax burden must be distributed in a reasonable and equitable way;
- ❖ the fifth value is the fact that only the collective body of elected political representatives has authority to introduce taxes, to collect them and to decide how and on what they shall be spent;
- ❖ the sixth value is the principle of responsibility and accountability of elected political representatives to the taxpayers for the collection and spending of taxes and other income;
- ❖ the seventh value is that of sensitivity and responsiveness requiring political representatives to be sensitive and respond to the collective needs of the community;
- ❖ the eighth value emanates from the requirement for satisfying collective needs, namely the executive authority's responsibility for efficient and effective programme execution;
- ❖ the ninth value and without doubt a very significant one derived from the tenets of democracy is social equity, is emphasising the concept of social equity in maintaining high ethical and moral standards;
- ❖ the tenth and one of the most cardinal values of democracy is that all activities regarding public financial management and administration must take place in public and not under cover in secrecy or so-called confidentiality.

Although these values appear to be generic, they do not acknowledge traditional authority systems. In traditional society a monetary value was not necessarily attached to labour or a community. Land e.g was not sold and was not owned by an individual. Thus it did not have monetary value. Land was a common asset and was merely allowed to a family to use as long as they remained subjects.

2.5.4 Organising

The statement that administration takes place as soon as two or more individuals co-operate in achieving a common objective means that organising has to take place. *Organising* consists of classifying and grouping functions as well as allocating the groups of functions to institutions and workers in an orderly pattern so that everything the workers do will be aimed at achieving the predetermined common objectives (Cloete, 1998:165).

In the public sector, political considerations always take precedence over other matters. Attention is always given first to the political organisation of a country since this provides a superstructure within which organisational arrangements for all functions can be involved in running the country namely the legislative, the executive (political and administrative) and the judicial functions. In the Republic of South Africa, the electorate is the source of political power and the views of the voters are voiced in Parliament, which is subject to the provisions of the Constitution, which is the highest and most decisive law in the country. The voters entrust their power to their elected representatives who serve in various legislative assemblies. The present political dispensation in the Republic of South Africa provides for the following the spheres of government (Constitution, 1996, section 141):

- ❖ the national sphere, with Parliament as legislative and President and Cabinet as executive;
- ❖ the provincial sphere, consisting of the nine provinces, each of which has its own provincial legislature, premier and executive council; and
- ❖ The local sphere consisting of the numerous municipal councils with their own executive types (the council is also the executive authority).

2.5.5 Procedure

After policy has been formulated, the organising and financing functions have been completed and personnel have been appointed, the work can commence. Two or more functionaries will normally co-operate to attain a stated policy objective. The

particular organisational arrangements will to some extent compel persons to unite their efforts in an orderly manner. However, the individuals may still hold differing views on how to perform a specific task. To ensure that everyone in a specific organisational unit co-operates in attaining the policy objective and does not waste time in the process, it is essential for specific work procedures to be laid down for each task. This will result in efficient work performance and work being done in the shortest time, using the minimum amount of labour at the lowest cost (Cloete, 1998:248).

2.5.6 Control and rendering account

A fundamental requirement of public administration in any state is that the population represents the highest authority and that everything that the political office-bearers and officials do, should be to the benefit of the citizens individually and collectively. The population itself can of course not exercise the legislative, executive and judicial functions to satisfy the needs of the public. For this reason, legislative, executive and judicial institutions were created and staffed by functionaries to satisfy community needs. The population also gave the functionaries authority to perform their respective functions. However, the people must exercise control to ensure that functionaries use their powers wisely and efficiently to further the wellbeing of the community (Cloete, 1998:245).

The exercise of control in the public sector can have one objective; namely to ensure that account is given in public for everything the authorities do or neglect to do, so that all citizens can observe exactly what is being done to further their individual interests. Control in the public sector therefore culminates in meetings of legislatures that are open to the public and form the apex of the citizenry. To ensure that the executive authorities answer for their deeds during sessions of the legislatures, it has been necessary to introduce means of detecting any wrongful action that they might have taken. Control in the public sector consists of two parts, as follows:

- ❖ internal control, which is exercised by the executive functionaries,
- ❖ external control giving account in the legislatures (Cloete, 1998:265).

A major challenge exists concerning accountability of traditional leaders. In the case of Parliament a provincial legislature or municipal council, the elected representatives are accountable to an electorate. Traditional leaders are not elected and can therefore not be required to account to an electorate. Their positions are hereditary and a leader cannot be dismissed in the ordinary sense of government for maladministration. Therefore accountability should be addressed in any proposed system in which traditional authorities are assigned specific responsibility.

2.6 CONCLUSION

The theoretical underpinnings of the study were presented in this chapter. This was done through a literature survey, which was aimed at developing a framework for the rest of the study. The chapter focused on several important aspects of public administration.

The history of public administration was discussed in detail stating that simple nomadic and tribal societies have their administrative ways and means, though usually of an informal nature. The chapter discussed the history and development of public administration because definitive types of public administration emerged in parallel with the development of the state, whose beginnings can be discerned in the small urban units as early as the sixth millennium B.C. Throughout history in many parts of the world, the state's development has been varied and its supporting administrative machinery increasingly complex. The historical antecedents within the European and American contexts were discussed in detail. The history of public administration in the South African context was briefly discussed.

The chapter discussed the foundations of public administration because public administration is a special field of activity characterised by identifiable foundations, which can serve as guidelines and value norms according to which the activities of those in public employ should take place. The nature of public administration was also outlined because traditionally public administration is considered as the accomplishment of government goals.

The chapter covered the scope of public administration because the study of public administration is concerned with the administrative functions, structure and assumptions of government as well as the study of institutions of government, which are the essential bases on which this should be based. The functions of public administration were also discussed in detail in this chapter because they are the essential building blocks in the practice of any public institution and no institution can function efficiently or continue without all these guidelines.

Chapter 3 will mainly focus on the effects of the government environment on traditional leaders. Different government environments will be discussed in detail.