LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN SERVICE DELIVERY AT THE GREATER TUBATSE MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA

by

Lucas Kgashana Shai (14108722)

Submitted in fulfilment for the degree

MAGISTER ADMINISTRATIONIS in Public Administration

In the

School of Public Management and Administration

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

at the

University of Pretoria

Study supervisor: Prof J.O. Kuye

June 2017
DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my late father, Mokgoko Shai. Your words of encouragement were not in vain.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank God Almighty for the ability and strength He gave me to successfully complete this dissertation.

To my study supervisor, Prof J.O. Kuye, thank you very much for your professional guidance and support. This study would not have been completed without you. Thank you for believing in my ability to pursue this study.

To my lovely wife, Hellen, thank you for your support during my research. Thank you for taking charge of the home chores when I worked peculiar hours to complete this dissertation.

To my four kids, Rirhanzu, Khano and twin boys (Umpha and Ompha), I know you missed my attention and love because I needed time to focus on my studies. Thank you for your patience and time to assist me to complete this dissertation.

To my brother, Mmakanaga, I hope this serves as a motivation for you to also complete your studies.

To my colleagues, especially Theresia, thank you for your unfailing support.

Lastly, I would like to thank the GTM officials for giving me an opportunity to conduct this study at their institution.
DECLARATION

I, Lucas Kgashana Shai, hereby declare that this research study entitled “Leadership and governance in service delivery at the Greater Tubatse municipality, Limpopo Province, South Africa.” is my own original work and has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted to any other institution of higher learning in order to obtain an academic qualification. I further declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and duly acknowledged by means of comprehensive list of references.

Shai LK  
Signature 

28 June 2017  
Date 

L.K. Shai (14108722)
ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken as a result of poor service delivery in communities due to ineffective leadership which lacks knowledge, skills as well as deficient governance which lacks accountability, transparency and community participation. The study was conducted at the GTM in the Limpopo province, South Africa. A qualitative research approach was adopted. The research design encapsulated a case study which aimed to describe and investigate a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context.

This was a non-empirical study because an inductive form of reasoning was adopted. Furthermore, the study encompassed the collection and analysis of existing information. A documentary study and secondary analysis was utilised to gather information including the non-probability strategy and a case study. Documentary and secondary sources were selected to provide the most suitable information to respond to the research questions as well as achieve the objectives of the study.

Based on the selected literature reviewed and the findings, the study concluded that for the GTM to improve its service delivery, it should adopt effective leadership and good governance. Effective leadership should steer the municipality in the right direction while good governance is regarded as a cornerstone of democratic dispensation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cllr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CoGHSTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COPE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESKOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FBW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KPI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEPAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAHRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SALGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCOPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSDF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UDM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page no</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 ORIENTATION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE GTM</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.1 Informed consent and voluntary participation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.2 Potential harm to participants</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.3 Deception</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9.4 Privacy</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS AND TERMS</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10.1 Public Administration and public administration</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10.2 Local government</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10.3 Leadership</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.2 DEFINITION AND DISCUSSION OF CONCEPT LITERATURE REVIEW

3.3 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF CONCEPT LEADERSHIP

3.3.1 Definition and discussion of concept leadership

3.3.2 Components of leadership

3.3.3 Public leadership competencies

3.3.4 Types of leadership styles

3.3.4.1 Autocratic leadership style

3.3.4.2 Democratic leadership style

3.3.4.3 Bureaucratic leadership style

3.3.4.4 Charismatic leadership style

3.3.5 A need for effective leadership in the public service

3.4 EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

3.4.1 New Public Administration

3.4.2 New Public Management

3.4.3 New Public Service

3.4.4 Governance Perspective

3.5 BRIEF PERSPECTIVE: ‘public administration’

3.6 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW AND DEFINITION OF CONCEPT GOVERNANCE

3.6.1 Characteristics of governance

3.6.2 Network governance

3.6.3 Participatory governance

3.6.3.1 Definition of public participation

3.6.3.2 Civil society in public participation

3.6.3.3 Legislative frameworks: public participation in local government service delivery
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.6.3.4 Reasons for public participation</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.3.5 Challenges of public participation</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.3.6 Solutions to public participation</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.4 Accountability</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.4.1 Components of accountability</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.4.2 Accountability on good governance</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.5 Transparency</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.6 Corporate governance</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.7 King Reports on corporate government</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.8 Theories of governance</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.8.1 Policy network theory</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.8.2 Rationale choice theory</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.8.3 Interpretive theory</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.8.4 Organisation theory</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.8.5 Institutional theory</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.9 Governance structures in South Africa</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.9.1 Public Service Commission</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.9.2 Public Protector</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.9.3 Auditor-General</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6.10 Batho Pele Principles</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN AFRICA</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8 UBUNTU IN AFRICAN LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.9 LINK BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN SERVICE DELIVERY</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.10 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11 CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11.1 Leadership and governance in service delivery before 1994</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.11.2 Leadership and governance in service delivery post 1994

3.11.2.1 Batho Pele principles

3.11.2.2 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

3.11.2.3 Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2000 (Act 2 of 2000)

3.11.2.4 Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000)

3.11.2.5 Municipal Finance Management Act, 2004 (Act 56 of 2004)

3.12 CONCLUSION

CHAPTER 4: AN OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN SERVICE DELIVERY: A CASE STUDY OF THE GREATER TUBATSE MUNICIPALITY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.2 DEFINITION OF A CASE STUDY

4.3 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

4.4 OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND OF THE GTM

4.4.1 Leadership

4.4.2 Services

4.4.3 Vision and mission statements

4.4.4 Population and demographics

4.4.5 Councillors and ward committees

4.4.6 Political structures

4.4.7 Mineral resources and tourist attractions

4.5 STRUCTURES TO PROMOTE EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

4.5.1 Performance Management System

4.5.2 Integrated Development Plan

4.5.3 Municipal Public Accounts Committee

4.5.4 Community Development Workers
4.6 PARTICIPATORY MECHANISMS
   4.6.1 Mayoral Imbizos
   4.6.2 Ward Committees
   4.6.3 Tubatse Service Delivery Forum
4.7 CONCLUSION

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY
5.1 INTRODUCTION
5.2 INFORMATION GATHERING AND ANALYSIS
   5.2.1 Methods of information gathering
   5.2.2 Information analysis approach
5.3 REVISITING THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
5.4 RESEARCH FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION
   5.4.1 Current level of service delivery in the municipality
      5.4.1.1 Water
         5.4.1.1.1 Free basic water
      5.4.1.2 Electricity
      5.4.1.3 Housing
      5.4.1.4 Sanitation
   5.4.2 Leadership model adopted in the municipality
   5.4.3 Participatory mechanisms in the municipality
      5.4.3.1 Ward Committees
      5.4.3.2 Mayoral Imbizos
      5.4.3.3 Integrated Development Plan
   5.4.4 Leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality
5.5 CONCLUSION


## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION 140

6.2 SYNOPSIS OF CHAPTERS 140

6.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT RE-EXAMINED 142

6.4 RESEARCH QUESTION RE-EXAMINED 143

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS 145

6.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS 149

6.7 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 149

### LIST OF REFERENCES

### LIST OF TABLES

| Table 1: Population size of municipalities in Sekhukhune district | 95 |
| Table 2: Water backlog at the SDM | 123 |
| Table 3: Record of electricity connections at the GTM | 125 |
| Table 4: Households with electricity and backlogs at the GTM | 126 |
| Table 5: Housing records at the GTM | 127 |
| Table 6: Sanitation level and backlogs at the GTM since 2013 | 129 |
| Table 7: Senior Management vacancy rate in the SDM local municipalities | 137 |

### LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure 1: Size of municipalities in the Sekhukhune district | 5 |
| Figure 2: GTM ward boundaries | 98 |
ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY AT THE GTM 173

ANNEXURE B: LETTER FROM ROKHA MOTSHANA TRADITIONAL COUNCIL TO THE GTM COUNCIL SPEAKER 174
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In South Africa, democracy brought about new challenges. Consequently, it is expected that service delivery in the public service would be one such challenge. Without effective leadership and good governance, government will not be able to lead and overcome service delivery challenges. Scholars such as Naidoo (2004), Maserumule (2011), and Thornhill and Dlamini (2012) accentuate that local government is the most significant sphere of government because it is at the coalface of service delivery and the closet to the people. This sphere of government has a constitutional obligation to deliver basic services such as water, electricity, sanitation and housing to the community. The effectivity of the local government to deliver these essential services to the communities is dependent, to a certain extent, on the leadership that provides guidance and governance that allows the citizenry to be stakeholders in the service delivery process. This study assessed the critical issues of leadership and governance in service delivery at the Greater Tubatse municipality (GTM).

The aim of this introductory chapter is to provide the introduction and rationale for the study, brief overview of the GTM, limitations and delimitations of the study, problem statement, research questions and objectives, ethical considerations, and clarification of core concepts. Furthermore, the purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief discourse of the fundamental principles that have inspired the researcher to embark upon this study. The chapter is concluded with an overview of the remaining chapters of the study.

1.2 ORIENTATION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The first democratic elections in South Africa in April 1994 marked a new era for the majority of South African citizens after more than 350 years of colonial and apartheid rule during which the black population was excluded from participation in all matters related to governance. The apartheid laws were abolished and the citizens expected
a better life and improved living conditions without discrimination. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (thereafter referred to as the Constitution) has brought about fundamental constitutional and political changes in the eyes of many South Africans. Section 195(1) of the Constitution stipulates that the provision of services should be governed by the democratic values and principles. These values and principles include the high standard of professional ethics, which must be promoted and maintained. In addition, services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably, efficiently, effectively and without bias. The Constitution further requires that citizen’s needs must be met and responded to and be encouraged to participate in the policy-making processes that will affect their lives. Section 152 of the Constitution enshrines the objectives of municipalities and provides opportunities for community participation. Furthermore, Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) and Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000) require municipal councils to promote a culture of community participation in the affairs of municipalities and for that reason, councils must develop participatory mechanisms.

Service delivery is regarded as the paramount function of local government. Municipalities, as organs at the coalface of delivery are expected to provide leadership and governance in the process of delivering basic services to their communities. In terms of section 153 of the Constitution, municipalities are required to structure and manage their administration and financial processes to prioritise community needs and to promote the socio-economic status quo of that municipality. It must be underscored that local government has a constitutional obligation to deliver services to the community.

On the other hand, the portent of leadership and governance forms a major part of Public Administration. Leadership and governance have become significant areas of research in this field. As pointed out in the ‘introduction’ of this chapter, this study endeavours to assess the critical issues of leadership and governance in the delivery of basic services at the GTM. The basic services referred to in this study are water, sanitation, electricity and housing. In the present day, the issues of leadership and governance in the public service delivery are such that everybody seems to be laying a claim to them. In fact, these critical issues are a subject of rigorous debates and
much is written about them by actors and scholars who are not necessarily in the Public Administration domain. However, the question that remains is whether these issues of leadership and governance affect service delivery at the local sphere of government?

Since 2007, Municipal IQ reported that there has been an increase in the number of community protests country-wide. Moreover, government property is destroyed and burnt. Can these protests be attributed to issues of leadership and governance? Another research study could be conducted to respond to this question. The primary focus of this study, however, is to determine the extent to which leadership and governance affects service delivery at the local sphere of government. During the 2016 national three-day hearing convened by the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC), Mangena (2016) asserted that community protests have become a mechanism to raise concerns on ineffective leadership and poor governance that affects the delivery of services by government (https://www.south-africa/sahrc-hearing-to-study-impact-of-protest-on-access-learning). Based on the reasons provided under “motivation for the research” in this chapter, the assumption is that leadership and governance impedes the delivery of basic services at the GTM.

One of the key outcomes of governance in democratic societies is that it initiates the political process and enables the formulation and implementation of transparent and responsive public policy. It can be inferred that without effective leadership and good governance at all spheres of government, it is virtually impossible to deliver efficient public services (Botha, 2009:55).

Mavhivha (2007:105) posits that the long term objectives of the South African public service require leadership to improve service delivery. Furthermore, leaders in the public service have the responsibility to ensure that services are provided in a cost-effective, efficient and equitable manner. Moreover, failure to do so will not only contribute to a waste of scarce resources, but also result in the needs of the communities not being met (Mavhivha, 2007).
According to Maserumule (2011:58), “local government is regarded as the core of service delivery as it is the government arm closest to the people”. The author argues that in an effort to improve public service delivery, the attention of the local government has increasingly shifted to the critical issues of leadership and governance. Phago (2013:697) corroborates with Maserumule’s sentiments. He asserts that the ultimate goal of the local government is to provide services to its people in an equitable and professional manner. In this regard, citizens should have a say on the type of services they are about to receive and leadership has an obligation to respond to their needs and demands.

Critique by the citizenry of the services delivered is fundamentally good practice in a representative democracy. It is essentially an end result of policy implementation and an evaluation process by citizens of government actions. Given the poor nature of public service delivery in South Africa due to ineffective leadership and poor governance (Sefara, 2014), the purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which leadership and governance affects the provision of basic service delivery in the GTM. The current status of basic service delivery in GTM was assessed including a thorough analysis of the leadership model. Hereafter, the identification and detailed discussion of the participatory structures adopted by the municipality were explored followed by an analysis of leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality. Finally, recommendations of how leadership and governance concerns could be improved to enhance basic service delivery in the municipality were provided.

1.3 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE GREATER TUBATSE MUNICIPALITY
Although a comprehensive overview and background of the municipality will be discussed as part of the case study in chapter 4 of this dissertation, a brief background overview is provided in this section. The study was conducted at GTM in the Limpopo province, Republic of South Africa. The municipality has a population of approximately 330 000 spread over 31 municipal wards, with 166 villages, suburbs and townships scattered through its jurisdiction of about 4 550 km in size. It is the biggest municipality in the Sekhukhune District municipality (SDM) (http://www.tubatse.gov.za). The figure below illustrates the size of the five municipalities in the Sekhukhune district.
The municipality is comprised of six departments, namely: economic and land development, finance, corporate services, community services, strategic planning and technical services – with a staff component of approximately 230 employees, including full time councillors. There are 31 ward councillors who represent their constituency wards in the municipal council, which is the municipality’s highest decision-making body (http://www.tubatse.gov.za). These ward councillors serve as key mechanisms to deliver services. They monitor whether the municipality’s plans and programmes are achieving their intended targets as well as establish whether the services are being provided effectively, efficiently and fairly (Thornhill and Dlamini, 2012:41), (also refer to Paradza, Mokwena and Richards, 2010:11).

1.4 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH
The study sought to provide scientific data that could be utilised by decision-makers in the GTM to advocate effective leadership and good governance in the service delivery arena. South Africa is a free country, but for the majority of the poor
communities the freedom has continued their plight of having to manage the same conditions of underdevelopment they suffered under the apartheid regime. Sefara (2014) asserts that service delivery in South Africa has been slow, and the living conditions in townships, villages and informal settlements are still abysmal 22 years into democracy. Much of the poor living conditions have been attributed and manifested as a result of ineffective leadership and bad governance (Sefara, 2014).

Tau (2014) posits that the Auditor-General’s (AG) audit results of 2013/14 released on July 2014 revealed that none of the municipalities in the Limpopo province had received a clean audit. The province comprises five districts and 25 local municipalities. This is the same province which had five of its key departments put under national administration in 2011 due to alleged corruption, wasteful and fruitless expenditure that threatened to cripple the provincial administration. The AG acknowledged in his presentation at the Limpopo legislature that ineffective leadership and poor governance had contributed towards the continued deterioration of the provincial administration. The AG further stated that public officials who are entrusted with public finance have managed the responsibility recklessly without consequences. Hence, service delivery in the critical areas has been severely impeded. The AG also revealed that in the majority of the municipalities, incompetent officials held strategic positions and there are vacancies in key positions.

The motivation for this study emanates from the fact that ineffective leadership and poor governance results in a declining state of service delivery in most municipalities in the country. Literature reviewed by academics such as Naidoo (2004:98) and Maserumule (2011:80) revealed that ineffective leadership capacity and poor governance are the primary impediments to efficient service delivery including the inability of the elected representatives to deliver on their promises. Maserumule (2011:82) credits good leadership as a vital aspect of efficient governance and effective service delivery on the local sphere of government. Furthermore, the AG 2014/15 report revealed that the GTM had not had a clean bill of audit for five continuous years. This clearly indicates that there are specific challenges within the municipality. This study was aimed to determine the extent to which leadership and governance attributes towards slow basic service delivery in the GTM.
Empirical and non-empirical research has been conducted in leadership and governance of the South African public service regarding service delivery. However, literature reveals that limited studies have been undertaken at the local sphere of government. In addition, no research of this nature has ever been conducted at the GTM. Therefore, it is of vital importance to investigate how leadership and governance affects the provision of basic services in the municipality. Furthermore, in the light of the pivotal role of municipalities to deliver services because they are the arm of government closest to the people, the study evaluated the extent to which a municipality manages concerns related to leadership and governance. The study also focused on the possible solutions and probabilities which could be adopted to promote and enhance services to the public by the municipality. The findings and recommendations of the study will be discussed with the municipal manager of the GTM, who could make a contribution towards improving services in the municipality.

1.5 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As with every scientific research, this study was faced with a number of limitations and delimitations. The first experienced limitation was that the findings of the study are limited to a single municipality, and cannot be generalised as reflective of the circumstances at all the municipalities in the Sekhukhune district. Secondly, the researcher opted to conduct documentary research and secondary analysis as methods to collect data. Consequently, no control could be exercised of incorrect information revealed in the secondary data.

Thirdly, access to relevant classified documents at the municipality was a challenge since councillors and managers were preparing for the forthcoming local government elections in August 2016. Lastly, the study was limited to a period of 10 years, that is, 2005 to 2015. Consequently, only documents from that period were reviewed and analysed.

The study is delimited to focuses on the critical issues of leadership and governance in service delivery with specific reference to the GTM. A case study within the municipality was analysed through non-empirical evidence. This implies that the
findings and recommendations of the study cannot be generalised, that is, only applicable to the identified municipality.

1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Leedy (2000:45) argues that the identification of a problem is crucial in any study. The author further asserts that at the heart of every research study, there must be a problem. In other words, research cannot be conducted without a problem – no problem, no research. Research undertaken by the South African Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) provides evidence that poor leadership and governance affects the provision of services in South Africa (http://www.hsrc.ac.za/cadre-deployment-affect-services). This research is corroborated by Phago (2013:698), who confirms that ineffective leadership and poor governance impedes service delivery concerns in municipalities.

The problem statement for this study is derived from the fact that ineffective leadership and poor governance leads to a decline in the provision of effective and efficient service delivery in most municipalities in South Africa. As a result, service delivery is affected on the local sphere of government. The problem statement reads as follows; *ineffective leadership and poor governance affects the delivery of basic services at the GTM*. It is imperative to adopt effective leadership and good governance to ensure that the provision of services is not impeded.

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary research question of this study was: *to what extent does ineffective leadership and poor governance impedes the delivery of basic services at the GTM?*

This primary research question raised several sub-research questions which are:

1. What is the current status of basic service delivery in the municipality?
2. What leadership model is utilised in the municipality?
3. What governance participatory structures have been adopted by the municipality?
4. What leadership and governance challenges are faced by the municipality?
1.8 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary research objective of the study was: to determine how the municipality can develop effective leadership and good governance frameworks to improve the delivery of basic services to the community. The study also intended to achieve the following sub-objectives:

1. To assess the current status of basic service delivery in the municipality.
2. To determine the leadership model adopted by the municipality.
3. To identify governance participatory structures in the municipality.
4. To identify leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Brynard and Hanekom (2006:6) posit that confidentiality and honesty are both two of the most important including imperative ethical requirements to conduct research. The participants must be protected against any potential harm and not be bias to achieve specific results.

Ethical concerns are addressed by Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe (2006:697-699) in their article titled “Ethical issues in social research”. The following four ethical problems require careful consideration which relates to ethical treatment of human subjects:

1.9.1 Informed consent and voluntary participation

Babbie and Mouton (in Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe, 2006:697) argue that participation in research should be voluntary. The participants should not be forced to participate. Furthermore, informed consent must be signed. The participants may withdraw at any stage of the study without reason (Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe, 2006).

1.9.2 Potential harm to participants

The researcher has the responsibility to ensure that the participants are not harmed in anyway whatsoever. The participants must be protected from any kind of harm, be either physical or psychological. According to Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe
participants could be harmed if they are requested to reveal information that would endanger their lives or embarrass them, reveal deviant behaviour or demeaning personal character traits, face unpopular aspects, and infringe on their constitutional right to privacy.

1.9.3 Deception
Deception, which has become a significant issue in social research, can take place in different ways. According to Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe (2006:698), deception includes misleading participants regarding study intention. Normally, participant's right to informed consent is violated. Therefore, it is important for the researcher to ensure that participants are not misled about the purpose and methods of the study. The participants should be informed of the aims and objectives of the study at the beginning to ensure that their participation is voluntary.

1.9.4 Privacy
Chapter 2 of the Constitution enshrines the rights of all citizens in the country. This includes the right to privacy as stated in section 14 of the Constitution. Therefore, researchers are obliged to protect the informant's privacy. It is imperative that researchers do not violate the participants' basic right to privacy. The participants should be protected at all cost to ensure their anonymity and confidentiality. Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe (2006:699) explain that anonymity and confidentiality in research are honoured when a researcher uses codes or symbols when referring to participants in order to protect their real identities, although their actual names are known by the researcher.

Although this study encapsulates an analysis of existing data, the researcher adhered to the ethical clearance policy from the University of Pretoria’s ethics committee. Furthermore, the study was conducted in accordance with the University of Pretoria’s research policy. Even though the study used documents available primarily in the public domain, in instances where certain required documents were classified as confidential, permission to access such documents was submitted to the municipal manager at the GTM.
1.10 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS AND TERMS

Concepts and terms can be used differently, depending on the context within which it is utilised. For the purpose of this study, the core concepts and terms are defined below to avoid confusion, misunderstanding and misinterpretation.

1.10.1 Public Administration and public administration

Public Administration (PAD) with capital letters is an academic discipline and field of study that is taught at the academic level, whereas public administration (pad) with small letters is a government activity. As an activity, public administration involves the implementation and execution of government policies (Thornhill and Van Dijk, 2010:102).

Public administration focuses on performing public matters and the management of public institutions. Public administration is perceived as the skill to convert resources such as human, financial, material and information into useful services and products to satisfy the needs and demands of the citizens. Furthermore, the difference between Public Administration and public administration has been a point of unresolved debate among academics globally (Van der Waldt and Du Toit, 2007:13-15).

Thornhill (2006:795) traced the origin of Public Administration to an article written by Woodrow Wilson in 1887 that examined the theory of Public Administration. The author states that Wilson’s article titled ‘The Study of Administration’ distinguished between PAD as an academic discipline and pad as government in action. For the purpose of this study, Public Administration represents an academic discipline and field of study, while public administration refers to the executive duties of government.

1.10.2 Local government

According to Cloete (1995:49-52), local government is that lower sphere of government which is decentralised. Maserumule (2011:58) asserts that local government is regarded as the core of service delivery as it is the government arm that is close to the citizens. It is the sphere of government at the forefront of the
provision of basic services. In this study, local government refers to that lower sphere of government which has the responsibility to provide basic services to its local communities.

1.10.3 Leadership
Northhouse (2013:5) defines leadership as the process of influencing others to achieve the set goals and objectives of the institution. The author suggests that leadership occurs in groups and includes attention to common goals. Leadership is the ability to influence others through inspiration, motivation and passion to achieve a certain purpose (Munroe, 2005:53). In light of the definitions, leadership in this study refers to the process to influence subordinates and other stakeholders to achieve an organisation’s set objectives.

1.10.4 Governance
Maserumule (2011:281-288) posits that “governance is a conceptual presentiment of good governance”. However, according to Bovaird and Loffler (2003:6), governance refers to the interaction between different stakeholders to influence public policies. Furthermore, Naidoo (2004:109) (also refer to Kuye and Kakumba 2008:632), underscore public participation, collaborative efforts and collective actions. Therefore, governance includes efforts to construct participation and policy responses to ensure that municipal affairs function properly. For the purpose of this study, governance refers to engagement between the GTM and its local communities on concerns of service delivery.

1.10.5 Service delivery
Service delivery is the provision of government activities or benefits to society (Fox and Meyer, 1995:118). For the purpose of this study, service delivery refers to the process or system to provide public needs as such water, housing, sanitation and electricity. The provision of these services is by a government institution or an entity to the citizens as a result of various needs or demands.

1.10.6 Municipality
Section 151 of the Constitution stipulates that the local sphere of government comprises of municipalities, which must be established for the entire Republic of
South Africa, its authority is vested in the municipal council and have the right to govern. The Mayor and municipal executive council generally governs a municipality. Its mandate is to provide services to its citizenry, that is, satisfy the most basic needs of the people in its respective jurisdiction. In this study, municipality refers to the GTM and SDM.

1.11 PRELIMINARY FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

The dissertation comprises of six chapters. A brief synopsis of each chapter follows below.

**Chapter 1** introduced the succeeding chapters and provided an overview of the study. The chapter included the rationale for the study, motivation as well as limitations and delimitations, followed by the problem statement and research questions. The objectives of the study as well as the outline of chapters and definition of core terms and concepts were also discussed. Finally, a brief overview of the GTM was also highlighted.

**Chapter 2** describes the full details of the research methodology that was used to conduct the study. Research methodology and research design are two different elements of research which are often used interchangeably. Therefore, an attempt was made to clarify the difference between the two research elements. Furthermore, a detailed outline of the research design and methods of information collection was expounded upon in detail. The justification of the adopted research approach was also elaborated upon.

**Chapter 3** reviews the existing literature and conceptualise the topic in the discipline, Public Administration. A theoretical framework of the study including a comprehensive review of published and unpublished information was also discussed. The chapter highlighted how leadership and governance on service delivery could be grounded in the discipline, Public Administration. The relationship between leadership and governance to provide services including an overview of the concepts was expounded upon.
The chapter also highlighted leadership and governance theories as perceived by various scholars. This chapter further focused on the significance of public participation, accountability and transparency, governance structures as well as types of leadership styles. Finally, the variables of the study as well as contextualisation thereof were discussed. The basis of the study was also encapsulated on this chapter. Documentary and secondary sources that were consulted include: academic books and journals, newspaper articles, legislation, internet sources, conference proceedings, annual reports and municipal records.

In chapter 4, a comprehensive overview and background of the GTM, which served as the case study, were discussed. The case study encapsulated and accentuated leadership and governance in service delivery as contended by the municipality. The selected case study was based on non-empirical evidence.

Chapter 5 provides the results of the study based on the findings. The findings of the study were described, summarised and expounded upon. Data was summarised and thereafter presented as the results.

Chapter 6 concludes the study and summarise the preceding chapters. The chapter also provides recommendations on the identified ‘issues’ as well as identify areas for future research.

1.12 CONCLUSION

This introductory chapter outlined the scope of the research. The introduction and rationale for the study as well as the citizen’s expectations of service delivery since the advent of democracy are also highlighted. The purpose as well as a brief background of the municipality where the study was conducted formed the basis for this chapter. The motivation to embark on this study was also discussed. The problem statement which is extremely significant was carefully considered while several questions were posed. In order to respond to the questions, several research objectives were formulated.
Furthermore, the significance and limitations of the study were identified and discussed. Ethical requirements for the study were also highlighted followed by the clarification and definitions of core concepts and terms as utilised in the context of the study. In the next chapter, the research methodology adopted for this study is discussed in detail.
CHAPTER 2
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this chapter is to outline the comprehensive research methodology adopted for the study. Scientific research must be conducted according to a particular research methodology, that is, the methods of data collection within either a qualitative or quantitative research paradigm or a combination of both. Webb and Auriacombe (2006:591) argue that the decision to adopt either the qualitative or quantitative research approach rests on the data collection method. Therefore, it is significant that the researcher selects the instruments or techniques that fit the research approach of the study.

There is no specific definition attached to a research methodology. Many researchers define the concept differently. Research methodology includes how data will be collected and processed in the research process. Furthermore, research methodology involves the research process, tools and procedures to be utilised (Brynard and Hanekom, 2006:35). Kumar (2005:15) asserts that research methodology includes the individual steps in the research process and the adoption of the objective procedure. Leedy (1998:7) asserts that research methodology has two primary functions namely: (1) to dictate and control data acquisition and (2) corral the data in order to extract its inherent meaning. In this chapter, the discussion will include the characteristics, purpose, types of research, research design, and justification for the selected research approach as well as information collection methods, trustworthiness and authenticity of the study and information analysis.

2.2 DEFINITION OF RESEARCH
In the context of the above exposition of research methodology, the question is: what is research? Babbie and Mouton (as cited by Aboyade, 2014) assert that the following completes what research is:

- a thought process;
• a scientific investigation and study to establish facts and reach new conclusions;
• expand boundaries of current knowledge;
• investigate a problem, concern or knowledge gap;
• discover the truth through application of scientific techniques; and
• collect data in strictly controlled situations for the purpose of explanation or prediction.

2.3 TYPES OF RESEARCH
As pointed out above, research is ‘a scientific investigation and study to establish facts and reach new conclusions’. This implies that research increases knowledge and improves practice. To understand how research increases knowledge and improves practice, Salkind (2011:27) distinguished between two types of research, namely: basic and applied research.

2.3.1 Basic research
According to Salkind (2011:27), basic research is also known as pure research. Its contribution is that of the ‘knowledge for knowledge sake’. The purpose of basic research, according to Kerlinger (1997:283-284), is to “add to our knowledge of basic principles and scientific laws”. Furthermore, Kerlinger posits that basic research is conducted to test theory, with limited or no thought of application of the results to practical problems. Salkind (2011:28) asserts that basic research:

• develops theory by testing hypothesis that has been deduced;
• uses laboratory settings and animals as subjects;
• no immediate practical application; and
• increases knowledge in specific area.

2.3.2 Applied research
According to Salkind (2011:27), applied research is conducted to make a difference by positioning knowledge into action. McMillan and Schumacher (1997:21) explain that applied research as compared to basic research aimed to produce knowledge relevant to provide a solution to a particular problem. Applied research focuses more
on research problems common to a particular field. In Public Administration, these problems include issues such as corruption, poverty as well as leadership and governance in service delivery in the public service. Salkind (2011:28) identifies the following as characteristics generally associated with applied research:

- undertaken to solve specific problems;
- immediate use;
- use so-called real world settings;
- use human subjects; and
- research problem are selected according to practical value.

Since this study focuses on critical issues of leadership and governance in service delivery at the local sphere of government, the results will be discussed with the municipal manager at the GTM. It is assumed that it will advocate effective leadership and good governance, thereby improving the delivery of basic services in the municipality. In this instance, exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research strategies are expected to contribute to a better understanding of the leadership and governance and consequently, devise sustainable solutions in the municipality. Therefore, the intention of this study is to establish probable solutions to an immediate problem.

### 2.4 PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

It is common knowledge that research in Public Administration and other disciplines is conducted for a general or specific purpose. In this section, the purpose of research is identified and discussed. Babbie (1998) supported by Burns and Groove (2003) outline the following as three purpose of research:

#### 2.4.1 Exploratory research

Exploratory study focuses on new interest or subject. In other words, the researcher explores a new topic or subject in which there is limited knowledge. Furthermore, a precise question can be formulated that future research could respond to. The primary shortcoming of an exploratory study is that it is difficult to conduct and
seldom provides satisfactory responses to research questions, because there are no or limited guidelines that can be followed (Babbie, 1998:79).

2.4.2 Descriptive research
Descriptive research study is utilised to describe characteristics of a situation or an event being studied. The researcher observes a specific phenomenon and then accurately describes it. The purpose of descriptive study is to presents a picture of the details of that situation or event (Babbie, 1998:80). In the same vein, Burns and Grove (2003:26) reiterate that descriptive study discovers new meaning and describe what exists.

2.4.3 Explanatory research
Explanatory research study explains casual relationships between variables and events. The purpose of an explanatory study include: explaining things; generating hypotheses; testing and validating theories. Explanatory study allows better understanding of society and occasionally enables the prediction of certain actions (Babbie, 1998:81).

As pointed out in chapter 1, much has been written about leadership and governance in the public service, especially at the national and provincial spheres of government. However, limited research has been conducted at the local sphere of government. This study will adopt the descriptive, explanatory and exploratory research purpose. Polit and Hungler (1999:16) explain that in descriptive study, a researcher observes, describes and classifies. Ultimately, the primary goal of qualitative research approach is to provide an in-depth description and understanding of a theory or phenomena, rather than quantity of understanding. In this study, descriptive research is ideal to discover new meaning through the provision of an accurate portrayal of the expert’s characteristics of their knowledge, attitudes and perceptions on leadership and governance of service delivery at the local sphere of government. The concepts leadership and governance was defined accurately, presenting descriptive information to acquire a detailed perception of the concepts.
This study adopted the documentary and secondary analysis explanatory research as a method to gather information. Therefore, existing theory was utilised to understand and explain the current circumstances. This existing theory was useful to engage in explanatory research and to explain the need for leadership and governance in the process of basic service delivery at the local sphere of government. With regard to the exploratory research approach, this study explored the GTM. Furthermore, it must be borne in mind that the study was the first to investigate leadership and governance in the provision of services at the GTM.

2.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN
As alluded to in the ‘introduction’ of this chapter, there is no specific definition of research methodology. However, many researchers utilise research methodology and research design interchangeably. According to Mouton (2005:55), research methodology and research design “are two different aspects of the research project” which are inextricably intertwined, hence certain researchers confuse them. Therefore, for the purposes of clarification, it is of significance that the two be distinguished. Furthermore, it was highlighted in the ‘introduction’ of this chapter that research methodology is concerned with the collection of data. However, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2001:91-92), research design is defined as “the basic plan or a blueprint that informs the structure of the research”.

Research design is a plan utilised to choose participants and consequently how information will be collected (Welman and Kruger, 2001:46-47). Babie and Mouton (2006:104) posit that research methodology differs from research design in the sense that research methodology includes methods, techniques and procedures that are adopted to implement the research plan. Research methodology allows the researcher to conduct the study in a certain way, thereby establishing answers to the research questions.

Scientific research has to take place in a particular research paradigm. According to Webb and Auriacombe (2006:591-594), there are two major types of research paradigms, namely: qualitative and quantitative research approach. The authors argue that in social science, researchers can select either qualitative or quantitative research approach; although a combination approach can also be used.
Amaratungwa et al. (2002:17), supported by De Vos et al. (2002:79), assert that these two research approaches are not in opposition to each other, but complement each other. Hence these can be combined. The authors are vindicated by Thomas (2003:30), who posits that these research approaches are two sides of the same coin, and can be beneficial to utilise both in a research project.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (1997:47), qualitative research approach is associated with the following research designs, namely: ethnographic studies, grounded theory, historical research, case studies and phenomenological studies. Webb and Auriacombe (2006:598) posit that these designs fall under qualitative field research, which is aimed at building a general and abstract understanding of social phenomena. However, McMillan and Schumacher (1997:35) assert that if a researcher decides to follow a quantitative research approach, he/she would likely select from the following designs: experimental research and non-experimental research design. This study adopted a qualitative research approach and a single case study as research design, which aimed to describe and investigate a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context as explained by Yin (1994:13). Furthermore, information collection took place in the form of a documentary study and secondary data analysis.

2.5.1 Qualitative research approach

Salkind (2012:213) defines qualitative research approach as a behavioural social science research to explore human behaviour utilising exploratory and personal instruments such as observation, structured interview, focus group, and case study. It is considered to be research without numbers. Patton (2002:145) perceives the qualitative research approach as a method to establish what people do, think, know and feel by observing, interviewing and most importantly analysing documents. Qualitative research includes aspects such as meaning, experience and understanding (Brink, 2006:10).

Brynard and Hanekom (1997:30) accentuate that qualitative research produces descriptive data including people’s own spoken or written words. This was one of the reasons this study adopted qualitative research because people’s written words were analysed to produce descriptive data. In the study, descriptive data was produced as
experienced by other researcher’s findings. Welman, Kruger and Mitchel (2002:188) agree that qualitative studies are utilised to describe groups, communities and organisations. As such, the qualitative approach enabled the researcher to obtain as much rich descriptive data as possible from documentary and secondary sources.

Furthermore, McNabb (2004:314) reiterates that qualitative research involves the collection of words, pictures, symbols or other non-numerical information for the purpose of achieving the research objectives. In this regard, qualitative research complements the research methods of this study since it comprises documentary and secondary sources analysis. The aim of qualitative research, according to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006:4), is to gain complex knowledge from people with certain attributes or life experiences, hence seeing the world through the eyes of those people.

2.5.2 Case study
As mentioned above, there are several research designs that a researcher may choose within a qualitative research approach. These designs include ethnographic studies, grounded theory, historical research, case studies and phenomenological studies. According to Creswell (2007:73) each design is uniquely suited for a specific type of investigation. For the purpose of this study, a case study design was adopted.

Scholars have different views on case study research design. Yin (1994:20) believes that a case study provides explanation to poorly understood cases or phenomenon. Case study is a good research design when examining programmes, events, organisations or individuals (Woodside, 2010:1). According to Gerring (2007:19) case study is a spatially delimited phenomenon observed at a single point in time or over some period of time. Case study is a research strategy that focuses on understanding the dynamics that exists within a single setting (Eisenhardt, 1989:533). Therefore this is a case study of the GTM.
Yin (1994:19) lists the following aspects of case study research:

- is a qualitative research design that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clear,
- helps to explore certain phenomenon,
- most likely to use explanatory questions such as ‘how’ and ‘why’,
- is a comprehensive qualitative research strategy which is neither a data collection tactic nor a design feature alone, and
- uses multiple data collection methods, which may be both quantitative and qualitative in nature (Yin, 1994).

Yin (1994), Salkind (2012), Creswell (2007) and Gerring (2007) agree that a case study uses multiple data collection methods during a sustained period of time. For the purpose of this study, documentary study and secondary analysis was used as information collection methods.

2.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR ADOPTED RESEARCH APPROACH

There are various reasons for adopting the qualitative research approach for this study. Firstly, inductive form of reasoning was adopted, making it non-empirical study. According to Kumar (2011:55), inductive research strategy moves from specific observations to broader generalisations and theories. The inductive strategy was utilised to develop concepts, insights and understanding from patterns in the data. However, because qualitative study follows inductive reasoning, it normally lacks flexibility to respond to insights (Mason, 2002:102), (also refer to Maxwell, 2013:88).

While empirical research involves the collection of first hand data, McBurney (2001:96) argues that secondary data is collected in non-empirical studies. This implies that the researcher has no direct control of the way in which data was generated. The only control the researcher has is the choice of data collection sources, which he/she has to use, and the judgement of the validity and reliability of the data. The researcher utilised documentary study and secondary analysis as
sources to obtain information, therefore, there was no control of the manner in which that data was gathered by other researchers. Furthermore, the researcher followed a research approach which develops theory to analyse data already collected.

Secondly, the qualitative research approach provided an in-depth description of the research problem to allow the researcher to understand it from the real life perspective than use numbers. This enabled the researcher to gather responses to the research questions and achieve the research objectives. The primary research question of the study is: to what extent does ineffective leadership and poor governance impede basic service delivery at the GTM? This primary research question raises the following sub-research questions: (1) What is the current status of basic service delivery in the municipality? (2) What leadership model is utilised in the municipality? (3) What governance participatory structures have been adopted by the municipality? (4) What leadership and governance challenges are faced by the municipality? In designing the research approach for this qualitative study, the aim was to select a research design that would best respond to the primary and sub-research questions.

Furthermore, although the process of designing a research study involves many interrelated decisions, the above mentioned research questions dictated the selection of qualitative research design in this study. It is for this reason Mouton (2001:109) believes that research design should reflect the type of study to be conducted to provide acceptable responses to the research questions. As previously alluded to, a case study design of the GTM was utilised for this study. This case study focused on leadership and governance in service delivery as contended by the municipality.

Thirdly, Public Administration is a discipline within the social sciences which falls outside the strict definition of the natural sciences. At the University of Pretoria, it falls in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. As a management discipline, studies in this field predominantly use qualitative research as a means to determine the appropriateness and possible success of a research study. For the purpose of this study the qualitative research was adopted.
According to Remler and Van Ryzin (2011:59), the advantages of using qualitative approach in social science studies include: exploring new studies, analysing historical or archival texts, analysing visual images or communication, understanding cultures or subcultures and understanding small groups or group dynamics.

2.7 METHODS OF INFORMATION COLLECTION

When researchers conduct research, one of the most significant aspects is to develop a data collection method. The most critical phase in social research is during which data is collected. Data collection is perceived as time consuming but essentially for the purpose to deepen the researcher’s understanding and contribution to the body of existing knowledge (Bulmer, 2000:205).

Webb and Auriacombe (2006:591) highlight that the decision to follow either the qualitative or quantitative research approach during research design determines which methods of data collection will be selected to enable social scientists to execute their research tasks. Mouton (1996:67) posits that data collection includes the application to measure instruments to the sample or cases selected for investigation. Brynard and Hanekom (2006:39) explain that although researchers in Public Administration utilise different data collection methods, observation and unstructured interviews are predominantly utilised within the context of qualitative research. However, Blaikie (2009:205) posits that structured interviews and self-administered questionnaires are predominantly utilised as quantitative data gathering methods in the social sciences.

From the above explanation, it is conclusive that methods of data collection are tools or instruments utilised to gather information about a research problem that is being studied. Brynard and Hanekom (2006) list observation and unstructured interviewing as the most utilised data collection methods, De Vos et al. (2011:376), explain that the study of documents and secondary analysis are the third and fourth methods of information collection in qualitative research. For the purpose of this study, documentary study and secondary analysis was utilised as data collection methods.
2.7.1 Documentary study

In order for research to produce reliable and conclusive results, suitable data collection methods need to be employed. Documentary study analysis is one of the methods from which information can be collected in qualitative research. According to De Vos et al. (2011:377), “documentary analysis includes the study of existing documents”.

However, according to Marlow (2005:182), most documents such as letters to friends, suicide notes, and autobiographies are not written with a view to conduct research but for personal reasons. The author further adds that official documents such as minutes of meetings, financial records, and annual reports as well as mass media documents such as newspapers and magazines can be studied and analysed for the purposes of conducting scientific research.

Welman and Kruger (2000:36) classify sources of documentary study as primary and secondary sources. Primary source is the original written material of the author's own experiences and observation, whereas secondary source provides second hand information consisting of materials that are extracted from someone else as the original source that did experience the event. Both types of sources maybe equally useful and provide significant information towards a study. It is important to consider the degree to which one can trust the original source of the data when using secondary data (Welman and Kruger, 2000:37).

Neuman (2000:396) adds that primary source is more reliable than secondary source because it is someone else’s interpretation of primary source. Salkind (2012:52) perceives primary sources as “the meat and potatoes of the literature review”, because while the researcher acquires specific good ideas and adequate information from reading secondary sources, it is important to study the actual source to secure specific information in order to support points of view. In this study, information was extracted and analysed from both primary and secondary sources.

De Vos et al. (2011:382-383), identifies the following advantages and disadvantages of documentary study:
Advantages

- relatively low costs – documentary study is relatively more affordable than interviews or comprehensive survey;
- confession – it is likely that a person can confess in a document than in an interview or questionnaire. Documents such as suicide notes or confession letters may be the only way to obtain certain information;
- non-reactivity – respondents completing questionnaires are aware that they are being studied; and
- inaccessible subjects – documentary analysis is the only method of data collection in which the researcher does not need to make a personal contact with the respondent(s) (De Vos et al., 2011:382).

Disadvantages

- incompleteness – in most instances, reports and statistical records are incomplete;
- bias – certain documents such as autobiography may be written for money making, whereas annual reports may be formulated to influence consumers positively;
- preservation of documents – elements such as fire or rain may destroy documents;
- lack of availability – documents may be classified, inaccessible or simply not available to analyse; and
- origins of documents – sometimes it is difficult to ascertain factors such as the date of a document or where it originated (De Vos et al., 2011:382-383).

Documentary study as a data collection method includes all types of written communications that may provide light on the phenomenon under investigation which are: published and unpublished documents, newspaper articles, reports and administrative documents. Documentary analysis saves time and relatively cheaper. It only requires data selection instead of data collection such as interviews or surveys (Maxwell, 2013:102).
In this study, key GTM documents such as annual reports and IDP reports, strategic plans, minutes of meetings, conference proceedings, financial and statistical records, as well as Acts of Parliament and other regulation, newspaper articles and magazines were analysed to achieve the research objectives. Other important documents with rich source of information were secured from institutions such as SALGA, HSRC, AG, SDM, Municipal IQ and relevant government institutions. These documents assisted the researcher to reveal meaning, develop understanding and discover insight relevant to leadership and governance in the provision of services on the local sphere of government. In most instances, many of these documents are placed in the public domain or accessible to the public, therefore, accessible without permission.

2.7.2 Secondary data analysis
Brynard and Hanekom (2006:39) argue that unstructured interviews are probably the most common used in qualitative research because, firstly it allows the researcher to explain the questions if the respondent does not understand, secondly it allows the researcher to probe. However, for the purpose of this research, secondary data was analysed to supplement the data gleamed from documentary analysis. Babbie (1998:277) defines secondary data analysis as the reworking of already analysed data which the researcher has no direct control over or involvement. Mouton (2001:164) adds that secondary analysis includes utilising existing data and aims to re-analyse such data to test hypotheses or validate models.

As listed by De Vos et al. (2011:386-388), the following are the advantages and disadvantages of secondary analysis:

**Advantages**
- avoids data collection – no need to collect primary data and that saves costs and time;
- maximises inputs – researchers can maximise their inputs in case their study purpose is reconcilable with existing data;
- verifies data – the accuracy of data can be verified;
• avoids reactivity – unnatural reactions in the behaviour of the respondents can be avoided;
• it is an independent procedure – a research study using secondary analysis can be undertaken on an exploratory, descriptive as well as explanatory research;
• avoids harmful effects on respondents – direct harmful on respondents and ethical dilemmas are minimised;
• can be used for both research paradigms – both qualitative and quantitative data can be used for secondary analysis;
• it is multidisciplinary – the same dataset can be analysed by different disciplines and viewed from different perspectives;
• utilises extended datasets – it is suitable in cases where a dataset is larger and comprehensive than that which the researcher could have handled;
• develop a sound scientific attitude – researchers develop a sound scientific scepticism with regard to data collected by others. It then becomes easy for them to detect errors and prejudices in the original report; and
• it is retrospective – secondary analysis allows the researcher to study past events and issues in retrospect (De Vos et al., 2011:386).

Disadvantages
• difficulties of obtaining of sources – certain significant sources are often impossible to trace or may even have been destroyed;
• complexity – sometimes this method might be time consuming than anticipated;
• reflection of human behaviour – secondary analysis involves written communication, which unfortunately cannot accurately and authentically reflect certain aspects of human behaviour such as feelings and attitudes;
• representativeness – documents are not necessarily representative of their kind and do not allow generalisations;
• prejudices in documents – all existing documents should be evaluated in terms of their potential prejudices;
• validity and reliability – most researchers tend to think that data collected by others is necessarily correct, which may not always be the case. Validity and reliability of such data may still be tested;
homogeneous stimulus – some records may be unreliable because relevant information is left out or people only recorded what they think should be in the record, not necessarily the truth;

definitions – two researchers can differ in their definition of key concepts, which can also result in difficulties to interpret;

confidentiality and anonymity – the fact that a second researcher is working with a particular database can compromise confidentiality and anonymity;

professional jealousy – researchers are sometimes reluctant to make their data available for fear that the second researcher could become more famous than they are, or that methodological and statistical errors could be identified in the report; and

limitation to using available data – researchers may only use available data, which might be inconsistent because of problems with the original recording (De Vos et al., 2011:387).

Secondary data analysis was chosen as the second method to collect information for this study because the qualitative and non-empirical methodology was adopted. Therefore, it provided rich and in depth information about leadership and governance in service delivery at the local sphere of government. This method enabled the researcher to conduct research without necessarily going into the field to gather information, because data had been collected by other researchers.

Secondary analysis saves time and costs because it utilises existing data. However, secondary data analysts have no control of data collection errors (Mouton, 2001:165). An analysis of secondary sources provided the researcher an opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding of leadership and governance of the local sphere of government specifically the delivery of services.

Lastly, secondary analysis assisted the researcher to ‘reinvent the wheel’ of leadership and governance in the delivery of basic services at the local sphere of government thereby avoided shortcomings by researchers who conducted interviews or surveys on similar topics. In this study, secondary sources included relevant published textbooks, literature, research papers by Municipal IQ and HSRC,
unpublished dissertations and theses as well as articles from scientific journals specific to leadership and governance in the provision of services on the local sphere of government. The detailed review of the aforementioned sources assisted the researcher to familiarise himself with the content and participate in robust debates with researchers who hold varying perspectives.

2.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS AND AUTHENTICITY OF THE STUDY

Part of what makes research scientific is the validity and reliability of the study. According to Kumar (2011:177-178), validity and reliability are applied in the quantitative research method to measure procedures or tools utilised to collect data. However, Kumar (2011) explains that reliability and validity are perceived differently in qualitative research, that is, as trustworthy and authentic. According to Lincoln and Guba (in Kumar, 2011:184-187), trustworthiness and authenticity in a qualitative study are determined by the following four aspects: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Lincoln and Guba’s model for qualitative research (1985) was applied to ensure the trustworthiness and authenticity of the study findings. Patton (2002:155) asserts that Lincoln and Guba’s aspects of qualitative research (1985) are still considered as the ‘golden standards’ for qualitative researchers to evaluate the trustworthiness and authenticity of the study.

Credibility requires the establishment of the qualitative research findings as credible or believable from the respondent’s point of view. Qualitative studies are known to explore perceptions, experiences, feelings and beliefs of the people, therefore participants should be judges to determine whether or not the results accurately reflect their opinions, experiences, beliefs and feelings. Credibility is similar to validity in quantitative research (Trochim and Donnelly 2007, 148-151).

Trochim and Donnelly (2007) perceive transferability as the degree to which the qualitative research findings are generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings. Lincoln and Guba (in Kumar, 2011) perceive dependability as synonymous to reliability in quantitative research because it is concerned with whether the same results would be obtained if the same element is observed twice. Trochim and Donnelly (2007) explain that conformability refers to the degree to which qualitative research findings are confirmed or corroborated by others.
To ensure the highest possible standards of trustworthiness and authenticity in this study, all four aspects by Lincoln and Guba (1985) were considered. The researcher utilised various documents and sources until the data was saturated to ensure credibility. As explained by Patton (2002:106), (also refer to Brink, 2006:160), data saturation ensues when the themes and categories are repetitive and redundant, that is, no new information emerges. Therefore, further data collection would not yield new information of the subject being investigated (Brink, 2006). It would be impossible for the researcher to refer back to the sources of information (for example, interviewees) and check whether data was recorded and interpreted correctly. Instead, the researcher required to establish repetition and confirmation of previously collected data.

As for transferability, the study followed a purposive strategy, which enabled the researcher to purposely select sources that can provide the best information regarding the research question. To ensure that if studies are repeated with the same respondents in the same context, the results would be the same; the researcher examined all documents and secondary sources as well as the entire process that was followed for the studies. An examination of the documents and secondary sources helped the researcher to achieve dependability of the study, which was based on the stability and reliability of data over a period of time.

Lastly, in terms of confirmability, this study was piloted to peers in Public Administration to test the information analysed. This ensured that the findings were confirmed or corroborated by researchers in this field. It must be noted that the findings of this research were not be based on raw data, but secondary data gathered by researchers and documentary analysis.

2.9 INFORMATION ANALYSIS

Data analysis includes separating data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships. Moreover, it discloses relevant and scientific information which enables the researcher to elicit meaningful conclusions on the population (White, 2003:5-6). Corbetta (2003:281) concurs with White that the primary aim of data
analysis is to eliminate irrelevant information till data critical to the research is identified and be studied.

According to Babooa (2008:152), it is critical to examine collected information to condense it to a manageable size. Mouton (1996:161) agrees, and explains the two key aspects of data analysis as: (1) to lessen the collected information to manageable proportions and (2) identify patterns and themes in the information.

Data analysis in qualitative studies is an ongoing process. It has to be noted that this study is non-empirical in nature. It does not require the researcher to go into the field for the purpose of data collection. To achieve the research objectives, existing information was analysed from relevant published books, scientific journals, unpublished dissertations and theses on leadership and governance with specific reference to service delivery at the local sphere of government including newspaper articles and official documents such as annual reports and strategic documents from the GTM, SDM, SALGA and AG. It was highlighted in section 2.4 of this chapter that the descriptive and explanatory research methodologies were adopted for the purpose of this study. Therefore, data analysis was in the form of description and explanation. In other words, the results of the study was described and explained. Statistics, tables, charts and graphs which were utilised from secondary sources to present the results, was described and explained.

2.10 CONCLUSION
This chapter outlined the comprehensive research methodology for the study. It was underscored that scientific research has to take place according to a particular research paradigm. In this regard, qualitative research was selected as the appropriate research approach for this study. The primary reason for the selection is that the study is non-empirical in nature and the documentary study and secondary analysis as the methods to gather information was adopted.

The chapter also discussed the types of research. The purpose of research was expounded upon and the trustworthiness and authenticity of the study was highlighted. An attempt was made to clarify the difference between research methodology and research design. Under the research design section, the qualitative
research approach was discussed, and the respective designs outlined. A case study was also discussed. Lastly, the process of how information was analysed was also highlighted.

The next chapter is considered the ‘engine’ of the study. Chapter 3 provides a detailed literature review of the study as well as how this study can be grounded in the discipline, Public Administration.
CHAPTER 3
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter purports to present selected literature reviewed for this study. The primary objective of this chapter is to investigate what is already known of leadership and governance in service delivery at the local government. Furthermore, this chapter aimed to enable the researcher to learn from the body of available knowledge. Literature review is regarded as the engine of every research; therefore, the concept is defined and discussed in section 3.2 of this chapter to ensure a broad understanding. For the purpose of this study, secondary sources dating back from 1990 to 2015 was utilised to support certain arguments in this chapter.

The starting point of this chapter’s discussion is based on leadership. Firstly, a historical overview of leadership will be provided followed by a general overview of the leadership. Secondly, after presenting a historical overview, the chapter defines and discusses the concept leadership. Thirdly, leadership competencies and components which are required for effective leadership are discussed. Fourthly, different types of leadership are identified and discussed, and lastly the need for effective leadership in the public service is expounded upon.

The second section of this chapter details the evolution of ‘Public Administration’ and ‘public administration’ while the third section focuses on governance. It presents thorough definitions and discussion of the governance concept. Furthermore, this section highlights the characteristics of governance, network governance, participatory governance, accountability, transparency, cooperate governance and theories of governance. The governance structures as well as Batho Pele principles are also expounded upon.

The last section of this chapter will concentrate on the various aspects of leadership and governance in service delivery at the local sphere of government. Firstly, leadership and governance in Africa is explored. Secondly, the meaning of the concept Ubuntu instilled in African leadership and governance is discussed. Thirdly,
and most significantly, the link between leadership and governance to the delivery of services is highlighted. Fourthly, the variables of the study are expounded upon. This chapter is concluded by contextualising the study through an explanation of leadership and governance before and post democracy in South Africa.

The secondary sources consulted for the literature review includes: scholarly books, scientific journals, dissertations and theses (both accredited and non-accredited), newspaper articles, government official documents such as legislation and regulations, electronic documents, and conference proceedings and presentations.

3.2 DEFINITION AND DISCUSSION OF CONCEPT LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, literature review is defined and the significance thereof is discussed. A literature review is a vital component to any scientific research. In fact, no study could be undertaken without establishing a preliminary literature review. What exactly is literature review? Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (in Majan and Theron, 2006:605) define literature review as a structured evaluation and classification process to benchmark what academics and researchers have written on a particular topic, including the sources and formulation of a research problem as well as data collection methods adopted. Majan and Theron (2006:605) perceive literature review as the best groundwork to provide for the reservations which escort the research expedition.

Literature review is undertaken, as explained by Mouton (2005:87) to:

- help avoid duplication of studies;
- ascertain the acceptable definitions and discussion of key terms and concepts in a specific field of study;
- determine methods and instruments utilised to prove validity and reliability;
- establish the acceptable non-empirical and empirical findings in a specific field of study; and
- examine how other researchers investigated a similar research problem.
In addition, Majan and Theron (2006:604) summarise the significant purposes of literature review as follows:

- assists the researcher to obtain knowledge and expertise on the selected topic;
- allows sharing results of related studies;
- links the researcher’s study to current debates in a specific field of study;
- fills in the existing gaps in the literature;
- extends the researcher’s knowledge;
- provides a framework to establish the significance of the study;
- allows benchmark to compare the results of the study to others; and
- assists the researcher to formulate research questions, problems and objectives.

The researcher should review relevant literature to establish the synthesis of what has been written on a particular topic. Most importantly, the researcher should identify the gaps left by scholars and explain how to fill the identified gaps. The selective literature review for this study focuses on the critical issues of leadership and governance in the South African local sphere of government’s delivery of services.

3.3 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF CONCEPT LEADERSHIP

Although leadership is fundamental in all organisations in the private and public sectors, its definition remains elusive. Leadership as a concept has defied attempts to be presented into a single statement. Barker (2007:343-345) argues that both the work of Francis Galton conducted in the study of individual differences more than a century ago and the emergence of social psychology, particularly the study of small group behaviour more than eight decades ago are often viewed as the beginning of leadership studies. Moreover, Barker adds that leadership as a topic and as an academic discipline has received attention in thousands of non-empirical and empirical research, yet researchers do not understand the concept well. Klenke (2008:3) echoed Barker’s sentiments and asserted that researchers know much about leaders but little about the concept itself.
Defining leadership has been a complex and elusive challenge particularly because of the complex nature of the concept (Sadler, 1997:22). Sadler argues that leadership has been widely defined by various scholars. The most common interpretations are: firstly, an activity or process; secondly, the process that includes influence, exemplary behaviour or persuasion; thirdly, it includes leaders and followers, and lastly the process has different outcomes, that is, the achievement of goals (Sadler, 1997:23).

3.3.1 Definition and discussion of concept leadership

Sadler (1997:35) defines leadership as the ability to influence and motivate subordinates to effectively and successfully contribute towards institutional goals and objectives. Institutions should ensure that their leaders are well-trained because subordinates tend to respond to leaders who are trusted and inspirational. Daft (2011:4-6) perceives leadership as an influential relationship between a leader and followers to effect real change that reflect purpose shared by them. The key elements in Daft’s definition are: leadership encompasses influence, occurs between a leader and followers, who desire real change, which reflect their shared purpose.

Northhouse (2013:5-6) concurs with both Sadler and Daft that leadership is a process, that is, it is not a characteristic that a leader possess but rather a transactional event that takes place between a leader and followers. Northhouse summarises leadership as a process that encompass influence. It is the process that is concerned with how leadership affects followers. Without influence, leadership would not exist (Northhouse, 2013). Barker (2007:350) suggests that leadership takes place in the context of groups, in which it influences a group of individuals with common purpose.

Yukl (2010:26) agrees that leadership influences and inspires others to understand and agree on set objectives and consequently how to achieve the objectives including facilitating individual and collective efforts. In this definition, Yukl (2010) accentuates influence, inspiration, facilitation and efforts to ensure that objectives are met.
Mafunisa (2013:757) perceives leadership as a relationship between a leader and followers as well as a process in which unequal authority operates with the aim to achieve common purpose. This definition can be divided into four components, namely: relationship, process, authority and purpose. Leadership is perceived as a two way communication between a leader and followers. A leader cannot lead him/herself. This relationship benefits and enriches both a leader and the followers. Leadership as a process comprises of an interaction between a leader and the followers to influence each other. This interaction is a process that depends on the situation both parties find themselves in, including the behaviour, attributes and environment within which they operate. Interaction cannot take place in a vacuum. Mafunisa (2013:758) describes authority as the “legitimate right to direct or influence others”. This implies that only authorised leaders can influence their followers. As for purpose, leadership promotes professionalism in the workplace, amongst the peers and groups. Purpose in leadership ensures that leaders are accountable and transparent in executing their responsibilities (Mafunisa, 2013).

Kuye and Shuping (2012:148) concur with the definition of leadership that accentuates relationships between leaders and group members. This relationship results in a partnership between the two, which in turn commits to trust in the organisation. Democracy can only be stronger and more stable when governance is perceived as a partnership between the governing and the governed (Kuye and Shuping, 2012).

The New Oxford American Dictionary (2010:992) defines leadership as “the action of leading a group or an organisation”. Mafunisa (2013:760) argues that leadership is the capacity for accepting full responsibility, and the willingness to accept risk for an ideal in which belief is maintained. A leader should have confidence in his/her future success and demonstrate a high degree of commitment and flexibility. Odendaal (2010:3) holds that leadership process includes power-saturated and power contested rational contexts to ensure that power is effectively exercised. Sindane (2011:755-756) defines leadership as collective efforts by stakeholder’s collaboration to achieve shared vision based on their aims and values.
Fryer and Lovas (1991:4-6) believe that leadership is “the art of getting people to contribute more than they are required to in the service of institutional purpose, imposes a higher standard than simply being good”. Leadership does get others to do something that leaders are convinced should be done in serving the institution’s mission. There are three aspects which Fryer and Lovas believe is leadership. Firstly, leadership is an art, which implies that leadership is complex and it does not yield its deepest meanings to quick and superficial examination. This belief is echoed by Sadler (1997:22), who posits that defining leadership has been a convoluted challenge because of the complex nature of the concept. Secondly, leadership gets others to do something that leaders believe is important. Therefore, for leadership to exist there must be followers who have chosen or volunteered to do something they are not required to do, but who have undertaken this voluntary activity because they want to. Thirdly, leadership is concerned with the institutional mission. This implies that leadership has to ensure that organisations achieve their set objectives and goals as effectively as possible (Fryer and Lovas, 1991).

Sindane and Nambalirwa (2012:701) maintain that leadership is not undertaken in vacuum but in the public domain; is service oriented; undertaken to serve, and requires a particular attitude and a sense of duty. Schwella (2008:37) concurs that leadership takes place in the public domain. He maintains that effective public leadership is undertaken through accountable and transparent processes. Mosia and Veldsman (2004:26-27) agree with many scholars who hold that leadership is a process to influence others and aimed to direct groups towards the achievement of set institutional goals.

In the present day, South Africa is perceived as a country for hope, democracy and transformation globally. In March 2006 at the opening of the African leadership summit in Johannesburg, Rev Jesse Jackson said: “because you have had this marvellous transformation and because your scars of apartheid have been turned into stars, you can now be a leader globally”. He further posited that leadership is a calling for integrity, responsibility, visionary, honesty and accountability. Villa-Vicencio and De Soto (2006:7) share Jackson’s sentiments. They assert that “leadership is measured by the size of the cause, not the crowd”. Furthermore, South Africa represents the global community whose beauty outshines its ashes, credibility
and moral authority around the world. Van Vuuren (200:8) holds that leadership is
driven by a significant principle – it happens at all levels of the organisation,
irrespective of its size. Therefore, any organisation that believes effective leadership
revolves around the executive board which offer strategies is mistaken.

Matshabaphala (2008:8) states that leadership is not about the positions that
someone occupies but rather his/her actions in that position. This person should
influence the way in which the organisation is shaped and transformed by
demonstrating special knowledge, skills or experience that advances the
organisation’s objectives. However, given the challenges leaders face in the public
service, Kuye and Mafunisa (2003:431) assert that technical and functional skills are
no longer sufficient for effective leadership. Furthermore, leaders must be strategic,
lead beyond boundaries and keep sight of an institutional vision (Kuye and Mafunisa,
2003).

Flowing from the above definition of leadership and the discussions, a number of key
principles about leadership were extracted, including:

- leader needs to be considered contextually;
- leadership is a group phenomenon;
- leadership involves interaction between two or more persons;
- leadership is constructed within a framework of meaning, linking a leader and
  follower;
- influencing process by a leader over followers;
- the exercise of power and the expectations of accountability are required; and
- includes four elements: trust, communication, selection and integration.

Furthermore, based on the above, it is evident that leadership is about influencing
individuals and groups to ensure that they willingly pursue organisational objectives
and goals. A leader should have the ability to guide or influence a group; hence there
is no leader without followers.
3.3.2 Components of leadership

Although leadership has been defined in various ways, most scholars agree that its definition is elusive and complex. However, the following scholars agree on the same components of leadership, regardless of its definition. According to Kuye and Mafunisa (2003:432), (also refer to Van Rooyen 2008:405-406) and Luthuli (2009:461) components of effective leadership include: (1) authority, a leader’s right to give orders and demand actions; (2) power, a leader’s ability to influence the behaviour of subordinates; (3) influence, a leader’s ability to apply authority and to ensure subordinates take actions; (4) delegation, transfers authority to subordinates to perform certain work on behalf of a leader; (5) responsibility, a leader accepts responsibility and account for it; and (6) accountability, a leader be held accountable for actions or inactions thereof.

Despite the above components, Nkuna (2007:234) summaries the following as leadership’s core traits, which significantly contribute to a leader’s success in both the private and public sectors.

- drive – leadership should be action orientated with relatively high desire for achievement. A leader should be ambitious and display high energy;
- desire to lead – a leader should be someone with a desire to lead. A leader should be motivated to perform in any leadership role. A leader should prefer to be in a leadership rather than in a subordinate role;
- honestly and integrity – a leader should be trustworthy to assume a leadership role. Followers prefer a leader they can rely on;
- self-confidence – a good leader should have confidence in his/her own decisions; and
- knowledge of programme – an effective leader should be knowledgeable about programmes in which he/she has to give directions.

3.3.3 Public leadership competencies

Leaders are required to have certain skills and competencies in order to lead effectively and efficiently. Kroukamp (2007:68) maintains that it is imperative that new skills and competencies be acquired if local government is to operate not as a
modernist bureaucracy providing basic goods and services, but in a responsive leadership role which contributes to articulate the needs and aspirations of the local community by delivering effective and efficient services. Schwella (2008:45) lists certain areas in which public leaders should be competent:

- skills in leadership;
- critical creative and ethical reasoning;
- adapt to change and complexity;
- foster effective collaboration;
- able to perceive situations as others;
- build democratic institutions;
- strategic planning capability;
- information gathering, analysis and evaluation policy;
- communication skills – both written and oral format; and
- the ability to enhance people development, including interpersonal skills.

In addition to the leadership competencies, Auriacombe (2014:116) posits that leaders must be developed to demonstrate professionalism and ethical conduct, versatility and adaptability to change, insight and foresight of a visionary, technical and tactical proficiency, and the ability to build cohesive teams. Therefore, from the abovementioned, it can be deduced that competencies need to be acquired by the leadership in order to improve service delivery to the local communities.

### 3.3.4 Types of leadership styles

Pownall (2010:32) states that a leader’s ability to lead can impact on his/her personality including those in the team. However, there will be times when a leader needs to lead in a style that is best to get a particular job done. The leadership style can be modified to work best with the personality styles of the team players. Pownall (2010:31) further identifies and describes the following leadership styles.

#### 3.3.4.1 Autocratic leadership style

The autocratic leader likes to retain decision-making power to him/herself. This leader chooses to take the majority of the decisions and expects the team to
implement the decisions. The autocratic leader prefers to keep control of all responsibilities. In other words, this leader does not delegate decision-making to others. The autocratic leadership style is considered outdated. However, there are occasions when it is effective. Since the leader barely consults with team players, there is no room for team member's leadership development skills. This type of leadership is used primarily for short term, complex, technical or urgent projects and allows for fast decision-making process. It is not a preferable option for the long term projects, because it can de-skill the employees (Pownall, 2010:33).

3.3.4.2 Democratic leadership style
The democratic leader is happy to share decision-making as well as the resulting responsibilities with the team. This leader seeks feedback and prioritises team member's development. The team becomes a collective work product under this leadership. The democratic leader discusses and does real work together with the team. It results in dedicated and loyal employees who are willing to go extra miles to deliver desired outcomes. However, since all team members are included in the decision-making process, decisions can take longer than anticipated (Pownall, 2010:34).

3.3.4.3 Bureaucratic leadership style
Bureaucratic leadership focuses on requiring employees to follow the rules of the organisation, than be creative, thinking ‘outside the box’, innovative or brainstorm. For example, the Code of Conduct for Public Service (CCPS) requires public servants to act in a proper manner when they deal with the citizens. This type of leadership endeavours that such code is implemented in the public service. Bureaucratic leadership assists to promote consistent output and quality. Furthermore, it assists to reduce costs and improve productivity in certain environments of the organisation. However, bureaucratic leadership can de-humanise and discourage the employees. Moreover, because there is no investment in training and development, organisations can also have poorly-skilled workforce (Pownall, 2010:35).
Charismatic leadership style

Charismatic leadership is known for a leader’s ability to inspire and influence the actions of the team. A charismatic leader is creative, trusted and has human integrity and ability to generate excitement in the team with new, possibly risky ideas. Furthermore, a charismatic leader has the responsibility to develop a vision and strategies of the institution, and to empower employees to achieve thereof despite institutional weakness and environmental threats.

Luthuli (2009:462) adds that charismatic leadership is driven by a vision to ensure that change, a significant aspect of public service delivery, is sustained. This type of a leader serves as a role model by leading by example. Furthermore, charismatic leader reinforces and communicates the institution’s core values through words and actions. It is well-known that former State President of South Africa; the late Nelson Mandela had the qualities of this type of a leader. This leadership encourages creativity and forward decision-making. However, a charismatic leader is required to invest more time to foster relationship with the team (Pownall, 2010:36).

In addition to the above types of leadership styles, Mavhivha (2007:107-109) explains different leadership theories for the developmental organisation. For the purpose of this study, the following theories are relevant: strategic leadership, integrity leadership, development-orientated leadership and leaders of action. According to Mavhivha (2007:107), strategic leadership should entail the ability to integrate the objectives of the organisation, and sustain strategic thinking, effective corporate culture and rewarding strategic actions. Schutte (2009:52) holds that strategic leadership enables an experienced and visionary leader to take creative decisions in a volatile, complex and uncertain strategic environment. Schutte (2009:53) maintains that strategic leadership is an executive leadership that provides activities towards the development and management of the whole institution.

An integrity leader is honest and firm in his/her moral principles. Furthermore, an integrity leader is respected when fighting unethical behaviour in the organisation and can, therefore, successfully eliminate corruption and work towards attaining clean governance (Mavhivha, 2007:108).
The development-orientated leader is more interested in the process of directing change that brings economic growth and political development. This leader considers mass participation in the decision-making process and in the implementation of decisions to improve the general quality of life (Mavhivha, 2007:108).

Leadership of action stands by his/her beliefs. This leader is not just an eloquent speaker, but also a leader of action by producing results from his/her standpoint. The leader speaks in action than words and has the ability to influence subordinates towards the achievements of goals and shared vision (Mavhivha, 2007:109).

### 3.3.5 A need for effective leadership in the public service

The significance to maintain effective leadership is a relevant topic in the private and public sectors not only in South Africa but globally. According to Kuye (2010:262), international organisations such as African Union and United Nations as well as power houses such as United States of America, France, Germany and Britain have taken steps to assist and ensure that all countries are governed by democratic principles and the rule of law. In South Africa, the Constitution expects leaders to promote and maintain high standards of professional ethics, as people’s needs must be responded to promptly.

Sefara (2014) claims that South Africa needs effective leadership, especially in the public service because when the dissatisfied citizenry takes to the streets to complain about poor service delivery, it is often because they first sought guidance from their leadership which failed them. This leadership is not responsive to the demands of the community. *The aforementioned thus begs to question why this leadership is not responsive to the community demands.* According to Fourie (2011:155), the lack of skills, an inability to create innovative environment and traditional hierarchical structures could be perceived as factors that contribute to ineffective leadership, which consequently results in non-response to the community needs and demands.

Effective leadership and good governance are regarded as critical for efficient service delivery in the public service. Matshabaphala (2008:5) asserts that in
instances where the delivery of services is poor, lack of effective leadership and poor governance are partly to blame. Based on Matshabaphala’s assertion, Sindane and Nambalirwa (2012:695) agree that in South Africa, most service delivery protests have reference to ineffective leadership and poor governance. They argue that aspects of leadership and governance must be addressed first in an attempt to deal with service delivery challenges in the country. Scholars such as Kuye (2007), Kroukamp (2007) and Maserumule (2011) concur that service excellence on the three spheres of government is attributed to effective leadership and good governance.

Provincial and local spheres of government are at the forefront of service delivery. Therefore, it is the responsibility of leadership in these spheres to ensure that services are provided in a cost effective, efficient and equitable manner as stipulated in the principles of the Constitution. Leaders should ensure that services are delivered effectively and efficiently. Failure to do so does not only result in the wave of violent service delivery protests, but constitutional obligations not being met. According to Paton (2014), South Africa has been labelled as a nation of protesters, noise makers and stone throwers that threaten the country’s economy and democracy. Therefore, leadership should be a vision that possesses an ability to perceive concerns before they spiral out of control.

3.4 EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

It is imperative to trace the roots and origin of PAD as a field of study and examine pad as a government activity before defining and discussing the concept, governance perspective. The purpose hereof is to ground the study within the discipline. As alluded in chapter 1, the term ‘Public Administration’ (with a capital P and a capital A) refers to the academic discipline studied in Colleges, Universities and Technikons (now called Universities of Technology in South Africa) whereas the term ‘public administration’ (with a lower case p and a lower case a) refers to the activities of the executive agencies of government (Thorhnill and Van Dijk, 2010:102). Therefore, a reference to ‘Public Administration’ and ‘public administration’ in this chapter should, unless indicated otherwise in the discourse of this chapter, be understood as such.
According to Maserumule (2011:313), much of the existing body of literature considers Thomas Woodrow Wilson as the universal ‘founder’ of Public Administration. But how true is this? Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010:100) disagree. In their article that examines the theory of Public Administration titled ‘Public Administration Theory: Justification for Conceptualisation’ they explain that “although Woodrow Wilson is considered to be the ‘founder’ of Public Administration, he only re-invented the science that had been developed in Europe”. Furthermore, “Public Administration is older than the view that it had been established after Wilson’s article” (Thornhill and Van Dijk, 2010:100). Their article further traces the origin of Public Administration in the 16th century in Western Europe.

In the 18th century, according to Thornhill (2006:794), the science of Public Administration was first developed in Prussia by Professor J.H.G Justi and a leading Public Administration scholar Christian Wolff. Thornhill further posits that Lorenz von Stein, who was a Professor since 1855 in Vienna developed Public Administration in Europe, although his work was considered to be administrative law. According to Selepe (2009:26), Von Stein’s opinions were innovative because he believed that Public Administration was considered a melting pot of various disciplines.

Thornhill (2006:794), (also refer to Thornhill and Van Dijk, 2010:103) and (Maserumule, 2011:315) agree that in the United States, “Woodrow Wilson was the ‘founder’ of the study of Public Administration”. Thornhill (2006), Thornhill and Van Dijk (2010) and Maserumule (2011) argue that Wilson was more influential to the study of Public Administration than Von Stein and other scholars, primarily due to an article titled ‘The Study of Administration’ which he published in the Political Science Quarterly in 1887.

Most scholars in Public Administration are familiar with this article which was published in June 1887 and is considered as the origin of Public Administration globally. Although it was purported that Wilson is considered to be the ‘father’ of the discipline, he simply made addition to the discourse that had long existed before the 1887 publication on the study of administration (Maserumule, 2011:322).
Wilson himself acknowledges that the discourse originated in Europe. In his own words in the above mentioned article, he wrote that “It was discovered in European shores by French and German professors”. “It speaks very little of the English language or American principle”. He further made it clear in the article that “if Americans need to adopt it, they must Americanise it not only in language but in principle, thought and aim”. Furthermore, “it must learn the American constitution to be employed”. This provides an answer as to whether Woodrow Wilson was the ‘father’ of the study of the Public Administration globally.

Globally, since the publication of Woodrow Wilson’s article, Public Administration has undergone many changes. The changes represented different epistemological trends in the evolution of the discipline. For the purpose of this chapter, four theoretical paradigms that relate to the discipline in the form of New Public Administration, New Public Management, New Public Service and most importantly Governance Perspective are discussed below:

### 3.4.1 New Public Administration

According to Denhardt and Denhardt (2003:70), the theoretical foundation of the New Public Administration (NPA) was embedded on social equity and democratic grounds. The NPA was an intellectual effort to reclaim Public Administration as Public Administration. In 1968, a group of young scholars in this field convened on what is today known as Minnowbrook I. According to Cameron and Milne (2009:382), Minnowbrook I was considered a watershed conference of young scholars that significantly contributed towards the evolution of Public Administration. The delegates of the conference were under the age of 35, and although it was an American initiative, it had global influence (Cameron and Milne, 2009).

Maserumule (2011:356) asserts that the Minnowbrook I conference was “largely a response to a question of relevance of Public Administration to the contextual dynamics and realities of that time and its future as an academic discipline”. The young delegates wanted to radically shape the field of Public Administration, which the older generation of academics and practitioners could not do. The essence of the NPA, according to Maserumule (2011:358) was “based on the contention that the discipline should be extricated from its historical homely confines of political science,
and also from its management orientation”. Furthermore, the young scholars at the Minnowbrook I conference rejected the traditional models of the old Public Administration, especially those centred on the bureaucratic philosophy and instead advocated for new models to be built on the imperatives of openness, trust and honest communications (Maserumule, 2011). The question is whether the NPA achieved the objectives of revolutionising the discipline? Henry (2008:35) claims that the NPA failed to live up to its ambitions, hence it was replaced by New Public Management.

3.4.2 New Public Management
Denhardt (2008:136) asserts that the emergence of the New Public Management (NPM) was attributed largely to the financial crisis of the 1970s, as an attempt to enhance productivity, performance, accountability and flexibility in government. Drechsler (2005) perceives NPM as the transfer of business principles and managerial skills from the private into the public sector. Kuye (2007:601) asserts that the evolution of the NPM pressurised state bureaucracies to be more responsive to citizens. However, Tshikwatamba (2007:755) holds that the emergence of NPM amounted to an equivalent of ‘intellectual coup’ on Public Administration. Proponents of NPM at one stage claimed to have intellectually defeated the older Public Management paradigm (Gasper, 2002:19).

According to Hood (1991:4), the emergence of NPM was perceived as “the only way to rectify the irretrievable failures and moral bankruptcy in the old public management”. However, NPM did not deliver on its expectation and it was duly replaced by New Public Service.

3.4.3 New Public Service
Denhardt and Denhardt (2003:85) hold that the New Public Service (NPS) was perceived as an alternative to NPA and NPM. They further assert that the theoretical foundation of the NPS was embedded on the relationship between government and citizens as well as collaborative efforts and collective actions. According to Ferlie, Ashburner and Pettigrew (1996:19), certain similarities between the philosophies of NPM and NPS include: emphasis on empowerment, sustainable development and
improvement; standards and performance; targets and indicators as well as results and clear framework of accountability.

3.4.4 Governance Perspective
The philosophy of a New Public Service (NPS) was replaced by the emergence of the Governance Perspective in the Public Administration discourse, which is perceived as one of the most significant developments in the political arena. Denhardt and Denhardt (2003:96) explain that the emergence of the governance paradigm was necessitated by the weakness in the liberal, free market based NPM approach. Cloete (2002:440) perceives governance as the network of interactions and collaborations. Governance is prescriptively conceptualise by a democratic government to achieve and sustain policy objectives in the most effective and efficient way (Cloete, 2002).

Governance today goes beyond standard responses, structures and processes by providing public participation and accountability, as well as open transparency in government procedures. Khan (2009:08) explains that governance emphasises a link between the civil society and the state. Henry (2008:5) agrees with Khan and Cloete. He perceives the concept governance as the interactions between the public and private actors to deal with societal challenges. The definitions and discussion of the concept governance are expounded upon after ‘public administration’ discussion. Public administration as activities carried out by government to achieve policy objectives is enunciated below.

3.5 BRIEF PERPECTIVE: ‘public administration’
Unlike in the private sector which is driven by profit, the public service is about delivering services to the people. It is for this reason that ‘public administration’, (with a small letter p and a) involves activities executed by government to achieve their service delivery policy objectives. According to Botes, Brynard and Roux (1992:147), public administration entails the implementation of government policies within public institutions, in a view of providing services to the people. It must be noted that policy implementation takes place in all spheres of government, inclusive of the local government as the arm closet to the communities. Du Toit and Van der Waldt
(1997:47) hold that public administration includes processes and activities that improve the welfare of society by providing efficient services.

In the South African context, public administration is governed by the values and principles as outlined in the chapter 10 of the Constitution. The values and principles include: high standard of professional ethics; resources be utilised economically, efficiently and effectively; development-oriented; provision of services be fair, equitable, impartial and without bias; citizens needs and demands be responded to; citizens be encouraged to participate actively in the policy-making process; leaders be held accountable for their actions or lack thereof; and transparency be displayed in government activities.

Besides the abovementioned values and principles of the public administration, Cloete (1981:12), (also refer to Thornhill and Hanekom, 1995:5), identified and discussed six generic administrative functions of public administration, which are detailed below:

1. policy-making – is perceived as a fundamental function of public administration. It is the crux of every existing government institution as it provides direction, statement of intent and implementation.

2. organising – it is regarded as a support mechanism aimed at ensuring that government institutions reach their policy objectives. It entails establishing structures in which each segment is responsible for a particular functional area as well as groups of functional activities within a structure.

3. financing – entails obtaining, spending and controlling public finances. It is essential for government institutions to achieve its policy objectives.

4. personnel provision and utilisation – includes the recruitment of suitable personnel, placing them in various training facilities and developing them to ensure government institutions are to achieve their policy objectives. It is imperative to employ public officials who have the right skills, qualifications and experience to perform the job efficiently and effectively.
In his famous article, Woodrow Wilson argued in favour of the merit system compared to spoils system. The merit system ensures that the appointment of public servants is based on merit, whereby the expertise, skills, qualifications and knowledge are required to carry out public administration functions. This system ensures that suitable candidates are appointed in positions, which consequently improves service delivery.

The spoils system, on the other hand, is based on political influence. This system ensures that politically connected individuals are appointed in strategic positions purely on the basis of their membership card and loyalty to a ruling political party. In the South African context, the ruling African National Congress (ANC) government use a patronage system known as ‘cadre deployment’ to appoint its loyal members to critical positions in government regardless of their skills, expertise or qualifications. It is obvious that this system places loyalty ahead of merit and competency, therefore, it sacrifices service delivery to the citizens.

5. develop work procedures – includes developing specific instructions to be followed when executing government functions to promote accountability and to avoid unethical behaviour. In South Africa, work procedures are published in the CCPS document to provide guidelines for the execution of duties by public servants.

6. exercising control measures – ensures that all administrative functions are carried out in a manner that is efficient, effective and economical to achieve policy objectives. Government institutions should implement stringent control measures to ensure that they manage available resources efficiently.

### 3.6 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW AND DEFINITION OF CONCEPT GOVERNANCE

Governance has become a contested concept. According to Davies (2000:312), the concept governance has its roots in the Greek word *kubernaein*, which implies steering while in Latin the word *gubernare* means steer (Cadbury, 2002:17). Pierre and Peters (2000:313) explain that in French, the word governance refers to a royal
officer whose duty is to provide leadership. The New Oxford American Dictionary (2010:750) defines the concept governance as “the action or manner of governing a country”. In defining governance much of the body of literature moves from the dictionary definition. Naidoo (2004:109), Kuye and Kakumba (2008:632) and Maserumule (2011:106) accentuate public participation, collaborative efforts and collective actions.

According to Naidoo (2004:104), the concept governance entered the Public Administration literature in the late 1980s across the globe and before that, “there was no clear definition of the concept”. Naidoo perceives governance as combined efforts of public institutions and the private sector as well as other stakeholders to provide efficient and effective services to the citizens.

Louw (2012:94) analyses the concept governance as “steering, navigating or giving direction”. She further adumbrates that governance was popularised in the 1980s by the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). This was after the macro-economic and fiscal policy reforms failed to produce the expected economic results in the developing countries. In the WB, governance was characterised by predictable and open policy-making process, whereas in the IMF, the concept was primarily focused on macro-economic stability and economic growth (Louw, 2012).

Najem and Hetherington (in Kuye, 2007:600) agree that the concept governance has been expanded by the WB and other international organisation as the main determinant requirement in any modern state. Kuye (2007:601) avers that for a state to meet the requirements of good governance, governance traits such as effectiveness, efficiency, accountability, responsibility, participation and professional ethics should be taken into consideration. Kuye further posits that good governance should include: economic and political liberation; adherence to the rule of law; transparency and accountability as well as the promotion of civil society.

However, on the other hand, Maserumule (2005:200) argues that the concept governance has been in existence since the human civilisation. It is obvious that Maserumule does not agree with both Naidoo (2004) and Louw (2012), who
asserted that the concept was popularised and entered the Public Administration literature only in the 1980s.

From the above governance scholars, Mubangizi and Tshishonga (2013:302-303) corroborate with Naidoo’s definition. They assert that “governance is a concept that has been defined and interpreted in a variety of different ways”. Mubangizi and Tshishonga further agree with the New Oxford American Dictionary definition that governance is the manner in which a country is governed including exercising control over politics and power sharing. From their perspective, governance is the connections and interconnections between government and the general public. Governance has something to do with a relationship between authorities and society, and it includes accountability and transparency. Furthermore it involves formal channels of communication and engagement between citizens and government, which is referred to as public participation. Communities are provided an opportunity to voice their concerns about the services they did not or about to receive. Public participation can take place through public hearings, ward committee meetings, imbizos (public meetings), and parliament leaders visit the people to listen to their needs (Mubangizi and Tshishonga, 2013).

Vivier and Wentzel (2013:240) posit that participation in governance is a core value required in democracy. The authors assert that formal channels of engagement between communities and government are essential to ensure efficient and responsive government. Public participation in governance is considered to be a significant mechanism to enhance effective service delivery. In the South African context, public participation is perceived as an Ubuntu way of accentuating governance as it underscores sharing, solidarity, compassion, collective brotherhood and collective action and morality (Vivier and Wentzel, 2013). The concepts public participation and Ubuntu are discussed later in this study.

Based on the most consulted governance scholar’s definitions and discussion, the concept governance is a process within which government institutions co-ordinate processes and implements policies to comply with prescribed norms and standards. This concept promotes and aims to instil a culture of providing services to the citizens. Furthermore, most of the scholars agree on the common elements of
governance such as decision-making, compliance to rules and regulation, stakeholder participation, participation roles as well as processes and power.

In addition, scholars such as Govender (2013:812) vindicate the definitions and contributions by other scholars. The concept governance entails the participatory approach to decision-making by persons in authority in compliance with the rules and regulation that require the state institutions and corporations to be held accountable with regard to their developmental mandates (Govender, 2013). Therefore, it may be inferred that governance involves the rule of the law, and participation in the decision-making process.

3.6.1 Characteristics of governance

Sing (1999:89-91) claims that governance has something to do with the running of government, politics-administration interface and how power is shared and exercised. Sing further highlights that governance includes the functions and actions of government. Moreover, it focuses on policy formulation and the effectivity with which the policies are implemented (Sing, 1999).

Sindane and Nambalirwa (2012:700-703) perceive the concept governance as the decision-making process through which decisions are implemented. They hold that governance includes societal elements that possess the power and authority to influence public policy.

Haus and Heinett (2005:18) argue that the role of governance makes sense in the context that government and its service delivery programmes alone cannot address government failures in the provision of services. The authors further assert that by including other stakeholders, governance renders them significant political actors. These stakeholders are regarded as ideal vehicles to advance effective and efficient public service delivery. South Africa celebrated 22 years of democracy during April 2016. Over the past two decades, various stakeholders played a crucial role to enhance and enforce good governance and democratic principles in the country.
Paton (2014) argues that after 22 years of the first democratic elections, South Africa's political system and government is still poor in terms of delivering services. She claims that amongst the black communities, unemployment is increasing; poverty is deepening and inequalities widening. Paton further states that government still fails to consult citizens of their needs. Consequently, they are overwhelmed by the utter dishonesty and incompetence of our public officials and leaders.

### 3.6.2 Network governance

Draai (2010:136) holds that networks have become commonplace as government is limited in terms of financial and human resources, in particular the availability of skills and expertise to improve service delivery. The author also maintains that governance requires a level of accountability on the part of stakeholders to learn and transfer from their interaction at networks. On the other hand Mubangizi et al. (2013:780-782), assert that governance networks take place within institutional framework of articulated rules and norms. The authors also maintain that without good, co-operative leadership at all levels, network governance cannot take place.

According to Sorensen and Torfing (2005:195), governance network involves interaction, negotiation and deliberation between interdependent but operationally autonomous actors. Furthermore, Denhardt (2011:198) perceives network governance as “the formulation and implementation of collective decisions between private and public actors to coordinate their resources on the voluntary basis”.

To Jones et al. (in Mubangizi et al., 2013:780), the network governance concept increases efficiency and lessens problems for public institutions in turbulent environments. Most scholars focus their definitions on democratic network of governance and how the network can best incorporate norms of transparency and civil society engagement.

Provan and Kenis (in Denhardt, 2011:194-196) describe three forms of network governance as follows:

- participant governance – network is governed by the participants themselves, and is highly decentralised or centralised;
• lead organisation-governed network – one organisation takes the leading role in
the network to avoid the inefficiencies of shared governance; and
• network administrative organisation – separate administrative entity is
established to govern the network.

To improve the provision of services, in the South African context, the Constitution
provides for a democratic and open form of governance. The Constitution further
encourages the adoption of rules and orders regarding representative, participatory
democracy, public involvement, accountability and transparency.

3.6.3 Participatory governance
Participation in governance is perceived as a key cornerstone of good governance.
Participation is an essential aspect of democracy and forms a significant element of
the decision-making process. Draai and Taylor (2009:113) assert that participatory
governance involves engagement between government and communities as well as
relevant stakeholders to effect development. Municipalities are constitutionally
obliged to engage communities in all phases of developments (Draai and Taylor,
2009).

In South Africa, participation by community members in matters of governance is
necessary. Local government exists to serve the citizens. Therefore, municipalities
must take decisive actions to involve communities in local government matters. It
must be noted that local government is where service delivery begins. The
Constitution requires municipalities to appropriately respond to the needs of the local
communities. Reddy and Sikhakhane (2008:680-681) hold that participation
becomes an integral part of democracy and governance, therefore, local government
requires community participation to provide efficient services. Reddy and
Sikhakhane also attribute the failure of many government projects, especially in rural
communities to the lack of community involvement.

Tengeni (2005:160) agrees with Reddy and Sikhakhane and assert that
“partnerships and networks are integral to modern approaches to service delivery”.
Tengeni holds that service delivery is impossible without government and citizen’s
partnerships. Tengeni also adumbrates that relationship between government and civil society is the singular thread that assists government to deliver effectively and efficiently on their mandate, in particular poverty eradication.

According to Barichievy et al. (2005:317), participatory governance has something to do with the manner in which municipalities govern and is the mechanism through which public participation can be realised. They further posit that participatory governance refers to a set of structural and procedural requirements to achieve public participation within a municipality.

The sub-sections below discuss public participation in local government as a mechanism for good governance. It has to be borne in mind that public participation at local government is perceived as a key principle in governance since this is where service delivery programmes such as IDPs are coordinated, integrated and implemented. It is a constitutional obligation that the community be involved in all phases of these programmes.

**3.6.3.1 Definition of public participation**

According to Masango (2002:52-53), public participation plays a crucial role in democracy because it is a people driven process. In South Africa, good governance is a product of democracy. Masango defines public participation as a process in which community members take part in government’s activities. Furthermore, Phago (2008:249) postulates that public participation ensures that communities are provided an opportunity to have a say on decisions affecting them even though the council is responsible for governing the municipality.

Draai and Taylor (2009:114) echoed Masango and Phago’s sentiments. They assert that in a democratic government, public participation creates opportunities and avenues for communities to express their views in governance matters. The authors further underscored that communities are required to get involved from planning, implementation and evaluation phases of projects to ensure the transfer of skills, knowledge and ownership to the local inhabitants.
Fryer and Lovas (1991:7) hold that public participation involves decision-making and communication processes, namely: how decisions are made; who makes them; the time; place; the manner in which they are made; and communication related to the decisions. Public participation is important in the provision of services. The officials who serve on the local sphere understand the problems communities face than the provincial and national governments because it is the sphere at the grassroots level, closest to the communities. Therefore, municipalities should ensure that local communities become the co-originators of policies rather than endorsers, because these policies affect their lives.

According to Ndevu (2011:1248), public participation in governance is perceived as a core value of democracy and a basic human right. Different mechanisms of engagement between government and citizens are essential to ensure efficient and responsive government. These mechanisms include, *inter alia*, ward committees, public hearings, imbizos and community service delivery forums.

Public participation should be a priority for service delivery as well as embraced at all spheres of local government. Nzimakwe and Reddy (2003:675) maintain that a community can participate in local government affairs at the following levels:

- active citizens;
- customers or consumers;
- owners or shareholders;
- policy makers; and
- vision builders.

### 3.6.3.2 Civil society in public participation

Mukamunana and Brynard (2005:667-668) argue that civil society organisations are very effective in public participation. Their argument is based on three reasons: firstly, civil society has the ability to mobilise communities to participate in government decision-making processes. Secondly, civil society improves transparency. Furthermore, civil society provides information about government
policies. Thirdly, civil society contributes to the quality and effectivity of public services and expenditure.

Tengeni (2005:162) agrees with Mukamunana and Brynard’s argument. Civil society organisations play a significant role as a catalyst of economic, political and societal change. Civil society has a history to exert influence in public policy formulation and implementation. Moreover, it occasionally performs government functions and activities, therefore, is able to enforce public sector accountability (Tengeni, 2005).

3.6.3.3 Legislative frameworks: public participation in local government service delivery

The Constitution and other legislation provide for a democratic and open form of governance. The legislation further provides for making rules and orders regarding representative democracy, transparency, accountability and participation. Although legislation and other laws pertaining to public participation will be discussed in detail later in this chapter, the researcher will pay en passant attention to certain legislation in this section. Most of the legislation strengthens grassroots participation by introducing the concept of ‘developmental’ local government.

Booysen (2009:2) opines that public participation in the policy-making process could be considered as a cornerstone of society. This is supported by Nzimakwe (2008:44), who advocates that public participation in government is not just a moral obligation but also a constitutional one. Community participation at the local sphere of government is enshrined in various legislative frameworks. In addition, the legislative frameworks further require municipalities to provide basic services to the local communities.

Section 152(1) of the Constitution stipulates that certain objectives of local government are to: provide democratic and accountable services to the community; ensure services are provided in a sustainable manner; and foster and encourage participation in local government affairs that affect the daily lives of the community. Section 160(4)(b) of the Constitution stipulates that no municipal by-laws may be passed by council unless it was published for public comment. It is significant that these by-laws be accessible to the public.
Furthermore, other legislation such as section 19(3) of the Municipal Structures Act dictates a municipal council to develop mechanisms for public participation, and should review its processes annually to involve the community. In terms of this Act, a municipality must report to the community the mechanisms, processes and procedures to encourage and facilitate participation, including council meeting notices and its committees.

Chapter 4 of Municipal Systems Act requires municipal council to develop a culture of participatory governance and encourage communities to participate in the local affairs. This Act clearly stipulates that citizens have the right to contribute towards the municipality’s decision-making process.

3.6.3.4 Reasons for public participation
Phago (2008:248) postulates that the primary objective of involving the community in municipal affairs is to ever-improve service delivery approaches, thus enhancing municipal services. The participation of community members ensures that service delivery is enhanced. Citizens can hold their government accountable for its decisions and policies implemented if that action does not improve their lives.

In addition to the abovementioned reasons, Mzimakwe (2010:506) specify the following as advantages of public participation.

- public participation promotes dignity and self-sufficiently within individuals and groups in the community;
- public participation teaches the community to deal with challenge;
- public participation promotes collective efforts;
- public participation helps the community to understand group dynamics; and
- public participation ensures that the communities have access to the tools of democracy.
3.6.3.5 Challenges of public participation

Although the above reasons are explicit, public participation on the local sphere of government continue to experience challenges. Below are certain challenges as highlighted by Fourie (2001:221):

- literacy levels of the citizens;
- logistical problem such as transport and telecommunications;
- inexperienced officials dealing with the needs and demands of citizens; and
- other problems preventing public participation include customs and traditions, dependency and apathy.

In addition to the aforementioned challenges Runji (2016) argues that in many South African municipalities, participation processes are “just talk shops that yield little in the realisation of their aspirations”. Although democracy requires responsive government where all voices should have the space to be heard, public participation in many municipalities has been relegated to nothing more than a ‘buzzword’. It is used only as a tick box exercise to ensure compliance with legislation while betraying commitment to meaningful engagement with the community. The Constitution makes public participation an integral part of governing the country. However, in most instances where participation is practiced, it is a top-down exercise, that is, the community is told what is best for them. In this regard, decisions have already been taken by the leadership. The community’s voice is stifled to such an extent that exercising control over leaders is a myth (Runji, 2016).

3.6.3.6 Solutions to public participation

To counteract public participation challenges, Fourie (2001:224) suggests that the following mechanisms should be used to improve the process at the local sphere of government:

- improving citizen education;
- enhancing administrative capacity by training officials;
- providing a valuable service to be close to the citizens;
- building partnerships and trust with citizens;
• maintaining citizen’s enthusiasm to participate; and
• facilitating public participation.

Through these mechanisms, public participation can be encouraged at the local government. It must be noted that government is not the only stakeholder in its decision-making process; therefore, the local community needs to be responsive to ensure these mechanisms are effective. The government is required to play a catalytic role as a primary partner with the local community.

In light of the above participatory governance discussion, it could be argued that the democratic South African government has established frameworks to encourage and strengthen participation. In essence, the principle of public participation entails that communities have the right to provide inputs in the decision-making process to ensure that their demands are not omitted. These are the people who know what needs to be done to make life worthy in their communities because they live, work and play in the environment. Furthermore, public participation should foster responsive service delivery in that the local government will bring services the community demands. Public participation ensures that the development in local government brings to the community sustainability and helps to circumvent under-utilised projects. It can be inferred that community participation plays a significant role in every municipal development plan.

3.6.4 Accountability
Accountability is perceived as the commitment and responsibility of government and public officials towards the community to realise objectives. It requires government and officials to accept responsibility for their actions or lack thereof (Fox and Meyer, 1995:1).

Accountability is a core constitutional value, which appear in numerous sections of the Constitution. Section 195(1)(f) requires government to be accountable and public representatives be accountable to society because they represent them. These constitutional requirements, according to Thornhill (2011:81), demand that government activities be performed in such that reasons are provided for any actions
or inactions. Furthermore, the PP and AG are constitutionally empowered to ensure accountability in government in terms of human rights and finances respectively. In addition, at the local sphere of government, Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act 56 of 2003) requires local community participation in municipal finances, especially in determining its budget.

Napier (2007:379) posits that accountability applies to public representatives who are required to answer to their electorate for performances or non-performances. Therefore, accountability in the public service is crucial. The lines of accountability in democratic governments, according to Fourie (2009:1118), are generally through the head of department, as the accounting officer, to the responsible political head and ultimately to Parliament. The head of department must fulfil a key role in good governance. It is the responsibility of the head of department to determine avenues to strengthen the internal mechanisms which will support their leadership and decision-making process in the quest for good governance (Fourie, 2009).

Twenty two years after its first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa has been accepted and fully integrated into the fold of countries which are usually categorised as democratic based on elections, adherence to the basic principles of the rule of law, and constitutional rule to which many countries subscribe. However, the question is, are the South African public representatives accountable to their voters? The accountability of public representatives continues to come under spot light across many municipalities throughout the country. Many communities complain that once they vote their representatives into power, they tend to forget about them. These representatives hold that they cannot be held accountable by those who voted for them.

In the article that examines public representative accountability, Maphunye, Ledwaba and Kobjana (2014:164) revealed that lack of accountability by public representatives was foremost amongst the problems identified by protesters in the public service. Furthermore, most of the ‘born frees’ protesters asserted that some of the violent protests are as a result of public representatives who refuse to listen to their electorate once voted into the office (Maphunye, Ledwaba and Kobjana, 2014).
3.6.4.1 Components of accountability

Tengeni (2005:161) believes that the notion of accountability implies that public representatives must be answerable for their actions or inactions to their constituencies. Such answerability pertains to compliance with regulatory frameworks, ethics and the achievement of results. Molapo (2011:32) asserts that accountability in governance emanates from the following components:

- political – accountability by councillors to their constituencies, by management to the council, and council to SALGA. This involves individuals in the decision-making process and relates democratic, representative, inclusive and power sharing issues;

- legal – accountability to courts and compliance to legislation;

- administrative – implementation of decisions, establishment of the institutional framework, the knowledge, skills and experience of the public servants involved;

- social – accountability to civil society and all other stakeholders including the local communities. This is concerned with the relationships between government and the various voluntary and non-profit civil organisations; and

- economic – decision-making process related to the allocation of economic resources to improve public service delivery.

3.6.4.2 Accountability on good governance

The WB report (1999) accentuated that accountability is promoted by good governance. As good governance involves addressing the needs of the society, efficient public service delivery enhances the quality of the citizen’s lives. Efficient service delivery was also accentuated as a significant aspect of good governance in the report.
In South Africa, good governance has to overcome numerous difficulties as a result of the historical burden, including unethical and corrupt behaviour. Good governance and accountability have become increasingly crucial in managing both private and public sector organisations. Kuye and Kakumba (2008:632) hold that good governance promotes accountability, honesty, policy development, transparency, responsiveness to the community needs and demands. This is supported by Maile (2002:326), who highlights that accountability and transparency are considered to be essential elements of good governance to strengthen public leaders’ position, share power and enhance partnerships.

Fourie and Schoeman (2010:153) agree that accountability is central to good governance. They hold that accountability compels the state to focus on results with clear and specific objectives that are linked to effective strategies to monitor and report on performance. They further accentuate that achieving good governance within a participatory system requires accountability and transparency. This provides evidence that accountability and transparency is paramount for good governance.

Public accountability is becoming one of the primary determinants of effective and efficient government performance not only in South Africa but globally. Speaking at the Institute for Security Studies conference, the former South African Public Protector, Advocate Thuli Madonsela (2014) defined public accountability as “the obligation of government and public officials to be answerable for their decisions and be responsible to honour commitments.” She further explained that effective public accountability ensures that set objectives and plans are achieved in a timely and efficient manner.

Ijeoma and Sambumbu (2013:282) hold that accountability improves practice of good corporate governance, management of public affairs and service delivery. Maile (2002:326) observes that accountability follows exercising power, resource utilisation and policy implementation. Public accountability implies that those in government serve as stewards in exercising public power and resource control. That power is delegated on the basis of trust and with the understanding that it is utilised within the confines of the law and the best interest of the public. Accountability is
closely linked to the concepts; public participation, decentralisation, empowerment, transparency and democratic management (Maile, 2002).

In the South African local sphere of government, leadership accountability is perceived as the missing link in the service delivery chain. The lack of accountability in the municipal leadership adversely affects service delivery and evidence hereof is the high number of protests that interrupt municipality’s functions on the daily basis. Malapane (2012:59) argue that “if South Africa is to achieve participatory and accountable government, its citizens should be aware of the government’s process, what is done in their names and how it works”. This will help the community to realise their leaders should be held accountable. Accountability in local government should serve as a mechanism to enhance and entrench a vibrant democracy in the country.

However, the literature reviewed reveals that the relationship between community needs and public accountability is a troubled one. According to Kalema (2007:253), the application of public accountability is complex. Furthermore, it requires not only to state to whom public servants must be held accountable, but also for which aspects they must be held accountable as well as in which ways they must be held accountable (Kalema, 2007).

As one of the prerequisites of a democracy, accountability requires leaders (public servants) to be answerable for their actions or inactions, activities and decisions. Public servants must display responsibility when performing their official duties. It is evident that good governance requires clear areas of responsibility to manage the scarce resources and deliver services to the communities. Because of its proximity to communities, municipalities are perceived as the service delivery arm of government to ensure the provision of basic services. However, many municipalities are plagued by the leader’s lack of accountability and integrity. The evidence lays in the violent service delivery protests taking place throughout the country.

3.6.5 Transparency
Cloete and Auriacombe (2007:195-196) define the concept transparency as “the increased flow of economic, social and political transformation”. In a nutshell,
transparency implies the timely availability of information on government activities and decision-making process. Furthermore, transparency is inextricably linked to accountability in democratic societies. Accountability principle is based on the notion that those who rule should be answerable or accountable to the public for the way they govern (Cloete and Auriacombe, 2007).

Their definition and argument is echoed by Kroukamp (2007:63), who posits that transparency includes access to reliable and comprehensive information on government transactions and activities. This information is necessary for efficient government and good governance. Citizens demand that government be both accountable and transparent in their actions or inactions. Kroukamp underscores that for citizens to participate effectively in government activities, they must be able to understand and have confidence in that government.

At the 2006 International of Administrative Sciences Annual Congress held in Mexico, Cloete and Auriacombe (2006) quoted Jerome Pope, a founder of the Transparency International, who listed certain measures to improve transparency and reduce corruption as: international standards; national codes of conduct for public representatives; open public procurement; civil society watchdogs; effective records management; integrity testing; and creation of integrity systems and horizontal accountability.

To ensure transparency, leadership requires a clear delegation and reporting lines, honesty, responsibility and accountability. Furthermore, the umbrella of accountability and transparency must cover all actors and the flow must be multi-directional. It must cascade through all levels of government. It must extend to intergovernmental relations and reach individuals and groups in civil society and also flow backwards to formal structures of government (Tengeni, 2005:165).

3.6.6 Corporate governance
The Cadbury report (2002) on corporate governance defines corporate governance as the degree to which resources are utilised efficiently and effectively to achieve set organisational goals and objectives. This definition assumes that the efficient and
effective utilisation of resources works in the interest of shareholders and clients as it reduces the cost of service delivery and enhances the quality of services rendered to clients. Corporate governance controls and provides direction for an organisation (Cadbury report, 2002). Hirst (2000:423) agrees with the Cadbury report and highlights that corporate governance from an organisation’s perspective is primarily concerned with establishing a proper mechanism to protect the shareholder and to maximise the revenue of the corporation.

Corporate governance in a municipality, according to Michel and de Villiers’s (2007:34), is the system that maintains the balance of rights, relationships, and responsibilities of stakeholders to enhance the municipality’s performance. Michel and de Villiers argue that it is concerned with the processes and procedures that municipality needs to follow. This includes conformance to relevant legislative frameworks.

Makgoba (2006:151) concurs with Michel and de Villiers’s argument. He maintains that corporate governance in a municipality requires a council to ensure that service delivery is executed in the most economical, efficient and effective manner. Moreover, sustainability and satisfaction can be ensured for all stakeholders (Makgoba, 2006).

Govender (2013:812) asserts that corporate governance is aimed to ensure public institutions focus on accountability, responsiveness, effectiveness, participation and their activities are conducted ethically. Effective corporate governance requires public officials with necessary knowledge, commitment, ability and skills to undertake their responsibilities towards achieving organisational objectives and strategies (Govender, 2013).

3.6.7 King Reports on corporate governance

In South Africa, governance is a popular topic in the private and public sectors. It became the subject of what is known today as the King Reports I, II and III. The Institute of Directors in Southern Africa commissioned the King Committee in 1992 to develop governance principles for the business community. The principles were to promote the highest standards of corporate governance in the business sector. As a
result, the King Committee published King Report I in 1994 to set international standards of the best governance practices. The King Report II was published in 2002. According to Fourie (2009:1116), the King Report II applies only to certain categories of companies as listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange. Subsequently, the latest King Report III was published in 2009.

Michel and de Villiers (2007:35), (also refer to Fourie, 2009:1116), state that the following are the primary pillars of good corporate governance in a municipality as identified by the King report (2004):

- discipline – commitment of municipal managers to conduct themselves in a way that enhances their positions as leaders in the community;

- transparency and communication – important information should never be withheld or hidden to residents;

- independence and integrity – ensures that councillors act ethically by doing what is right, proper, transparent and honest. This will minimise or avoid potential conflict of interest;

- accountability with action – managers and councillors must be held accountable for their actions or inactions; because if they are not held accountable, performance would be worse and service delivery would break down. Being held accountable means managers and councillors are measured and assessed. Furthermore, if their performance is not satisfactory, they could be replaced but not deployed;

- responsibility together with authority – managers and councillors must know what their responsibilities are, and must feel and act responsibly and within their autonomy boundaries. In this way, fraud and corruption can be minimised;

- fairness and equity – decisions should be balanced and equitable to all the stakeholders involved; and
• social responsibility and service delivery – governance is about ensuring performance with conformance and achieving the intended results. Therefore the lives of the residents within the municipality must be improved. This implies that poverty and social development must be addressed.

Contrary to Fourie (2009:1116), Thornhill (2011:81) asserts that the King Reports on corporate governance simply implies “comply or explain”. The reports promote and maintain accountability and transparency in both private and public sectors, including all government entities (Thornhill, 2011).

3.6.8 Theories of governance

According to Mafunisa and Dzengwa (2007:766), the word theory emanates from the Latin theoria and the Greek theoro, which implies contemplation, speculation and sight. However, various scholars explained theory in accordance to their own views to state a certain case, for instance: a frame of reference or ideas.

Governance theorists believe that democracy is considered an essential tool for good governance (Mafunisa and Dzengwa, 2007). In the book entitled ‘The SAGE Handbook of Governance’ edited by Mark Bevir, various international cast of scholars came together to give their views about different theories of governance. This book was published in 2011 and has a compilation of chapters dealing with governance from varying perspectives. Certain governance theories discussed in the book include the following:

3.6.8.1 Policy network theory

In chapter 2 of the book, Henrik Enroth (2011:20-29) discusses the pluralism of policy network theory on governance. Policy network theory emanates from pluralism, which focus on groups. Enroth holds that policy–making process and good governance are feasible within networks to provide a framework that would efficiently coordinate the interests of both the public and private sector actors. The policy network theory is characterised by: (1) interdependence, where participants utilises each other’s resources to achieve their objectives; (2) coordination, where participants act jointly to realise shared objectives; and (3) pluralism, the state actors are very special and privileged kind of participants. Rather than being simply a player
among others, the state ultimately sets the rules of the game for network interaction by furnishing the legal and organisational framework within which networking takes place (Enroth, 2011).

3.6.8.2 Rational choice theory
The rational choice theory is discussed by Keith Dowding (2011:36-43) in chapter 3 of the book. He holds that rational choice theory is not a theory of how society or governing processes work, but it is a methodology or perspective that possess questions about the social world and provides certain standard techniques to answer the questions. The rationale choice theory focuses on non-predictability of politics, institutional instability, commitment problems, the hazards of principal-agent relations and democracy conflicts. Furthermore, rationale choice theory can inspire certain managerial reforms associated with the new governance and can provide a critical perspective on just those reforms (Dowding, 2011).

3.6.8.3 Interpretive theory
Interpretive theory is discussed in chapter 4 by the Editor of the book, Mark Bevir (2011:51-60). Bevir holds that interpretive theorists believe that meanings are constitutive of actions and they reject the lingering positivism of most approaches to governance. Interpretive theorists imply that it is impossible for people to discuss actions and practices apart from the intentions of the actors because they appeal to story-telling. Bevir further holds that people act on beliefs, thus interpretive social theorists can explain actions only by appealing to the beliefs of the actors. Interpretive theorists view governance as decentred (Bevir, 2011).

3.6.8.4 Organisation theory
In chapter 5 of the book, Robert Christensen and Mary Tschirhart (2011:63-74) discuss the organisation theory. The authors assert that organisation theory has four broad categories, namely: natural selection view, collection action view, system structural view and strategic choice view. These categories are depended on either micro or macro level as well as deterministic or voluntaristic. Micro-level theories focus on individual organisations and include system-structural view and strategic choice view, while macro-level theories focus on community organisations and include natural selection view and collective action view. Deterministic micro-level
theories inspire system-structural view, whereas voluntaristic theories inspire strategic choices and considers collective action view as constructed, autonomous and enacted (Christensen and Tschirhart, 2011).

3.6.8.5 **Institutional theory**
In chapter 6 of the book, Guy Peters (2011:78-88) discusses three institutional theories of governance. The first approach is the normative institutionalism, which has served as the foundation for the resurgence of institutional theory in political science. Peters claims that this approach is usually associated with the work of March and Olsen (1989) and has deep roots in the sociological study of organisations and institutions. Normative institutionalism approach focuses on the role of values and symbols to define appropriate actions for individuals and shape institutions. Therefore, from the normative perspective on institutions, the logical function of an institution is to create and sustain values among its members.

The second approach is rational choice institutionalism, which utilises the rational choice theory assumptions to understand institutions and to design better ones. Peters (2001:80) asserts that this approach has provided one of the more important linkages between structures and process. He further argues that institutions are designed to solve a number of problems that cannot be solved by individuals acting alone.

The third approach is historical institutionalism, which focuses on rules and behaviour. According to Peters (2011:82), the historical approach perspective is the process that has been institutionalised and tends to push towards maintaining the current policies and programmes of the structures. He further argues that institutional approach to governance will emphasise the predictability of policy responses within governance. Therefore, the principal manner in which institutions influence governance is that institutions represent the interaction of structures and processes for governing (Peters, 2011).
3.6.9 Governance structures in South Africa

As a democratic country, South Africa has established various institutions that are the custodian of good governance in the public service. There are also basic principles that public servants should adhered to when providing services to the citizens. These institutional structures and principles are used to promote and encourage good governance in the public service. In addition, these institutions strengthen good governance with a view to make government transparent, democratic and accountable. To promote and maintain good governance, the Constitution provides in its chapter 9 the following institutions, which support constitutional democracy, namely: Public Service Commission, Public Protector and Auditor-General.

3.6.9.1 Public Service Commission

Public Service Commission (PSC) is considered to be a custodian of good governance in the public service. Section 196 of the Constitution stipulates that there must be a single PSC for the Republic of South Africa, which is independent, impartial and performs its functions without fear, favour or prejudice. Furthermore, sections 195 and 196 of the Constitution mandated the PSC to promote basic values and principles governing public administration as outlined in chapter 10 of the Constitution.

In promoting, monitoring and evaluating the constitutional values and principles of the public administration, the PSC makes a critical contribution to deepening democracy in the country. In its efforts to promote participatory governance, the PSC developed and implemented a toolkit for Citizen Forums to assist the executive, departments, Parliament and provincial legislatures to improve service delivery. To facilitate access and redress by the public, the PSC has developed and gazetted Complaints Rules which enable the public to submit complaints for investigation by the PSC at any of its offices across the country.

Furthermore, the constitutional mandate of the PSC is to propose measures, give direction, advice, promote, investigate, monitor and evaluate the performance of the South African public service. In simple terms, the PSC is constitutionally mandated to monitor public service delivery in South Africa. With this mandate, the PSC has
established the National Anti-Corruption Forum and CCPS to guide the behaviour of public servants when offering public services.

3.6.9.2 Public Protector

The Public Protector (PP) was established in terms of the chapter 9 of the Constitution. In terms of the Constitution, the PP must be independent, impartial and performs its functions without fear, favour or prejudice and must be subjected only to the Constitution and the law. In other words, the PP must be free of any political influence. In terms of section 182 of the Constitution, the PP has the powers to: investigate any alleged or suspected conduct in government departments or entities; issue reports on the conduct; and recommend appropriate remedial actions.

The PP has also been conferred additional powers by sections 3 and 4 of the Executive Members Ethics Act, 1998 (Act 82 of 1998) and sections 6 and 7 of the Public Protector Act, 1994 (Act 23 of 1994). As an institution to strengthen constitutional democracy, the reports of the PP are by law not subject to any review by a minister or cabinet. The PP makes recommendations on corrective action and reports directly to Parliament for a final decision. The findings and remedial action proposed by the PP can only be judicially reviewed and set aside by a court of law (Thornhill, 2011:82).

Occasionally, one asks the question, *is the PP a toothless lion roaring without any threat as it cannot impose any sanctions on its findings?* The answer to this question could be found in the battle between the former PP (Advocate Thuli Madonsela) and State President of the Republic of South Africa. After releasing her report titled ‘Secure in Comfort’, the former PP recommended that the President be liable to some of the monies used in the upgrade of his Nkandla home. Although the President had initially refused to pay, the Constitutional court recently vindicated the former PP and he was obliged to pay just under R8 million of the money. Based on the aforementioned, it can be deduced that the PP is perceived as the defence of good governance and constitutional democracy in South Africa. Constitutionally, the PP is appointed on a fixed, non-renewable term of seven years.
3.6.9.3 Auditor-General

Just like the PP, the Auditor-General (AG) was established in terms of the chapter 9 of the Constitution as one of the state institutions supporting constitutional democracy in South Africa. Section 188 of the Constitution describes the primary function of the AG as to investigate and audit all accounts as well as financial statements of all government departments and entities financed entirely or partly by a public purse. Thornhill (2011:81) explains that the AG allows Parliament to have access to the financial statements of government departments and entities. This is done to ensure that public funds are spent in the interest of the society, and to minimise fruitless and wasteful expenditure. In terms of the Constitution, the AG is appointed on a fixed, non-renewable term of between five and 10 years.

Furthermore, the Constitution, 1996 states that the AG is accountable to the National Assembly. Like the PP and PSC, the Constitution stipulates that the AG should be independent and impartial. Moreover, the AG should be subjected only to the Constitution and the law, including the Public Audit Act, 2004 (Act 25 of 2004). In terms of this Act, the AG can investigate any case of suspected misuse and misappropriation of public funds as well as wasteful and fruitless expenditure. It must be borne in mind that the AG has unrestricted powers to obtain any document and may question any person to provide information relevant for the audit purpose.

Based on the above discussion, all these institutions have been established in terms of chapter 9 of the Constitution to strengthen constitutional democracy and enhance good governance in the public service. It was necessary to analyse the core functions of these institutions in terms of governance and acknowledge them as critical players in strengthening democracy in South Africa.

3.6.10 Batho Pele Principles

In addition to the above chapter 9 institutions, government has introduced the principles of Bath Pele (putting people first) in 1997 to ensure good governance in the public service. The Batho Pele principles were first mentioned in the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997), with the aim to ensure that public servants must first think about the people they are serving. When the South African democratic government was elected in 1994, it had a mandate to provide appropriate
services to all the citizens. The democratic government promised the South African citizens that they would be served without discrimination. This continues to be a gargantuan responsibility by government and one that requires total commitment by public servants at all levels of government.

According to *Batho Pele* Handbook (2003:21-28), the notion of *Batho Pele* is not a plan but the preparedness of the public servants to help and acknowledge the rights and values of the citizens in order to add value to their lives. The principles of *Batho Pele* include: citizens should be engaged and consulted about the level and quality of service; informed about the level and quality of service they are entitled to; have equal access to services; treated with courtesy; provided with time, accurate and comprehensive information about services; informed of how government departments and entities are managed; and offered best value for money for services delivered.

In addition, the *Batho Pele* principles encourage a two way relationship between communities and municipalities, and such relationship could result in accelerated service delivery and community development. These principles are of paramount importance in many aspects to service delivery in the local government. Furthermore, *Batho Pele* principles serve as guidelines for effective leadership and good governance in the public service in order to promote the spirit of excellent service provision to the people (Phago, 2008:248).

### 3.7 LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN AFRICA

Phago (2013:693) argues that the issues of leadership and governance are broad and often intricate to fathom with precision and certainty. He questions Africa’s leadership and governance credentials and track record when judged on the basis of the human right dispensations of the modern global society which are found wanting. His argument is whether Africans are able to look at each other in the eyes and indicate their commitment and honest contributions in changing the plight of Africans as demonstrated by the daily struggles in the continent such as lack of basic services. He further ask if Africans have *functional and accountable institutions that are able to convincingly report back to relevant constituencies on the use of public resources?*
Mafunisa (2013:761) assert that the unethical conduct in Africa begins at the top of the political and public leadership and flown down the ranks. Therefore, if leadership is about influencing the followers, then once the head gets rotten the body has no chance of escaping the pervasive cancer (Mafunisa, 2013). For instance, if a senior politician engage in corrupt activities, then the attitude of a junior public servant will probably be influenced because he/she see nothing wrong on following the footsteps of the senior public servant. Botha (2009:56) agrees that many African nations are poorly governed. He holds that the lack of development in Africa lies on political and governance concerns, and if governance and leadership were to be improved, then the continent would move forward.

Kuye and Shuping (2012:154) highlight that the absence of democratic process in Africa has misconstrued as a fact when dealing with leadership concerns. Their article titled ‘Leadership and governance issues in the regional economic communities of the African continent’ is more relevant to this section of the study. It focuses on the leadership issues in Africa, North Africa to be precise. They conclude that leaders in this region hold on to power for too long and prefer a dynastic trend on which they promote their immediate family relatives to leadership roles so that they could take over when they finally retire (Kuye and Shuping, 2012:147).

During the African Renaissance conference held at the University of Pretoria, Malherbe (2013) holds that Africa needs to develop leaders who will be known less for what they say and more for what they deliver. Leadership and governance issues in Africa are embedded in a very different cultural, political, economic and social context (Malherbe, 2013).

Furthermore, Khoza (as cited by Malherbe in the presentation) posits that African leadership should be a servant to the clan, community or tribe and influences the community towards certain desired goals and objectives. Therefore, leadership should be shared amongst the community rather than invested in one individual. In this essence, leadership is thus perceived by researchers such as Prinsloo (2000) and Masango (2002) as a “catalyst for social transformation”.

79
3.8 UBUNTU IN AFRICAN LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE

Is the notion of Ubuntu useful or meaningful to African leadership and governance? Africa has always been subjected to brutal stereotypes as the dark-continent, conflict ridden, underdeveloped and beyond hope. Robert Putnam, a Harvard political academic, writes that “for decades Africa has been trapped in its own middle ages, unable to overcome not only the internal politics of identity, but also the struggle to construct its perceived identity outside the continent”. Putnam further attributes African failure in public administration to poor leadership and bad governance.

Putnam’s views are echoed by Mayanja (2013:116), who highlights that Africa’s leadership crisis is manifested by trends of corruption, persistent abuse of power, lack of respect for the Constitution, as well as poor leadership and governance. Maathai (2009:50) assert that ethical political leadership crisis in Africa is responsible for the continent’s underdevelopment and insecurity as well as social and structural injustices. Therefore, Maathai argues that strengthening ethical political leadership is necessary, given the political situation in the continent where leaders command power and benefit from the system. Mayanja (2013:120) states that ethics comprises principles and concepts to guide leaders of what is right and wrong.

According to Dolamo (2013:3), the concept Ubuntu originated in Egypt. The author mentions seven cardinal values of Ubuntu as “truth, justice, sharing, respect, propriety, harmony and balance”. Furthermore, he defines the Ubuntu concept as a comprehensive African ancient that is based on the values of humanness, caring, sharing, respect and compassion.

The concept Ubuntu is perceived by most scholars as rooted in humanness, respect, love, relatedness and promotion of the collective good. Theletsane (2012:266) assert that in the African continent, many languages have words that describe the concept Ubuntu. The Basotho call it botho, the Shona unhu, the Afrikaaners broederskap, English brotherhood, Xhosa and Zulu Ubuntu. In the Democratic Republic of Congo they call it Bobangia bomoto while it is referred to as gikwese in Angola (Theletsane, 2012). Bekker (2006:334) translates Ubuntu as humaneness and fundamental morality. He argues that metaphorically; in Zulu umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu
describe the significant and value of group solidarity. In Sotho it reads as *motho ke motho ka batho ba bangwe*, which still translates I am a person through others.

In defining the concept *Ubuntu*, the authors above accentuate on group solidarity, collective, respect and morality. This implies that African leaders and public servants must understand that they are not representing themselves but the community. They occupy their positions because of the community. Matshabaphala (2015:500) holds that public representatives and officials are expected to show respect and *Ubuntu* when interacting with members of the public. This gives credential to the claim by certain scholars in this chapter that communities generally prefer to be served by not only competent public servants, but also respectful men and women of character.

In South Africa, the concept *Ubuntu* is utilised in the building of a democracy. Theron and Swart (2008:21) posit that the concept *Ubuntu* is not just a nation-building tool for the democratic South Africa but also perceived as one of the founding principles of democratic South Africa and is intimately connected to the ideals of the African Renaissance. The concept is now an everyday part of the African political vocabulary and is utilised to accentuate the need for unity. Muller (2008:202) agrees with other scholars that *Ubuntu* articulates important values such as “respect, human dignity and compassion”. He further adumbrates that the process of nation building in the democratic South Africa require respect for human rights.

From the spiritual perspective, South Africa’s Archbishop Desmond Tutu is renowned to have given the most definite perspective of *Ubuntu*. In his speech at the University of Cape Town in 2004, he commentedate that “Africans have a thing called *Ubuntu*; it is about the essence of being human, it is part of a gift Africa is going to give to the world. It embraces hospitality, caring about others, being willing to go that extra mile for one another”. He further asserted that “a priest is a priest through his congregation”.

Nyaumwe and Mkabela (2007:152) hold that the moral philosophy of *Ubuntu* is on the belief that someone’s humanity is expressed through relationships with other people in the community. Mbaya (2010:4) agrees with Nyaumwe and Mkabela. According to Mbaya (2010:4), the concept *Ubuntu* includes relationships in which
people are engaged and it is characterised by interdependence and trust. In the African communities, collaboration is significant because of the traditional participatory structures that promote consensus (Mbaya, 2010).

It can be inferred that most African scholars have tended to provide the concept *Ubuntu* various meanings which actually implies humanness, respect and morality as compared to animal like behaviour. Furthermore, most of the aforementioned scholars agree that *Ubuntu* is necessary if Africa has to develop and overcome all its leadership and governance issues.

Scholars such as Maserumule (2011:102) argue that discussion on good governance has led to the emergence of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD). He perceives NEPAD as a tool to enlighten African leaders that the continent holds the key and the capacity to extricate itself from poverty and leadership crisis.

Botha (2009:57) adds on Maserumule’s argument. He asserts that without effective ethical leadership, the core focus of the NEPAD is unlikely to make an impact on the continent. Ayn Rand, a Russian-born American writer and novelist once said “a culture is made or destroyed by its articulate voices”. Therefore Africa has been a vivid example of this when it comes to the culture of *Ubuntu*, its either Africans hold on to it or destroys it.

**3.9 LINK BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN SERVICE DELIVERY**

There is a clear link between effective leadership (a form of collective leadership) and good governance (a collective exercise) in the public domain to service delivery. According to Sindane (2011:759), these are closely linked, that is, effective leadership includes an adaptive response to the non-routine as well as strategic challenges faced by society and government institutions whereas good governance has to do with accountability and transparency.
Du Toit (2002:82) asserts that it is the responsibility of the public service to provide services to society. Vivier and Wentzel (2013:240) maintain that the process to enable the public service to deliver efficient services to society depends on the leadership and governance. Naidoo (2004:69) noted that leaders in the public service should have the necessary skills as well as knowledge about the specialised functions in the public administration to ensure that the institutional goals of service delivery can be achieved in a meaningful way. Public leaders are required to provide guidance, motivation, planning, control, organising as well as decision making to ensure efficient services are rendered to society. These leaders should be accountable, transparent and responsive to the demands and needs of the public.

To improve service delivery, Naidoo (2004:99) suggests that different role players must be consulted about the quality of services they are about to receive. Naidoo further posits that governance requires participation and adherence to the rule of law. Therefore, potential partnerships should be fostered with the private sector, community based institutions and non-governmental organisations to provide effective and efficient forms of service delivery. As South African local government is judged by its effectiveness in delivering services to meet the basic needs of the community, leadership and governance are inextricably linked to the delivery of such services. Despite the struggles and conflict associated with assuming leadership and governance concerns, it is a reality that these issues are imperative for local government to attain its basic service delivery objectives (Naidoo, 2004).

3.10 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY
The link between leadership and governance in service delivery generates the independent and dependent variables of the study. In discussing these variables, it is important to first analyse what is a variable. According to Salkind (2012:23), a ‘variable’ implies various synonyms such as “changeable or unsteady”. In addition, it represents outcomes that can take on more than one value (Salkind, 2012).

A variable can be manipulated or measured. Salkind (2012:24-25) defines dependent variable “as the outcome of an experiment or a research project”. It represents the measure that reflects the outcome. Independent variable can be manipulated or changed to examine its effect on the dependent variable.
represents the conditions that the researcher has either direct or indirect control over to test their effects on a particular outcome (Salkind, 2012:25).

Thomas and Nelson (1996:13) assert that independent variable is the part of the research project that the researcher is manipulating, which they perceive as a ‘treatment variable’ while dependent variable is the effect of the independent variable, which they perceive as ‘outcome or results variable’.

In this study, the researcher considers a possible link between leadership and governance with levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the services delivered. Furthermore, it is assumed that ineffective leadership and poor governance impedes the provision of basic services at the GTM. Leadership and governance become the independent variable of the study. Therefore, the outcome of service delivery as a result of ineffective leadership and poor governance is a dependent variable. It is dependent on the leadership and governance of the municipality. The impact of leadership and governance on service delivery influences certain outcomes. As an independent variable, leadership and governance are subjected to a stimulus of some kind, and the response in service delivery is observed and measured. This response is termed the dependent variable.

It can be argued that ineffective leadership and poor governance is to blame for the state of affairs in many municipalities in South Africa. Based on the literature reviewed by reputable academics such as Naidoo (2004), Kroukamp (2007), Kuye (2007), Matshabaphala (2008), Phago (2013) and Maserumule (2011), it is evident that leadership and governance at the local sphere of government determines the outcome of service delivery. The academics agree that effective leadership and good governance improve the provision of services whereas ineffective leadership and poor governance result in poor service delivery. Therefore, based on the above discussion, it can be inferred that for municipalities such as GTM to become efficient in the provision of basic services, it needs effective leadership and good governance.
3.11 CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

Earlier in this literature review chapter, leadership and governance were conceptualised. Below, these issues are contextualised in the South African context. This section will discuss leadership and governance in service delivery prior to the first democratic elections and post 1994.

3.11.1 Leadership and governance in service delivery before 1994

In the South African context, governance in the form of public participation is significant because of the country’s transition to democracy, which according to Maphunye and Mafunisa (2008:464) “has demonstrated to its citizens and the world the significant of including citizenry in the governance processes”. Maphunye and Mafunisa underscore that “during the apartheid era, and even as early as the period after the 1910 declaration of the Union of South Africa, black citizens were excluded from expressing their views on the country’s government and influencing public policies”.

According to Hornby (2015:57), the word ‘apartheid’ refers to “South Africa’s policy of racial separation” which was enshrined in the laws of the country by the ruling National Party (NP) at that time since 1948. Former Prime Minister of South Africa, the late Dr H.F Verwoerd was regarded as an architect of apartheid system. Although this policy was resented and opposed by the majority of the black citizenry, it was eventually abolished in 1994 when the current ruling ANC came into power.

The apartheid government employed a brutal and authoritarian form of leadership and governance. This government implemented apartheid laws as the apotheosis of good governance and moral power. Consequently, this led to the adoption of ineffective leadership and poor governance framework that was characterised as unaccountable, non-transparent and non-participatory (Naidoo, 2004:6-7). Furthermore, leaders of the notorious apartheid regime did not create space for black citizenry to participate in the government matters. According to Tau (2013:152), the South African apartheid regime was characterised by unilateral decision-making processes and systems of government that favoured the absolute minority in the country. Key decisions were taken which excluded the majority black
citizenry. Services rendered to black communities were of an extremely low standard (Tau, 2013).

During the apartheid era, government policies favoured the minority white citizens. On the other hand, the black majority were oppressed and not allowed to have a say in government matters. Although the black citizenry utilised public protests, labour strikes and ‘toy-i-toying’ (marching) as mechanisms to seek government attention, they were still not allowed to influence government policies (Phago, 2008:239).

Phago (2008:239) argue that prior to 1994, the involvement of the community in government matters was only considered in terms of the policy of separate development along racial lines. This policy did not allow the black citizenry to participate in any governance matters. Participation by the black majority was primary achieved through mass demonstrations. During the 1970’s and 1980’s, numerous boycotts and strikes were held in South Africa in an attempt to force government to amend its apartheid policies (Phago, 2008).

Although segregation was a government policy before the apartheid era in 1948, the Group Areas Act, 1966 (Act 36 of 1966) played a vital role in residential segregation. This Act instituted strict residential segregation between blacks and whites and it orchestrated the compulsory removal of black citizenry to their own separate areas. The objective of this Act was to reserve viable and sustainable urban municipal areas for whites, whereas blacks were removed to separate townships where services were lacking.

In light of the above, it can be inferred that prior to 1994, the black majority were effectively denied democratic representation and any legitimate means to participate in government developmental activities. This implied that the government had disempowered the nation’s majority black citizenry by denying them direct participation in any form of governance. In 1948, the NP advocated an apartheid system between the minority white and majority black citizens based on social, residential, industrial and political fields.
Furthermore, in terms of the leadership, all power and decision-making was vested in a rigid, minority and nationally controlled government. Clearly, the approach to government administration during the apartheid era is in sharp contrast to that of the democratic South Africa.

3.11.2 Leadership and governance in service delivery post 1994

Since the dawn of democracy, the South African government faced major challenges to ensure that municipalities provide efficient services to the communities. It was imperative that local government plays a major role in providing efficient basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and housing, to maintain a reasonable and acceptable standard of living. Thornhill and Dlamini (2012:36) assert that “the local sphere of government has a constitutional obligation to deliver a variety of basic services to the poor and deprived communities”. Vivier and Wentzel (2013:239) concur with Thornhill and Dlamini that municipalities are constitutionally obliged to deliver basic services to communities.

Naidoo and Kuye (2005:622) correctly assert that the South African democratic public service inherited a system that was ineffective and inefficient to address service delivery needs of the citizens. However, the democratic public service had to address the legacy of apartheid. According to Naidoo and Kuye (2005:620), when the democratic government came into power in 1994, there was evidence of the absence of basic services in many black and rural communities. A multiple of public policies and legislation were introduced to address the country’s inequalities and poverty as well as manage service delivery and backlog challenges. This was undertaken to eradicate the legacy and injustices of the past. Furthermore, the policies and legislation were created to enable an environment of good governance between local government and its communities. Certain policies and legislative frameworks are discussed below.

3.11.2.1 Batho Pele principles

Thornhill and Dlamini (2012:37) posit that the Batho Pele principles were introduced in 1997 to deal with the historical deficiencies of the pre 1994 and its poor service delivery record to the black majority citizens in South Africa. As discussed earlier in this chapter, the principles place the citizens at the centre of public service,
accentuating how the citizens should be treated and thereby ensuring that citizens access services and information. Furthermore, the principles underscore that leaders must be accountable to the citizens and reasons must be provided if services are not delivered as per the set standards. Services must be provided economically and efficiently (Batbo Pele Handbook, 2003:21-28). The primary objective of the principles is to encourage a two way relationship between government and citizens (Phago, 2008:248). He believes that such relationships could result in good governance and accelerated service delivery.

3.11.2.2 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996
According to Kroukamp (2007:60), the transformation of local government since 1994 focused on holding the local sphere of government more accountable to deliver essential services to communities. This conforms to the constitutional provision. The Constitution stipulates guidelines of how local government transformation in the governance processes should transpire. Section 153(a) of the Constitution stipulates that a municipality should structure and manage its administration, budgeting and planning processes to prioritise community needs, and promote the social and economic development of that community.

Furthermore, section 215(1) of the Constitution prescribes that the national, provincial and local government budgetary process must promote transparency, accountability and effective financial management of the economy, debt and the public sector. The Constitution is perceived as a contract between all spheres of government and the citizens through a developmental mission that requests communities to clarify and define their own needs.

As for governance structures, the same Constitution mandates state institutions in chapter 9 to uphold constitutional democracy. As discussed earlier in this chapter, the AA, PP and PSC are the particular primary chapter 9 institutions that ensure good public governance. In terms of section 181(2) of the Constitution these institutions must be independent, impartial and perform their functions without fear, favour or prejudice. Furthermore, these institutions are subjected only to the Constitution which is the supreme law of the land.
In addition, Chapter 2 of the Constitution provides for the Bill of Rights, which is perceived as a cornerstone of democracy in the country. It enshrines the rights of all citizens and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom. Furthermore, section 195(1) of the Constitution accentuates the basic values and principles that should govern public administration. These values and principles were discussed in detail earlier in the chapter.

3.11.2.3 Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2000 (Act 2 of 2000)
The Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2000 (Act 2 of 2000) gives effect to section 33 of the Bill of Rights as enshrined in the Constitution. According to its section 9, the objective of this Act is to provide access to any information held by the state or another person which may be required for the exercise or protection of any right, and for the promotion of transparency, accountability and effective governance in both the public and private sectors. Therefore, this Act underscores the right to information as a fundamental right to foster effective public participation.

In the post-apartheid era, transparency and accountability became central to good governance within a participatory system because they compel government to focus on results with clear and specific objectives that are linked to effective strategies to monitor and report on performance. In a democratic dispensation, transparency and accountability are perceived as significant components of public governance and are linked directly to a responsive public service (Fourie and Schoeman, 2010:153).

3.11.2.4 Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000)
According to Napier (2007:376), the notion that government leadership should be accountable to the electorate for their actions or inactions has long been accepted as a principle of democratic government. Apart from the constitutional obligation, section 4 of the Municipal Systems Act accentuates the rights and duties of the municipal council as well as the need to provide democratic and accountable government. In addition, section 51(i) of the same Act stipulates that a municipality must hold the municipal manager accountable for the overall performance of the administration.
This Act also requires the community to participate in both the content of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) including the process pursued during the drafting stage. The local community must be consulted when an IDP is formulated and implemented. According to Tshiyoyo and Koma (2011:123), an IDP is a strategic instrument and method utilised to efficiently manage a municipality. Local government has a constitutional obligation to promote public participation in service delivery and communities should participate at all stages of the service delivery process.

3.11.2.5 Municipal Finance Management Act, 2004 (Act 56 of 2004)

The Municipal Finance Management Act, 2004 (Act 56 of 2004) allows the community to submit representations of the annual municipal budget after it has been tabled. The executive Mayor, in his/ her capacity as the leader of the council, is obliged to respond to these submissions.

Based on the above contextualised discussion, it can be deduced that when the democratic government came into power in 1994, it ensured that the direction of governance change in order to eventually abolish the policies of the apartheid era. While leaders of the apartheid government ignored the voice of the majority black citizenry, the democratic government brought hope to the masses.

A number of policies and legislation were introduced to promote leadership and community engagement in the democratic South Africa. Leaders are now willing to listen to the voices of the ordinary citizens and are obliged to respond. Certain policies and legislation require leaders to be accountable for their actions when managing the public purse. One of the cornerstones of participatory democracy after 1994 enabled the citizenry to have a right not only to elect their preferred representatives, but to participate actively in the government decision-making process. It is for this reason that in South Africa, it is a constitutional obligation to involve communities in affairs that affect them so that their needs, expectations and circumstances can impact on the planning and decision-making process.

These days’ citizens have freedom and latitude to express their views freely without any fear of intimidation, unlike during the apartheid era when citizens feared arrest,
torture, imprisonment and even death for questioning the government’s policies. Today, the citizens have the right to question policy decisions and are not afraid to make their own choices. This is unlike during the apartheid era when the black majority citizenry was prohibited from making their own choices and question any policy decisions.

In addition, the community is provided an opportunity to participate in governance matters regardless of their race, culture or gender. The democratic South Africa considers local government as the delivery arm of government, because it is the sphere that is closest to the citizens. Although the majority black population had no proper participatory decision-making structures, public participation since April 27 1994 is encouraged and promoted to ensure true democracy.

The apartheid system restricted the movement of blacks into the white areas by implementing a policy and legislation of segregation. However, black people organised themselves to fight against the system through mass protests, which culminated in the era of 1994. It is evident that democratic South Africa encourages community participation and community based organisation in matters which relate to government. Public participation in government affairs remains a relevant and important aspect for the 21st century. Democratic South Africa popularised the notion of ‘bringing the government to the people’ to strengthen civil society and mobilise the citizens to implement the governments programmes.

3.12 CONCLUSION
This chapter covered several significant aspects of leadership and governance. The chapter aimed at anchoring this study on the shoulders of reputable leadership and governance scholars to establish what they already know in their discipline. In so doing, this chapter provided the theoretical framework of the study and comprehensive review of published and unpublished sources on this topic.

Furthermore, the chapter demonstrated how leadership and governance in service delivery at the local sphere of government grounds itself in Public Administration. The relationship between leadership and governance to service delivery was also analysed in this chapter.
In the following chapter, the GTM, which serves as the case study, will be outlined. Leadership and governance in service delivery as provided by the municipality will be discussed. A comprehensive overview and background of the municipality will also be highlighted.
CHAPTER 4
AN OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE IN SERVICE DELIVERY:
A CASE STUDY OF THE GREATER TUBATSE MUNICIPALITY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on the GTM which serves as the case study. As alluded in chapter 1, the study was conducted based on numerous AG reports on the service delivery status due to several concerns in the municipality. These reports suggested that leadership and governance are the primary contributors that impeded the delivery of services in the municipality. To test this hypothesis, the researcher will analyse documents and secondary data in the municipality.

Firstly, this chapter will discuss the term ‘case study’. The term is clearly and explicitly defined to shed light on the meaning thereof. The context of unit of analysis, which is the GTM as mentioned above, is also discussed in the chapter. Secondly, a detailed overview and background of the GTM is provided. The structures to promote effective leadership and good governance in the GTM are also discussed. Lastly, governance participatory mechanisms in the GTM are identified and analysed, to establish whether they are efficient to improve basic service delivery.

4.2 CASE STUDY DEFINED

What exactly is a case study? A case study is regarded as one of the most popular qualitative research methods. It is considered to be an empirical enquiry that investigates contemporary and real life situations (Yin, 1994:23). Merriam (1998:9) adds that a case study examines and scrutinises specific phenomena. Salkind (2012:217) agrees that a cases study focuses only on one phenomenon to allow close examination. Furthermore, a case study utilises multiple sources to gather information (Salkind, 2012).

4.3 UNIT OF ANALYSIS

In a social science research, according to Tellis (1997:5), the unit of analysis is very important in the case study. Mouton (2002:51) asserts that the unit of analysis is the
“what of the study”. Maserumule (2005:194) adds that the unit of analysis is “that which is studied”. Leadership and governance in service delivery is studied in this research. It is, therefore, the unit of analysis and the contextual setting is the GTM. In the study, leadership and governance in service delivery as experienced by the GTM is analysed to make a contribution towards improving service delivery in the municipality. The overview and background of the GTM, as the context of the unit of analysis for the purpose of the study, is outlined below.

4.4 OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND OF THE GTM
The study was conducted at the GTM in the Limpopo province, South Africa. The municipality has its seat in the city of Burgersfort, which is located approximately 90 km from Polokwane city. Its borders stretch from the Olifants River (north of the Strydom tunnel to 35 km south of Mashishing; from Ohrigstad to Steelpoort park). It is part of the Bushveld Igneous Complex from Mokopane to Mashishing. The GTM was established in 2000 and is one of the five municipalities within the SDM. Other municipalities within the district include: Ephraim Mogale, Elias Motsoaledi, Makhuduthamaga and Fetakgomo.

Most of the municipalities in the SDM are rural in nature. However, the GTM does comprise several suburbs and townships including 166 villages which are scattered throughout its jurisdiction of approximately 4 550 square kilometres. The SDM is 13 264 square kilometers. The GTM constitutes 34.3 percent of the area in the district and the land ownership is mostly traditional (http://www.tubatse.gov.za). Information by Statistics South Africa (2011) revealed that the GTM has a population of approximately 335 676 with 83 199 households. This makes GTM a municipality with the highest population in the district as illustrated in the table below.
Table 1: Population size of municipalities in Sekhukhune district

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ephraim Mogale</td>
<td>58 207</td>
<td>65 442</td>
<td>123 649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elias Motswaledi</td>
<td>115 503</td>
<td>133 860</td>
<td>249 363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makhuduthamaga</td>
<td>121 282</td>
<td>153 075</td>
<td>274 357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetakgomo</td>
<td>42 258</td>
<td>51 536</td>
<td>93 794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater Tubatse</td>
<td>160 398</td>
<td>175 278</td>
<td>335 676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistics South Africa (2011)

The GTM is a category B municipality. The name emanates from the Tubatse River. Chapter 1, part 2 of the Municipal Structures Act specifies that in South Africa, a category B municipality is one that serves as a third and most local, tier of local government. Hence, the GTM is perceived as one of government agents on service delivery which is close to the people. The GTM is considered the largest municipality within the district, and South Africa’s first democratic platinum city because of the abundant precious mineral deposits in its jurisdiction (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/php?page=background and http://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=993&id=greater-tubatse-municipality).

4.4.1 Leadership

Effective daily management of the municipality is crucial to provide efficient services to the communities. Like any other municipality in South Africa as stipulated in the Municipal Structures Act and the Municipal Systems Act the GTM is governed by the council, which is the highest decision-making body that takes charge of all municipal activities. According to these Acts, the council should annually review: community needs; priorities to achieve the needs; community participation processes; and service delivery mechanisms to meet the demands of the inhabitants.

The executive authority and leadership of the municipality is vested in the Mayor, assisted by the Speaker and Chief Whip as well as top municipal officials such as the municipal manager, CFO and departmental heads. The municipality is comprised of six departments, namely: economic and land development, finance, corporate

4.4.2 Services
Chapter 7 of the Constitution stipulates that municipalities are constitutionally obliged to deliver basic services to their communities. Furthermore, section 157 of the Constitution specifically highlights certain objectives of the local government, including: to provide accountable and democratic government, and ensure basic services are delivered to communities in a fairly and sustainable manner.

As a category B municipality, it serves as a third and most local tier of local the government. The GTM provides the following services:

- clean water and sewage services;
- electricity;
- roads construction and maintenance;
- social development services; and

However, it must be noted that the GTM provides water, sanitation and electricity only in designated areas. In the entire district, it is the responsibility of the SDM to provide water and sanitation while Eskom provides electricity. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the Limpopo provincial department of Corporate Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs (CoGHSTA) to provide housing.

4.4.3 Vision and mission statements
Like any organisation, the GTM has a bold vision and mission statements as well as committed leadership to achieve it. Ehlers and Lazenby (2007:63) define a vision statement as an organisation’s “dream that focuses on a desirable future”. A mission statement is described “as an enduring statement of purpose that differentiates an organisation from other organisations” Ehlers and Lazenby (2007:63). The GTM
vision statement reads: “to develop Tubatse as a platinum city in an integrated manner to improve the quality of life for all who live in it”. A question that the municipality should ask itself when reporting its annual performance is, how far they have gone and how long will it take them to attain a developed Tubatse as a platinum city for the benefit of all who live there? Its mission statements read as follows:

- “local, accountable democracy through active community participation”;
- “economic advancement to fight poverty and unemployment”; 
- “accessible, need-satisfying service rendered in a sustainable, affordable manner”;
- “municipal transformation and institutional development”; and 

According to the GTM IDP (2014/15:9), four key development policies including the vision and mission statements of the municipality were formulated in the 2013/14 financial year. Those key development policies include: (1) vision 2013 blueprint; (2) local economic development strategy; (3) investment promotion and (4) mining beneficiation studies (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/index.php?page=vision=mission).

### 4.4.4 Population and demographics

According to the latest community survey conducted by Statistics South Africa in 2011, the total population of the GTM is approximately 335 676, which makes this municipality the most populated in the SDM. Before the local elections in 2011, the municipality comprised 29 wards, however, two more were added after the 2011 elections to increase the wards to the current 31. Each of the 31 wards has a ward councillor who represents his/her constituency in the municipal council (GTM IDP, 2014/15).
The municipality comprises approximately 166 villages, several townships and suburbs. Furthermore, it comprises of three towns, namely: Burgersfort, Ohrigstad and Steelport as well as three municipal growth points, namely Drie Kop, Ohrigstad and Mecklenburg.

The municipality’s 2013/14 annual report revealed that the breakdown of the racial composition in the municipality is generally representative of the trend in South Africa. The report further highlighted that the black population represents more than 92 percent of the total population, the white citizenry comprises the second largest racial population group at 5.52 percent, while Indians and Coloureds comprise 2.72 percent and 1.60 percent respectively. The Census (2011) report revealed that the highest population densities were found in the wards one (Burgersfort) and three (Steelport) of the municipality. The majority of the people migrated to the urban and developing areas in search of employment opportunities (GTM IDP, 2013/14).
Approximately 66 percent of the households within the municipality live in poverty-stricken conditions and have inadequate access to infrastructure and social services, health and education facilities, as well as local economic development opportunities. Certain families do not have well-constructed homes and access to basic public services. Furthermore, the sex ratio in the municipality is 88, that is, for every 100 women there are 88 men. The following languages are spoken in the municipality, namely: Sepedi (78.6%), Tsonga (6.9%), isiNdebele (3.8%), isiZulu (2.1%) while the remainder comprises of 8.6 percent. Of those aged 20 years and older, 26 percent have completed matric while 12 percent have higher education qualifications (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/index.php?page=population-demographics and http://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=993&id=greater-tubatse-municipality).

4.4.5 Councillors and ward committees
According to the Municipal Structures Act, there are two types of councillors who serve in the South African municipalities, namely: ward councillors and Party Representative (PR) councillors. The GTM has both ward councillors and PR councillors. The PR councillor is elected through the party list and is accountable to that party. Ward councillors are attached to their wards to ensure that community needs are addressed by the municipality.

Paradza, Mokwena and Richard (2010:11) argue that ward councillors act as key mechanisms for service delivery. They monitor municipality’s plans and programmes to ensure that intended targets are achieved and services are provided in an efficient, fair and sustainable manner. Apart from this primary responsibility, ward councillors are responsible for providing progress reports to their constituency, which explains council decisions in committing resources to developmental projects and programmes affecting them, and most importantly serve as a link between the community and municipality (Paradza, Mokwena and Richard, 2010).

An article titled ‘Councillor’s role in service delivery’ by Thornhill and Dlamini (2012:41) accentuates that the councillor’s job is not only to serve as the community’s voice and express their needs, but also to act as a watchdog and ensure the municipality formulate and implement policies to address the community needs. Section 73 of the Municipal Structures Act gives effect to the establishment of
the ward committees, which must comprise of no more than 10 members. The ward councillor also serves as a chairperson of their respective ward committees at which they raise concerns to the municipality on behalf of their constituency when residents experience service delivery problems (Thornhill and Dlamini, 2012).

In South Africa, it is a constitutional obligation for local government to ensure the participatory process. The communities are afforded an opportunity to be consistent in their actions and participate in government matters. Sebei (2013:131) argues that ward committees should play a significant role in this process since South Africa is a participatory democratic country.

4.4.6 Political structures
The current political structure in the GTM since the 2011 municipal elections reveals that the ANC has more than 50 seats (78.55%), Democratic Alliance (DA) three seats (5.28%), Congress of the People (COPE) three seats (5.11%), Pan African Congress (PAC) two seats (3.24%), African People’s Convention (APC) one seat (1.19%), and United Democratic Front (UDM) seat (0.19%). There are also two independent councillors from wards 20 and 21 respectively (5.73%). Furthermore, the ANC has 21 PR councillors, DA three PR councillors, COPE three PR councillors, PAC two PR councillors, APC one PR councillor and UDM one PR councillor. Furthermore, there are four portfolio committees, namely: technical portfolio, corporate portfolio, economic and land development portfolio and finance portfolio (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/index.php?page=vision-political-structure). These committees are established in terms of section 43 of the Municipal Structures chaired by the Speaker of the municipality.

4.4.7 Mineral resources and tourist attractions
The GTM is endowed with mineral resources, which range from chrome to platinum mines. The municipality is located in Burgersfort, which is known as the platinum city because of a large number of platinum mines surrounding it. Currently there are approximately 20 operational mines around the city, namely: Marula, Twickernham, Modikwa, Impala, Bokoni, Hackney, Two rivers, Booysen, Mototolo, Dilokong, Harvecroft Segorong, Steelport, Chromax, Lannex, Tweefontein, Dwars, Thorncliff, Magareng and the Hellena mines. Some of these mines have been operating since
the 1920s. The minerals that are currently being mined include platinum, chrome, vanadium, silica and magnetite. (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/index.php?page=mining-tourism).

According to the GTM IDP (2014/15), the unemployment rate within the municipality stands at 44 percent while youth unemployment is a striking 59.6 percent. Although there are many operating mines within the Burgersfort city, the municipality has a weak economic base and high poverty level. However, government has identified Burgersfort city as a growth point in the Limpopo province because of its mining activities. During the State of the Nation address in 2014 and 2015 respectively, the State President of the Republic of South Africa, Honourable Jacob Zuma has identified the GTM as a *Special Economic Zone* and currently processes are underway to achieve that. The municipality is attempting to alleviate poverty through projects to improve the socio-economic conditions in the area (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/index.php?page=mining-tourism).

The following are interesting tourism sites within the municipality: Mahubehube Caves in Bothashoek village, waterfalls in Mankele and Ga-mokgotho villages, old coach wagon in Leboeng village, King Sekhukhune of Bapedi tribe statue at Tjate village and miraculous trees at Phiring village (http://www.tubatse.gov.za/index.php?page=mining-tourism).

**4.5 STRUCTURES PROMOTING EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP AND GOOD GOVERNANCE AT THE GTM**

In an attempt to ensure unyielding commitment and focus on sound and good governance and leadership, the GTM has developed measures and initiatives to strengthen efficient service delivery. This commitment is underpinned by adhering to the Constitution and other legislation, which require municipalities to ensure effective leadership and good governance through appropriate structures, processes and procedures when providing services to their communities. The following structures are discussed in this section: Performance Management System, Integrated Development Plan, Municipal Public Accounts Committee and Community Development Workers.
4.5.1 Performance Management System

According to Munzhedzi and Phago (2014:1083), the performance management system (PMS) is one of the most crucial developments in management and in assessing an organisation’s performance and productivity. In every organisation, effective management of individual performance is critical to execute and achieve institutional strategic objectives. In the South African public service, PMS was introduced for two reasons: (1) to monitor, review, assess and develop underperformers, and (2) to recognise, as well as reward good performance. Commitment and peak performance by public servants is required to ensure that services are rendered in accordance with the expectations of the community members who are growing increasingly impatient (Munzhedzi and Phago, 2014).

Mello (2015:689) defines PMS “as a process integrated within other institutional systems and strategies for the optimal achievement of organisational goals, objectives and career long development of employees”. PMS is the process which identifies, develops, measures and records the strength and weaknesses of employees in a job environment to achieve institutional goals and objectives (Munzhedzi and Phago, 2014:1084). Although the definitions differ slightly, both authors agree that PMS is implemented with the aim to achieve institutional goals and developing employees.

Magoro (2015:701) highlights the primary objectives of PMS as to: correct performance inefficiencies, align individual goals to organisational goals, monitor and measure performance, create accountability and transparency, and manage resources.

PMS is an essential aspect of service delivery at the South African local government. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) is considered as the first policy document that proposed the introduction of performance management regulations to the South African local government. This policy states that PMS is critical to ensure municipality’s plans are effectively implemented and resources are efficiently utilised.

According to Magoro (2015:700), for municipalities to address service delivery backlogs, they must implement systems that will assist them to meet the needs of
their communities. Magoro’s view is vindicated by Manyaka and Sebola (2015:681), who assert that the South African local government has adopted PMS as an instrument to achieve effective service delivery.

Quality service delivery requires that all aspects of the municipality be dedicated to achieve the highest standards of performance as required by the community. It is for this reason that Mavhivha (2007:24) asserts that “performance management aims at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of local government by helping municipalities to focus on strategic priorities and measuring results, and at improving municipal accountability to local communities”.

Sections 56 and 57 of the Municipal Systems Act, requires that performance agreements be completed when an incumbent is appointed as the municipal manager, or a director directly accountable to the municipal manager. In terms of this Act, these performance agreements must prescribe the performance objectives and targets that must be met by appointees. At the GTM, the Key Performance Areas (KPA) and Key Performance Indicators (KPI) of the municipal manager and heads of departments are aligned to their departmental IDPs (GTM IDP, 2013/14:15). Consequently, their employment contract can be terminated should they not achieve their set objectives.

The GTM IDP (2014/15:155-157) highlights that the municipality implemented a performance management policy during the 2006/2007 financial year. However, the IDP revealed that the process of implementing performance management at the GTM was not a smooth one. The IDP further identifies the following as factors that affected implementation in the municipality:

- political stability/interference;
- lack of resources, especially financial resources;
- no active municipal by-laws to regulate operations;
- poor monitoring and evaluation of performance;
- no proper model that can be used for implementation;
- cadre deployment policy; and
only a manual PMS is available, no electronic system.

Furthermore, the GTM annual report (2014/15:101) revealed that the municipality’s PMS is not fully operational. The municipality implemented the PMS only at the institutional and senior management level. All senior managers are required to sign performance agreements which outline work standards and code of conduct. These agreements remain in force for the financial year but are reviewed on a quarterly basis per annum. The agreements are based on the following KPA and KPI’s: (1) institutional transformation and organisational development, (2) basic service delivery and infrastructure development, (3) financial viability and management, (4) good governance and public participation, and (5) local economic development (GTM annual report, 2014/15).

In terms of the signed performance agreements, if the managers fail to reach the set goals, action can be taken against them. Firstly, remedial developmental support and guidance should be provided to the incumbent to improve his/her performance. Secondly, after having provided the necessary guidance and support, the municipality may terminate the incumbent’s employment contract on grounds of being unfit or lacks capacity to execute the required duties. Furthermore, a performance bonus of 5% to 14% of the all-inclusive annual remuneration package may be paid as per a performance management framework policy to the employee in recognition of outstanding performance. The municipality is in the process of cascading the PMS to other employees (GTM annual report, 2014/15:101-102).

The GTM annual report (2014/15:101) further revealed that the municipality could not conduct individual performance reviews for 2013/14 financial year “due to high vacancy rate at the senior management level”. During that year, under review, all senior management positions were filled temporarily with the exception of the ELD director. The acting positions included the municipal manager and CFO, directors of corporate services, community services, and technical services (GTM annual report, 2014/15:39-42). It must be borne in mind that all these posts are critical for municipality to deliver effective and efficient services to the community. In fact, the vacancy of senior management positions created a leadership vacuum which
affected the ability of the municipality to successfully drive service delivery (GTM annual report, 2014/15:101).

Furthermore, the chairperson of the GTM Audit Committee, in his report for the period 1st July – 31st December 2014, noted with concern the “limited authority that comes with an acting position for the incumbents, which given the rooted culture of non-performance, unprofessionalism and infighting amongst the municipal staff members that pose a challenge to their abilities to turn the ship around speedily”. Therefore, the Audit Committee recommended that all vacancies be filled as quickly as possible with permanent or fixed term appointees who will have authority and a long term commitment to limit the current challenges faced by the municipality (GTM Audit Committee report, 2014:7).

In light of the above, it can be deduced that the GTM is faced with a multiple of challenges in the implementation of PMS, which embraces effective leadership, good governance and efficient delivery of services. The municipality’s PMS must be improved because the revealed evidence proves that the system is inconsistent. The GTM annual report (2009/10:11) highlighted that the AG found that this system lacked inconsistency because its performance targets were not specific, measurable and time bound.

4.5.2 Integrated Development Plan

The Municipal Systems Act requires the community to serve as role players in the IDP process. In terms of this Act, the community must have a say in both the content and the processes of the IDP when it is drafted. Furthermore, this Act requires municipal councils to develop a culture of participatory governance as well as conditions that are conducive for the community and other relevant local stakeholders to participate in civic matters. Tshabalala and Lombard (2009:397) hold that an IDP is a municipal planning document resulting from the consultation with community members.

According to Mavhivha (2007:24), an IDP is a process which allows municipalities to establish developmental plans and involve all relevant stakeholders in the activities of the municipalities. However, Tshiyoyo and Koma (2011:123) posit that an IDP is a
strategic instrument and method utilised to manage a municipality. It provides an opportunity for both the community and the municipality to deliberate and interact on local development concerns (Tshiyoyo and Koma, 2011). In addition, according to Thornhill and Madumo (2011:135), an IDP helps to: effectively utilises scarce resources, enhance service delivery, deal with apartheid legacy, strengthen democracy, attract additional funding and co-ordinate all three spheres of government.

According to the GTM IDP (2013/14:15), the key stakeholders in the IDP process in the municipality are the heads of the department of finance, technical service, corporate services and community service, political representatives, ward councillors, Office of the Speaker, community at large, district municipality, Office of the Premier, private sector and traditional leaders. Tshiyoyo and Koma (2011:123) assert that an IDP sets out municipal vision, priorities, goals and strategies to respond to the community needs. However, “many municipalities in South Africa are unable to utilise IDP’s effectively as governance mechanism in improving service delivery” (Tshiyoyo and Koma, 2011).

The GTM is no exception. Despite credibility of its IDP, the municipality is unable to address all the community needs raised during the IDP public consultation process. Huge service delivery backlog is the proof that the municipality is unable to utilise its IDP effectively to improve the lives of the people (GTM IDP, 2008/9:51).

Although the process of formulating an IDP is a lengthy one, it is a worthwhile effort. It requires thorough consultation with all the stakeholders. The process must be well-coordinated or it might fail. The GTM annual report revealed that before the 2008/9 financial year, the municipality had appointed a service provider to develop its IDP. However, the process made limited progress. This was the reason the municipality took over the development of its IDP from the 2009/10 financial year (GTM IDP, 2013/14:48).

4.5.3 Municipal Public Accounts Committee

In South Africa, accountability and oversight are constitutional requirements at all three spheres of government. The AG was appointed in terms of chapter 9 of the
Constitution to review management of finances and accountability in these spheres. Furthermore, the Standing Committee on Public Accounts (SCOPA) is responsible to strengthen financial oversight at the national and provincial governments. According to Khalo (2013:579), Municipal Public Accounts Committee (MPAC) was established as an oversight mechanism to close gaps and deficiencies raised by AG and SCOPA in the local government. Various reports by SALGA attest that there was lack of capacity at municipalities in South Africa to close the gaps and deficiencies; hence MPAC plays a significant role at the local sphere of government. The MPAC has been designed to strengthen oversight and accountability within the local sphere of government with a view to improve performance and service delivery, safeguarding against corruption, and mismanagement of resources (Khalo, 2013).

The MPAC is established in terms of section 79 committees of the Municipal Finance Management Act. According to Khalo (2013:589), the core functions of the MPAC include: to provide financial information to municipal councils to hold the executive administration accountable for monies spent, ensure municipalities utilise resources effectively and efficiently, and scrutinise the financial statements of both the municipalities as well as accounting officers and the AG reports.

The GTM as other municipalities in South Africa has MPAC to ensure oversight of its finances. It was established since 2009 and remains functional. In terms of its composition, the GTM IDP states that it reflects a wide range of experience and expertise from among the council as well as political mix. It comprises of 10 members, which includes two legal experts from members of the public, six members from the ANC and two members from various political parties (GTM IDP 2013/14).

Furthermore, the GTM IDP (2013/14) revealed that the following factors prevent MPAC from functioning effectively in its municipality:

- limited resources;
- inadequate powers; and
refusal to implement resolutions by the administration (in most instances this committee is undermined by the executive and municipal administration). It must be borne in mind that the Executive Mayor and Executive Committee Members are not allowed to be part of MPAC.

The MPAC is the municipality's watchdog that ensures accountability on behalf of the community. In the GTM MPAC meeting held on the 30 April 2013, the oversight annual report of the 2011/12 financial year was presented to the special council of the municipality. A written presentation was received from Roka Motshana Traditional council regarding electrification of various Motshana villages under ward 16. The Roka Motshana Traditional Council enquired why Motshana and the other villages within ward 16 were not electrified and energised as per Memorandum of Agreement (MoU) signed between the Department of Energy (DoE) and the GTM. In their letter directed to the GTM Speaker, the Roka Motshana Traditional Council complained about the lack of engagement between the municipality and the community.

Furthermore, the same letter accentuated the municipality’s inability to ensure transparency and accountability on this issue. It is alleged in the letter that the municipal council meeting held on the 15th October 2012 instructed the MPAC to investigate the reasons for the delay in the electrification project. However, that investigation was never conducted because the municipal manager refused to provide necessary documents. The said letter, as written by the Roka Motshana Traditional council to Cllr Q Moeng, GTM Speaker is attached as Annexure B. It provides evidence that leadership and governance impedes service delivery in the municipality since this project was not completed in accordance with the signed MoU.

In the SA21/2013 oversight annual report for 2011/12 financial year, the GTM MPAC observed the following about the said project;

- project was not completed within the 2011/12 financial year and in accordance with the MoU signed between the GTM and DoE;
• R10 million from the allocated grant by the DoE was withdrawn due to poor performance;
• delay in tender process to appoint consultants;
• delay in completing or making sure that the Motshana villages are electrified encouraged vandalism and unrest by the community. Furthermore, it affected public confidence in the municipality;
• the accounting officer (in this case a municipal manager) had failed to plan, prioritise and effectively implement the electrification of the project; and
• there is no clear explanation or accountability in the 2011/12 annual report on why the said villages are without power (SA21/2013 oversight annual report for 2011/12).

In light of the above, it can be inferred that there are both leadership and governance challenges in service delivery at the municipality. The above discussion provides clear evidence that leadership in the municipality has failed to steer the project and there was no accountability for their actions or inactions. Furthermore, there was clear evidence about the lack of engagement between the municipality and the community about the project.

4.5.4 Community Development Workers
The Community Development Workers programme was introduced in 2003 as a tool to deal with service delivery backlogs and fast track developments in the South African local government. It was announced by former President Thabo Mbeki during the State of the Nation Address. A handbook for Community Development Workers (CDW) was produced by the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) in collaboration with the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) with the objective to accelerate service delivery in municipalities. This handbook outlines that the provincial government should be the employer and that municipalities be the workplace for CDW. Municipalities would serve as the workplace for the CDW’s because the bulk of the services delivered are the responsibility of the local government, because it is closest to the people (Handbook of CDW, 2007: DPSA).
CDW’s are perceived as participatory agents of change. They work in the communities where they live to ensure services are delivered in the most effective and efficient manner. Furthermore, they are answerable to the community for their activities (Handbook of CDW, 2007:14). According to Disoloane and Lekonyane (2011:1078), CDW’s are deployed to work with communities and ensure that government improves the quality of public expenditure. Mubangizi (2009:440) explains that CDW’s are “deployed to fill the service gap between government services and local communities”. CDW’s are regarded as a panacea to service delivery backlogs and are link between municipalities and citizens (Mubangizi, 2009).

Tshishonga and Mafema (2010:574-575) add that CDW is not a policy but a programme that is anchored on overarching and strategic objectives including: to deal with service delivery backlogs, enhance democracy by strengthening a social contract between communities and government, link communities and government on service delivery concerns, advocate for community’s voice and enhance community and government networks.

Considering the service delivery backlogs and lack of development in the GTM and community level, the introduction of the CDW programme was imperative. The Mayor launched this programme at the GTM in 2008 with the sole purpose to curb the backlogs in service delivery to the community (GTM IDP, 2014/15:132). It must be borne in mind, as alluded to earlier that the local government is constitutionally obliged to provide basic services to communities, as it is closest to communities. This is corroborated by Tshishonga and Mafema (2010:564), who hold that municipalities are required to provide basic services to ensure people have dignified and respectable lives. Therefore, the inception of the CDW is an effective way to eradicate development deadlocks and improve the relationship between a municipality and communities to build a responsible and accountable government in the provision of basic services.

The GTM IDP (2014/15:137) highlighted that there were 27 CDW’s appointed by the Office of the Limpopo Premier in GTM. They assisted the community with matters such as applications for identity documents and social grants, start-up small businesses and other matters of a developmental nature in the community.
Furthermore, they assisted the municipality during the public participation process and report to the Office of the Speaker (GTM IDP, 2014/15).

The GTM IDP (2014/15) highlights the following as challenges which face CDW’s in the municipality:

- the programme was conceived without a national policy direction;
- communities do not trust the programme and are suspicious that the CDW are government spies;
- the roles and responsibilities of the CDW are misunderstood by municipalities and communities; and
- municipal stakeholders such as councillors, ward committee members and officials are uncertain about the CDW’s accountability and governance systems.

A study conducted by Disoloane and Lekonyane (2011:1079) on the role of the CDW’s within the South African local government provides evidence that there is no trust between CDW’s and councillors as well as the community at large. Their study revealed that CDW’s are seen as ‘government spy’s’ and ‘loose cannons’ who refused to “take instructions from councillors and who completely lacked accountability”. Based on the above structures of effective leadership and good governance as experienced by the GTM, it can be deduced that the municipality is faced with huge challenges to improve its service delivery to the communities.

4.6 PARTICIPATORY MECHANISMS AT THE GTM
Public participation and engagement in the administration and governance of municipalities is essential if such municipalities are to function efficiently and effectively. Across all the municipalities in South Africa, governance is ensured through participation of stakeholders, non-government organisations, civic society and the community at large to ensure that everyone is involved in the local government affairs. It has to be noted that municipalities are not the only players in
the realisation of its goals. Other players include the multitude of citizens throughout the municipality's jurisdiction.

The GTM is no exception. It has established a range of participatory mechanisms to encourage and facilitate a culture of community participation. The GTM views community involvement in its affairs as the cornerstone of development. The culture of participatory governance within the municipality is manifested itself in the form of the following mechanisms; Mayoral Imbizos, Ward Committees and Residents Forum.

4.6.1 Mayoral Imbizos

Kondlo (2010:386) posits that during the mayoral imbizo, the Mayor and a high level delegation visit communities within the municipality to exchange views on service delivery. Mayoral imbizos provide an opportunity for the municipality to communicate its programme of action and the progress to the community. It is a municipal initiative where the Mayor and the executive visits the citizenry to see for themselves the type of services rendered to the community. Questions are asked, concerns are heard and advice is taken from the community about the municipality’s programmes and services. It affords the Mayor and the delegation direct access to what the community says and feels about the municipality and service delivery as well as listens to their concerns and their grievances (Kondlo, 2010:386-388).

Originally, traditional set-up from where the concept was derived, an Imbizo is a forum to enhance dialogue and interaction between government and communities. The term ‘imbizo’ is derived from the South African Zulu language, which implies ‘come together or convene’. It was introduced by the government to facilitate regular interaction and dialogue between government and its citizens on matters that affect the community. It further provides an opportunity for municipalities and other government agents to communicate their developmental plans to the community (Hartslief and Auriacombe, 2009:867).

It is important to point out that when the Mayor listens to the community, it does not necessarily imply that everybody’s concern would be taken into consideration. However, it is vital that the participants enjoy the same rights to speak irrespective of
their status in society and decisions should be made on consensus. The village elites and those who endeavour to become the ruling incumbents should perceive the ordinary people as shareholders in governance. Mayoral imbizos should ensure participation by ordinary villagers and not only village elites (Hofisi, 2014:1136).

However, although Hartsief (2009:330-331) agrees that participation should involve everyone in the community regardless of their level of education, he cautions that occasionally the illiterate feel inferior during engagement. They are generally afraid to participate because they think that they cannot make a worthwhile contribution to the discussion. Most of them believe that innovative ideas emanate from educated persons (Hartsief, 2009).

According to Hartsief and Auriacombe (2009:868), the aims of the mayoral imbizo include: (1) to enable the community to hold the municipality accountable and influence governance and service delivery; (2) allow the Mayor and the delegation to personally see some of the challenges the community faces, including the conditions under which they live.

According to the GTM annual report, a number of mayoral imbizos were held in the last five years. This allowed the communities to engage with the Mayor and his delegation about service delivery concerns. Several successes and challenges which emanated from these imbizos in the municipality are discussed in detail in chapter 5.

4.6.2 Ward Committees
A ward committee is a representative and consultative structure that plays a pivotal role to improve service delivery. It measures the efficiency and effectivity of the municipal service delivery. Furthermore, it provides a link between the community and municipality (Reddy and Sikhakhane, 2008:682). According to Thornhill and Dlamini (2012:41), ward committees promote inclusive and participatory governance whereby service delivery is monitored by ward councillors on behalf of the communities. The primary role of the ward councillors is to ensure that service delivery concerns related to their wards are being attended by the municipality (Thornhill and Dlamini, 2014).
Ward committees were formally introduced in 2000 in terms of the Municipal Structures Act with the aim to enhance participatory local democracy. In terms of this Act, ward committees should comprise of the councillor as a chairperson and not more than 10 members.

In a representative democratic model, ward councillors ensure that the community’s voice is heard in council, thereby impact on decision-making process. Ward committees enable community participation in the municipality’s affairs, especially on concerns that affect the community. Ward councillors are familiar with the needs of the community in areas they represent since they are inhabitants. They are more effective in getting first-hand information from their communities. Furthermore, they ensure that the areas they represent are provided with services of acceptable quality because they will also benefit by virtue of being inhabitants in such areas (Nekhavhambe, 2014:1144).

The GTM IDP (2014/15:136) reported that this municipality has 31 ward committees with 10 ward committee members each. Ward committee elections for the current GTM administration was conducted during the months of August and September 2011. At the GTM, training for ward committees is conducted each year to assist with the daily management of the ward. This training workshop is facilitated by the GTM in partnership with SALGA. The GTM and SDM budgets for the stipend paid to each ward committee member on a monthly basis (GTM IDP, 2014/15). However, of concern was that the last time the municipality conducted a skills audit on ward committees was during the 2007/08 financial year. This is a great concern because a skills audit has to assess the skill level of committee members to determine their relevance to the committee (GTM annual report, 2013/14:47).

4.6.3 Tubatse Service Delivery Forum

Although a review of the GTM documents suggest that ward committees and mayoral imbizos are the primary arenas or modes of engagement between the municipality and communities, Tubatse Service Deliver Forum (TSDF) also has a role to play as an engagement mechanism. This forum was designed by the community in the GTM as a key instrument, among many other instruments available in the municipality to manage the ever-increasing concerns about basic service
delivery to the people. The forum was launched in 2008 to ensure that ordinary people’s voices are heard in the service delivery policy-making process at the municipality (GTM annual report, 2011/12:35).

The primary aim of the forum was to look after the interests of the community on issues of service delivery in the municipality. It is comprised of community representatives from different wards of the municipality. The composition includes youth, women and unemployed people (GTM annual report, 2011/12:26).

Based on the above governance participatory mechanisms within the GTM, it can be inferred that the gap that exists between local government and communities should be bridged. Promoting and strengthening community participation is one way of closing the gap. Furthermore, it can be deduced that the GTM can benefit from involving its community on issues that affect them. Not only will this exercise close the gap and promote trust between the municipality and community but it will also encourage accountability and good governance because leaders will be aware that the communities are observing their conduct and service delivery. Without the involvement of its community, the GTM will never achieve its service delivery goals and objectives. In addition, there must be an element of transparency and openness on both the side of the communities and that of the GTM.

**4.7 CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed a case study of the GTM. The concepts case study and unit of analysis were defined. An overview and background of the GTM was also examined. It became evident that local government in South Africa is characterised by wasteful and fruitless expenditure, ineffective and inefficient administration. Therefore, the establishment of different structures to promote effective leadership and good governance within the GTM was highlighted. In compliance to the structures, PMS, IDP, MPAC and CDW of the municipality was analysed. The aforementioned structures were established to ensure good governance in the municipality. Good governance requires municipalities to be responsive, transparent, and accountable in the delivery of services.
It is a legislative mandate that municipalities should regularly consult with their communities on matters that affect them as well as allow them to participate in the affairs of the municipalities. Therefore, participatory mechanisms in the municipality, in the form of Mayoral Imbizos, Ward Committees and Tubatse Service Delivery Forum were analysed and discussed. The next chapter will present the findings of the study.
CHAPTER 5
ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to present analyses of the data on leadership and governance in service delivery at the local government, with specific reference to the GTM. In chapter 3, it was revealed that effective leadership and good governance improves service delivery in government. Furthermore, in terms of the Constitution and legislation such as Municipal Structures Act and Municipal Systems Act, municipalities are obliged to develop a range of structures and mechanisms to facilitate public participation. The members of the community must be included in these structures and mechanisms implemented to ensure that decisions taken by the municipalities are responsive to their needs.

The first section of this chapter is a revisit of information gathering methods employed in the study. This will be followed by a discussion of how the collected information was analysed. Lastly, the findings of the study will be revealed.

5.2 INFORMATION GATHERING AND ANALYSIS

As highlighted above, the primary aim of this chapter is to critically analyse the data gathered at the GTM. The first part of this section discusses the methods that were used to gather data, while the second part explains the approach that was followed to analyse the data.

5.2.1 Methods of information gathering

In this study, secondary data was collected through an extensive literature review, documentary analysis, single case study and available statistical information from the GTM. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:149), the primary data involves the collection of first-hand information, whereas secondary data entails the collection of existing information. Salkind (2012:53) adds that a researcher needs to go to the field for first-hand information, utilise techniques such as questionnaires, interviews, observation and participation, while secondary data entails, inter alia, documentary analysis and literature review. In this instance, the researcher does not
necessitate going to the field to gather information because it is available for analysis.

For the purpose of analysing secondary data in this study, the researcher selected sources through a purposive or judgemental strategy. Auriacombe and Mouton (2007:450) assert that in this strategy, a researcher selects groups or categories on the basis of their relevance to the research objectives. Therefore, this strategy enabled the researcher to label related documents, articles, reports and relevant sources to achieve the research objectives. Consequently, the researcher was able to easily identify sources with relevant data for analysis. As indicated earlier, multiple sources for secondary data collection was utilised namely: documentary data analysis, literature review and a case study. The sources are explained briefly below.

Firstly, the researcher reviewed selected relevant literature for the study. The study sought to determine the extent to which leadership and governance affects the delivery of services at the local sphere of government. The study was contextualised on the South African local sphere of government. Therefore, South African literature was underscored. However, African literature on leadership and governance was also reviewed. The literature reviewed ranged from 1990 to 2015. The sources reviewed included scholarly books, dissertations and theses, conference proceedings and addresses, newspaper articles, Acts and legislation, internet documents as well as articles published in accredited journals such as the South Africa Journal of Public Administration, African Journal of Public Affairs, Administratio Publica and Politeia.

Secondly, secondary data was collected through documentary analysis of relevant and significant documents. These documents included GTM IDPs, annual reports, mayoral speeches, financial reports, LED strategic documents, performance agreements as well as AA, SDM, and PP reports, municipal IQ documents and other documents that added value to the study.

The third source was the case study. Yin (1994:23) posits that a case study is perceived as one of the most popular qualitative research methods, which according to Salkind (2012:217), focuses on only one individual or an aspect to allow close
examination and scrutiny. Therefore, a case study was conducted within ambit of the study at the GTM. The structures that promote effective leadership and good governance in the municipality were analysed comprehensively. These included Performance Management Systems, Integrated Development Plans, Municipal Public Account Committees and Community Development Workers. Furthermore, mechanisms for participatory governance in the municipality were also analysed. The mechanisms included: Mayoral Imbizos, Ward Committees and Tubatse Service Delivery Forum.

5.2.2 Information analysis approach
Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (2002:465) define data analysis as a systematic process to search and arrange data in order to increase understanding thereof and present what has had learned. White (2003:5-6) reiterates that data analysis includes separating data into manageable themes. White also argues that data analysis discloses relevant and scientific data which enables the researcher to elicit meaningful conclusions on the population. In simple terms, data analysis, as explained by McMillian and Schumacher (1997:50) entails: continuous discovery of tentative patterns, data ordering and categorising, and synthesis writing of themes and concepts.

Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that data analysis is conducted to categorise, order, manipulate and summarise information in order to respond to research questions and achieve research objectives.

In this study, a qualitative research approach was adopted. Qualitative data analysis is a systematic process to select, categorise, compare, synthesise, and interpret information to provide explanations on phenomenon of interest (White, 2005:82). This process, according to Neuman (2000:441), requires effort by a researcher to read and re-read information notes, and then reflects to make comparison based on logic and judgement. In the study, data was analysed from secondary and documentary sources such as IDP, annual reports, articles, books and conference proceedings. The researcher realised that data was repeated in both the IDP and annual reports which confirmed that it was credible and reliable.
Furthermore, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, a judgemental strategy was employed to select the sources that would need to be analysed in the study. In this instance, the researcher was able to identify and select sources with relevant information to respond to the research question(s) and achieve the study objective(s). The sources were labelled ‘important’, which assisted the researcher to save valuable time.

5.3 REVISITING THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In terms of the Constitution, the local sphere of government is primarily responsible to provide fundamental and basic services to its local communities because it is perceived as the arm of government that is closest to the people. However, local government is faced with a multiple challenges of how to address the basic services required by communities. These challenges include, amongst others, the lack of effective leadership and poor governance in the municipalities. The challenges were of significance when formulating the objectives of the study. The focus of this study was on how the GTM can adopt effective leadership and good governance to improve the provision of basic services to its local communities.

In chapter 1, the objectives of the study were formulated as follows:

- To assess the current level of basic service delivery in the municipality.
- To determine the leadership model adopted by the municipality.
- To identify participatory governance mechanisms in the municipality.
- To identify leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality.

5.4 RESEARCH FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION

In this section, the findings and interpretation of the study are presented. The data presented was collected and analysed as discussed earlier in the chapter. The findings to achieve the above objectives are presented below.
5.4.1 Current level of basic service delivery in the municipality

As mentioned in chapter 1, for the purpose of this study, service delivery implies the provision of basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and housing by the GTM to its local communities. Therefore, the level of service delivery analysed in this section is the provision of water, sanitation, electricity and housing.

5.4.1.1 Water

In terms of the Constitution as well as other pieces of legislation such as Municipal Structures Act and Water Service Act, 1997 (Act 108 of 1997), the provision of water and sanitation to the local community is a core responsibility of a local government, whether as Water Service Authority (WSA) or Water Service Provider (WSP). In this sphere of government, this responsibility resides with the designated local government authorities, that is, either a local municipality or district municipality. In practice, this refers to the country’s 283 local municipalities or 52 district municipalities.

SDM is both a WSA and WSP in the GTM. According to the Water Service Act, WSA refers to any municipality with executive authority to provide water services in its jurisdiction area. The Act further stipulates that only one WSA is permitted in a particular area. There cannot be more than one WSA in the area.

Furthermore, the Water Service Act defines WSP as any person who is contracted to sell water or treat wastewater to WSA. Mathole (2013:35) agrees that a WSP should be contracted to WSA to provide water services to one or more consumers within a specific geographical area.

The study revealed that the delivery of water in the GTM remains a challenge. Although SDM tries to deliver on water projects in the municipality, many villages are still without clean water. Most of the villages depend on boreholes and rivers as sources to receive water. However, many of the boreholes dry up. The UN water standard deems water from the river not for human consumption. In terms of the National Health Act, 2003 (Act 63 of 2003), reasonable measures should be implemented to prevent the pollution of any water intended for use by the
community. Such water must be purified to ensure it is not harmful or dangerous to the health of any person.

According to the GTM IDP (2015/16:58-59), water in rural and peri-urban areas in the municipality is provided primarily through standpipes on the street (RDP standard), whereas piped potable water is available in the following towns: Burgersfort, Steelport and Ohrigstad, and formal townships such as Praktiseer and Eerste Geluk. Statistically, according to this IDP, 17% of the inhabitants obtain water from natural resources including rivers, springs, streams, rock surfaces and rainfall. A further 51.8% of the inhabitants obtain water from public taps, while 6.8% from boreholes. It is with great concern that only 12.3% of the inhabitants in the municipality get water from an on-site taps.

Furthermore, GTM IDP (2015/16) revealed that water sources in Burgersfort area have reached capacity and this prevents the municipality to approve new developments. It must be noted that a large number of people move to the Burgersfort area in search of greener pastures. It is due to this rapid growth that the GTM submitted an application to the Limpopo provincial CoGHSTA to be designated as both the water and sanitation authority. The GTM still awaits a response (GTM IDP, 2015/16:57). If the application is approved, it will relieve pressure from SDM for water provision in municipalities within the district. It has to be noted that the SDM is both WSA and WSP not only at GTM but to four other municipalities in the district. The table below illustrates the water services backlog in the SDM. This information was extracted from the SDM IDP 2014/15 financial year.
Table 2: Water backlog at the SDM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Households</th>
<th>Backlog</th>
<th>%Backlog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fetakgomo</td>
<td>29 570</td>
<td>16 263</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ephraim Mogale</td>
<td>32 304</td>
<td>16 576</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater Tubatse</td>
<td>66 611</td>
<td>37 759</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makhuduthamaga</td>
<td>56 642</td>
<td>32 899</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elias Motsoaledi</td>
<td>52 263</td>
<td>25 586</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total/District</td>
<td>237 390</td>
<td>129 083</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: SDM IDP (2014/15)

The above table clearly reveals that the GTM has the second highest water backlog in the SDM. Out of 237 390 households, the water backlog in the SMD stands at 129 083 households, which equals to 54%. Makhuduthamaga municipality has the highest water backlog, at 58%, closely followed by the GTM at 57%. This is of great concern to the GTM and SDM, although it must be accentuated that the GTM has the largest population compared to other municipalities in the district. The GTM constitutes approximately 35% of the district’s population.

5.4.1.1.1 Free basic water

Section 27(1) of the Constitution stipulates that access to clean and potable water is a basic right for all citizens. To ensure that citizens are able to exercise this fundamental right, government introduced the Free Basic Water (FBW) policy in 2001. The FBW policy was aimed at ensuring that no citizen is denied access to water supply simply if they might not be able to pay for it. This policy allows households to obtain 6 000 litres of water free per month. This calculation was drawn from the World Health Organisation standards, with the assumption that a household of eight people consume 25 litres each per day (Free Basic Water, 2001).

The GTM provides free basic service to its communities as per FBW policy. According to the GTM IDP (2016-2020), only 20% of the households within the municipality qualify for free water. This IDP has noted that although most of the households in the municipality are defined as poor, with a total income of below R1, 500 per month, the challenge remains that the implementation of free basic water is
possible in proclaimed areas where households have water meters to measure the amount consumed. Therefore, it is difficult to implement this programme in areas that have not been proclaimed because there are no meters. The people obtain their water from the trucks in the street. It must be borne in mind that the GTM and the other four municipalities in the district are largely rural in nature. Households need to register as indigent to have access to this service. Although the municipality updated its Indigent Policy and Register for the provision of free basic water services during 2008/09 financial year, the GTM IDP revealed that there is a massive backlog (GTM IDP, 2016-2020).

According to the GTM annual report (2014/15:67), certain water challenges faced by the municipality are:

- aging infrastructure;
- insufficient rain and drought;
- GTM not being water authority;
- lack of financial resources;
- outdated indigent policy and register;
- ever growing informal and scattered settlements;
- topography of the area; and
- high level of water backlog.

5.4.1.2 **Electricity**

The GTM is also not authorised to provide electricity to its local communities. Eskom and the Department of Energy (DoE) provide electricity to the communities within the municipality. The municipality’s primary function with regard to electricity supply is to identify and submit a list of communities to the DoE and Eskom requesting the allocation of finances and household connections. The municipality only pays for the amount of electricity that is consumed through the free electricity scheme to Eskom. In the 2013/14 financial year, four million Rand was allocated for free basic electricity and more than nine thousand households benefited from the scheme (GTM annual report, 2014/15:54).
The table below illustrates the electricity connection by DoE and Eskom in the last six years. This information was secured from GTM annual reports 2010/11-2015/16 financial years.

**Table 3: Records of electricity connections**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial year</th>
<th>Number of households electrified through DoE</th>
<th>Number of households electrified through Eskom</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>1450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>2750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>2088</td>
<td>1074</td>
<td>3162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/13</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>1108</td>
<td>3008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/14</td>
<td>2030</td>
<td>1953</td>
<td>3983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014/15</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GTM annual reports for 2010-2016 financial years

According to the GTM IDP (2013/14:70), a report presented by Eskom in August 2009 revealed that a total number of 144 villages within the GTM jurisdiction were electrified. Furthermore, Eskom also reported that 56 villages were without electricity, which requires urgent intervention. It is for this reason that the GTM developed an electricity priority list. Consequently, during the 2009/10 financial year, Eskom electrified Dresden village. During the same financial year, the municipality managed to secure funds from the Limpopo provincial CoGHSTA to electrify the following villages: Tshenyane, Lepelle, Bokome, Ditentseng and Kalkfontein villages. A total sum of 11 760 million Rand was used to electrify these villages (GTM IDP, 2013/14:70).

During the 2010/11 financial year, funds were received from the DoE to electrify Maepa, Kgotlopong and Maahlatshi villages. During the same financial year, Eskom electrified Thokoane, Masete and Sehungane villages. Furthermore, during the 2010/11 and 2011/12 financial years, Eskom electrified Malepe, Moraba, Motshana, Maretlwaneng, Mankele, Mamogolo, Lefahla, Shakung, Moshira, Modubeng and Ga-Phala villages. In 2012/13 financial year, the municipality introduced Operation Mabone project with funds received from DoE to accelerate household connections and limit electricity backlogs. The following villages benefited from Operation
Mabone project: Sekopung, Makofane, Dibakwane, Kgopaneng, Maakubu, Leboeng, Matokomane and Dithamaga (GTM IDP, 2013/14: 71).

The GTM IDP (2014/15:54) revealed that Operation Mabone electricity project was rolled over to 2014/15 financial year and it was envisaged to electrify a further 21 villages. However, as illustrated in the table above, no funds were allocated in 2014/15 except the continuation of Operation Mabone project from the previous financial year.

Statistics by the GTM annual report (2014/15:54) revealed that the GTM experienced an electricity backlog to 20 215 households. This is the highest electricity backlog than any of the four municipalities in the SDM. The table below illustrates the total number of households with electricity including numbers experiencing a backlog.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Total households</th>
<th>Households with access</th>
<th>Households access in percentage</th>
<th>Households below service/backlog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>83 199</td>
<td>62 984</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>20 215</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GTM annual report 2014/15 financial year

The above table clearly illustrates that out of 83 199 households in 2013/14 financial year, 62 984 households had access to electricity in the municipality. This equalled to 75.7% of the households. However, 20 215 households had no electricity in that financial year, that is, 24.4% of the total households.

Certain electricity-related challenges identified in the GTM IDP (2014/15:81) include: the municipality does not have authority for the provision of electricity, has the highest electricity backlog in the SDM, lack of indigent register and policy for the provision of free basic electricity, limited and scarce resources, and scattered informal settlements in the municipality.

5.4.1.3 Housing
As stated earlier in this chapter, the GTM does not have authority to provide basic service such as water, electricity and housing. According to GTM annual report
(2015/16) annual report, housing provision is the responsibility of the Limpopo provincial CoGHSTA. The GTM only identifies needy inhabitants who qualify for RDP houses and submit the list to CoGHSTA for final approval and appointment of contractors to build the houses. The table below illustrates the number of houses allocated to GTM by CoGHSTA for the past six years (since 2009/10 to 2014/15 financial years).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial year</th>
<th>Number of houses built</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
<td>1 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>1 460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/13</td>
<td>1 586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/14</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014/15</td>
<td>1 099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5 445</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GTM annual report (2015/16)

The above table illustrates that only 5 445 houses were built in the municipality in the last six years. Although only 300 houses were built in the 2009/10 financial year, that number doubled in the 2012/13 financial year. The table further illustrates that no houses were built in the 2013/14 financial year. According to the GTM annual report (2014/15), this was as a result of financial losses due to irregular and fruitless expenditure. This was also highlighted by the AG in the disclaimer audit report to the municipality (AG report, 2015: 07, Greater Tubatse Local Municipality).

Based on the housing problems in the municipality, 5 445 houses which were built in the last six years was inadequate. The majority of the citizens in the municipality are poor, therefore, they cannot afford to build houses for themselves. This clearly demonstrates that the CoGHSTA and GTM failed to meet their constitutional obligation to provide housing to their local communities.
According to the GTM IDP (2015/16:106), certain housing challenges faced by the GTM include the following:

- “staff shortage – there is one building inspector responsible for housing matters in the entire municipality. The position of the manager has been vacant since 2013/14 financial year”;

- “lack of technical aspects in the municipality, including housing experience and expertise”;

- “ineffective communication between Limpopo provincial government and the local authority concerning housing matters”;

- “the bulk of water, sanitation and electricity networks in the municipality require extensive upgrade for future housing projects”; and

- “most of the land within the municipality is privately owned, therefore, the municipality will have to buy land for housing projects”.

### 5.4.1.4 Sanitation

The provision of sanitation in the GTM is the responsibility of the SDM. According to the GTM IDP (2014/15:50), the provision of sanitation in the GTM is inadequate. The IDP further revealed that only 25% of the households in the municipality have access to RDP standard sanitation.

However, the 2007 community survey revealed improvement in the number of households with flush toilets. According to the survey, the number of the households in the municipality with flush toilets between 2001 and 2007 rose from 2 392 to 4 796 (connected to sewage system) and from 468 to 865 (with septic tank) (GTM community survey, 2007:40). Most of the households with proper sanitation connected to the sewage system are situated in areas such as Burgersfort,
Ohrigstad, Steelpoort, Praktiseer and Eerste Gulik. The SDM provides water and sanitation to these areas.

The SDM IDP (2015/16:106) revealed that 22% of the district households receive sanitation services that are above RDP standards. The IDP further revealed that the sanitation backlog is mainly in rural villages, with 78% of households without adequate sanitation. As stated above, the GTM has approximately 25% of the households with access to RDP standard sanitation. The table below illustrates the level of sanitation in all municipalities in the district. The GTM has a backlog of 75%, which is a matter of great concern just as it is with the provision of water.

**Table 6: Sanitation level/backlog as of 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Total number of households</th>
<th>% access to RDP standards</th>
<th>% backlog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elias Motsoaledi</td>
<td>62 829</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ephraim Mogale</td>
<td>57 855</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetakgomo</td>
<td>25 642</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater Tubatse</td>
<td>80 879</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makhuduthamaga</td>
<td>66 330</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sekhukhune District</td>
<td>293 535</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: SDM IDP (2015/16:106)

According to the SDM annual report (2014/15), the SDM was implementing a massive sanitation project, which would provide Ventilated Improved Pit (VIP) latrines to various households in the district. The primary aim of this project was to ensure that locals have access to basic sanitation, especially in the rural areas of the district. In an attempt to reduce the sanitation backlog, approximately 13 103 VIP sanitation units were built across the district in the 2014/15 financial year. At least 4 500 of the units were built in the GTM area (SDM annual report, 2014/15). However, due to its ever-increasing population, the study revealed that the GTM has the highest sanitation backlog in the district.

Certain sanitation challenges faced by the municipality, according to the GTM IDP (2014/15:75) include the following:
• GTM not water and sanitation authority;
• water treatment plants over capacity;
• informal settlements;
• aging infrastructure; and
• limited resources.

Generally, the current provision of basic services at the GTM is inadequate. More resources need to be invested in this municipality because it has the largest population in the district. Although more funds were invested from other external sources to improve basic services, more is still need to be done to ensure the backlogs are eradicated. Based on the above findings of the current level of the basic service delivery in the municipality, the study can reveal that the GTM has the highest basic service delivery backlog than any other municipality in the SDM area.

The study also reveals that the most basic service delivery backlogs are primarily within the rural villages of the municipality. Approximately 78% of the households are without adequate services. Therefore, based on the current capacity challenges and insufficient resources, it is unlikely that the situation will improve. It is for these reasons that the GTM was unable to meet the national targets as part of UN Millennium Development Goals (MDG) 2016. In terms of the goals as stipulated in the MDG document, government should eradicate extreme poverty and hunger by 2016. This can only take place if government entities, especially municipalities are able to clear backlogs on basic service delivery. In South Africa, it must be noted that the provision of basic services is a human right which is enshrined in chapter 2 of the Constitution.

5.4.2 Leadership model adopted in the municipality

The Republic of South Africa is a democratic country with a representative political system. Generally, when the electorate goes to the polls to elect government leadership through their political parties, they do so with the hope that the leaders will draft, adopt and implement policies that will improve their lives. Furthermore, the citizens expect government to improve their lives through, amongst others, job creation and provision of basic services. With this in mind, it is imperative that the
leaders are accountable for their actions or inactions to deliver on those expectations. In other words, suitable leaders should be elected so that they can change the lives of those who elected them into power positively.

The significance of leadership in the public service requires that the performance of any organisation be directly related to the quality of its leadership (Kuye and Mafunisa, 2003:432). The authors hold that effective leadership will lead their organisation to greater heights of achievement whereas poor leadership may lead to a decline in productivity. Furthermore, the authors reiterate that effective leadership is measured through the extent to which an organisation successfully performs its tasks and attain objectives.

The literature review in *chapter 3* revealed that leadership and governance plays a crucial role in service delivery not only at the local sphere of government but at all spheres. Leaders are expected to play a critical role in steering the strategic direction of government. Although scholars such as Sadler (1997), Barker (2007), Klenke (2008), Daft (2011) and Northhouse (2013) define the concept leadership differently, they agree that it is a complex process. They further agree that the concept is about influencing and directing subordinates in pursuit of the set objectives and goals of the organisation.

The leadership model adopted by an organisation is imperative to pursue these objectives. Different types of leadership were discussed in *chapter 3*. The study reveals that GTM adopted an autocratic leadership model in which decisions are taken top-down without any engagement. The GTM IDP (2012/13) states that during one of the IDP meetings, the community complained that they were merely allowed to comment on already rubber-stamped municipal plans. This proves that the municipality dictates planning projects without involving the community. In fact, according to this IDP, the community only perceives themselves as endorsers of pre-designed planning projects. Community participation seems as if the municipality is merely complying with the law. It must be noted that the Municipal Systems Act dictates community participation not only in the drafting and implementation but in all the phases of the IDP process.
Furthermore, the above revelations are supported by the AG report dated 30 June 2015. In the report, the AG stressed the type of leadership in the GTM, which played a vital role in a disclaimer audit opinion the municipality received in that year. The AG raised the following as leadership challenges in the municipality:

- oversight responsibilities were not exercised including financial, performance, compliance and internal control reporting. Furthermore, leadership in the municipality has failed to investigate wasteful expenditure incurred in the previous years;

- there was no detailed review of the performance and financial reports;

- officials neglect duties and deliberately disobey laws with no consequences because performance evaluations were not conducted for the year under review;

- there is a lack of commitment to address deficiencies identified by the auditors as evidenced by many repeat findings. The action plan to deal with these deficiencies was not fully implemented and not regularly monitored; and

- the accounting officer, in this instance a municipal manager, failed to ensure effective implementation of human resource management policies (AG report Greater Tubatse Local Municipality, 2015:10).

In addition, leadership is described and understood in terms of certain traits and competencies. These traits and competencies identify aspects of a good leader. In this study, certain traits and competencies were discussed in chapter 3. Kuye and Mafunisa (2003) expounded upon leadership competencies that maintain effective leadership, whereas Kroukamp (2007) accentuated that it is imperative for public service leadership to acquire new skills and competencies to ensure that government is capable of providing services efficiently.
The study established that leadership at the GTM lacked certain competencies and traits. The GTM annual report (2014/15) revealed that most of the senior managers have a three year qualification or lower. Furthermore, the report revealed that most of the managers had not attended short learning courses since they had been appointed. This is a matter of serious concern because short courses sharpen one’s ability to perform better in the organisation.

The study also established that the leadership model currently adopted in the municipality is ineffective and needed to be changed. This leadership style has a negative impact on basic service delivery performance at the municipality. The AG reports highlighted leadership gaps in the municipality that led to its disclaimer audit opinion for the past consecutive four years. According to the AG, leadership in this municipality has failed to implement the recommendations on how to manage those who were responsible for wasteful expenditure incurred in the previous years. In many instances, the deficiencies repeated themselves in the following financial year because the leadership had failed to manage the situation.

Furthermore, the GTM leadership failed to implement performance agreements for the past three years as required by sections 56 and 57 of the Municipal Systems Act (AG report Greater Tubatse Local Municipality, 2015:10). The type of leadership model that the GTM must adopt is recommended in chapter 6.

5.4.3 Participatory mechanisms in the municipality

In South Africa, participatory governance is perceived as a key cornerstone of good governance. The Constitution and other legislation provide for a democratic and open form of governance. The Constitution dictates accountability and transparency in government whereas Municipal Structures Act and Municipal Systems Act encourage a culture of participatory governance at the local sphere of government. Therefore, municipalities are required to foster public participation to ensure its citizens are engaged in governance matters. The GTM, as many municipalities in South Africa, regards public participation and accountability as the foci to ensure effective and efficient delivery of basic services to its inhabitants. The municipality adopted different structures for public participation, which includes Ward Committees, Mayoral Imbizos and Integrated Development Plan.
5.4.3.1 Ward Committees

In terms of the Municipal Structures Act, municipalities are obliged to establish ward committees to promote participatory democracy. These committees are required to assist the ward councillors with organising, dispersing information and encouraging participation of local communities in the ward. Furthermore, the ward committee, which comprises of 10 elected members, is chaired by a ward councillor. The Municipal Structures Act stipulates that certain functions and powers of the ward committee include: to recommend on matters affecting a ward through councillor to the municipality, and exercise powers and perform any task that maybe allocated to it by the municipality.

Furthermore, Municipal Structures Act stipulates that ward committees are established to promote local democracy by enhancing citizenry in local government matters. It is for this reason that the GTM ward committees have to increase involvement and participation of the local community to improve decision-making in the municipality. According to the GTM annual report, the municipality, working with its ward councillors, has managed to establish ward committees in all its 31 wards. However, not all the committees are functional and effective.

The GTM (IDP, 2014/15:137) identifies the primary challenges faced by ward committees in the municipality as: poor community and ward councillors attendance, no policy for community participation, village elites taking control of the meetings, councillors hardly consult the community on planning issues, lack of functionality and skills development, and reports not submitted or submitted late to the council.

5.4.3.2 Mayoral Imbizos

As alluded to in chapter 4, mayoral imbizo allows the Mayor and a high level delegation to visit villages within the municipality to have face-to-face engagement with the locals about their demands. It further allows the delegation to observe first-hand the challenges that the locals experience on the daily basis. Mayoral imbizo provides ordinary villagers an opportunity to ask the Mayor questions about their expected level of service delivery (Hofisi, 2009:330).
At the GTM a number of imbizos were held in the previous years. The researcher established both success stories and challenges which emanated at the imbizos. According to the GTM annual report (2013/14), the visible successes from mayoral imbizos at the GTM included: construction of hawkers stalls at Burgersfort and Praktiseer; re-gravelling of main roads in many villages; construction of clinics at Phiring, Taung and Motlolo villages; electrification of many villages through Mabone projects; construction of access bridges, and the delivery of certain basic services and job opportunities in the new Tubatse mall (GTM IDP, 2013/14:65).

Furthermore, the same IDP (GTM IDP, 2013/14:67) highlighted certain challenges the community faced. During a mayoral imbizo held at Moroke village on 11 August 2013, the community informed the GTM leadership of their challenges, which included: substance abuse and high rate of employment amongst the youth; lack of sporting facilities; lack of electricity, especially in ward 14 villages; insufficient water supply and illegal electrical connections in certain villages; and impassibility and construction of access roads (GTM IDP, 2013/14).

Furthermore, during a mayoral imbizo held at Ga-Makofane village, the community informed the Mayor about the ineffective communication strategies adopted by the municipality. Since most of the locals are illiterate, they are unable to read and understand street pole advertisements and posters which invite them to public meetings with the municipal leadership (GTM IDP, 2014/15).

5.4.3.3 IDP process

Maphunye and Mafunisa (2008:461) define IDP as a strategic tool to guide and inform processes in a municipality including policy formulation and implementation, budgeting, and management. They further state that an IDP is “a product of an integrated development planning process” and it is “a legally required plan”. It allows the community to be involved in the planning, budgeting, management, decision-making and policy-making of the municipality (Maphunye and Mafunisa, 2008). It is a legislative requirement for municipalities in response to chapter 4 of the Municipal Systems Act which dictates councils to develop a culture of participatory governance as well as conditions for community participation in municipal matters.
The GTM, as other municipalities throughout South Africa, formulates an IDP as its strategic planning framework. The study revealed that although the process of formulating an IDP in the municipality is a lengthy one, the community is happy to participate in municipality’s decision-making process. However, the study revealed certain challenges. During an IDP meeting on the 2 March 2013 held at Ba Tubatse Primary school, the community complained that they are only permitted to comment on plans that are already finalised by municipal officials rather than be invited to contribute during the drafting phase. They perceived themselves as endorsees of pre-designed planning programmes, which at the end, did not improve their lives (GTM IDP, 2012/13).

For the 2013/14 draft IDP document, the municipality conducted ward to ward consultations. A team led by the Mayor was dispatched to different wards to present the draft IDP document and to collect information from the communities. All 31 wards were visited. The approach was effective because each ward was able to present their needs, although attendance in certain wards was unsatisfactory. Inputs provided to the draft IDP document were incorporated into the final document. In addition, both the national and provincial governments were consulted to provide information in their area of specialisation (GTM annual report, 2013/14:78).

Based on the above, it is clear that more needs to be done to ensure effective participation in the municipality’s affairs. The study established that these mechanisms are moderately effective and there is a need for improvement. Local communities should be the co-authors of service delivery decisions to ensure their demands are met adequately. Failure to involve communities in the decision-making process about the services they are about to receive, may result in ‘white elephant’ projects or total failure of the implementation.

5.4.4 Leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality
In this objective, the study revealed a plethora of leadership and governance challenges faced by the GTM. Some of the challenges included the following:

One of the leadership challenges in the municipality is high rate of senior management vacancies. It is obvious that the municipality cannot function effectively
without strategic leadership. The below table illustrates the senior management vacancy rate in the district as of 2014/15 financial year.

### Table 7: Senior management vacancy rate in the SMD local municipalities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Number of senior management posts</th>
<th>Filled</th>
<th>Vacant</th>
<th>Vacancy rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fetakgomo</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater Tubatse</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makhuduthamaga</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ephraim Mogale</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elias Motswaledi</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sekhukhune District</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The above table illustrates that in the 2014/15 financial year, the SDM had 11 vacant positions at senior management level in its local municipalities. Both the GTM and Makhuduthamaga top the list with three vacant posts each. Senior managers play a vital role in service delivery at the local government; therefore, it is not surprising that at a vacancy rate of 50%, the GTM experiences leadership crisis to provide basic and effective services to its local communities.

Secondly, the study revealed gaps in leadership at the municipality that negatively impact service delivery performance. The first gap was that the municipality adopted an incorrect leadership model that excludes the community in planning municipal projects. It is imperative that communities be engaged when projects are discussed and planned with the view to better their lives. The second gap was the municipality’s failure to enforce implementation of performance agreements. This is one of the reasons the municipality was allocated a disclaimer audit opinion by the AG for four consecutive years.

Chapter 1 clarified that governance in this study implies participation of locals in the affairs of the GTM. It allows local community participation in the affairs of the municipality to ensure that their voices are heard, especially on services that they
are entitled to receive. The first governance challenge for the municipality was the lack of a public participation policy. Consequently, there are no guidelines to drive this process. The municipality’s vision statement reads as follows: “to ensure local, accountable democracy through active community participation”. However, a policy had not been developed to guide participation.

It was revealed that in certain wards, especially where there is optimal service delivery, there was generally poor attendance at public meetings because the community had adequate services. This was the general trend in wards one and three respectively. It has become a trend that locals are eager to attend meetings if they require certain services from the municipality.

Furthermore, the study also established that in rural areas of the municipality, the village elite usually took control of public meetings. The village elite comprise those who are politically connected or well-educated. It must be accentuated that this municipality is rural in nature and has a large population of illiterate inhabitants. Occasionally, the illiterates are sceptical to provide inputs during public meetings, because they think that their contributions would not be considered. However, the village elites are more confident to get involved and participate.

5.5 CONCLUSION
Studies have revealed that when the ANC government came into power in 1994, there was a distinct lack of basic services in many black communities, especially the rural areas. Although much progress has been made since 1994, more still needs to be done. The findings of the study revealed that delivery of basic services in the GTM is inadequate, and leadership and governance in the municipality contributed towards the poor delivery of basic services.

In addition, this chapter revealed that an autocratic leadership model had been adopted in the municipality. The findings revealed that top-down decisions by the municipal leadership and its inability to engage the community on the service delivery decisions affected their quality of life.
Participatory mechanisms in the municipality were found to be moderately effective but required further improvement. In the end the chapter revealed gaps in leadership and governance challenges that affect the efficient provision of basic services in the municipality.

The chapter aimed to provide the research findings, and thereby achieve the objectives of the study. Consequently, the information collection methods were revisited in this chapter. Furthermore, the chapter expounded upon how the collected data was analysed. The next chapter concludes the study and provides recommendations on identified ‘issues’.
CHAPTER 6  
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership and governance have been perceived as some of the factors that contribute towards the declining level of service delivery at the local government arena. This study endeavoured to determine the extent to which leadership and governance affect basic service delivery at the GTM. The municipality has and continues to experience a profound leadership and governance crisis which resulted in many unqualified and disclaimer audit opinions by the AG in the previous years. The primary focus of this chapter is to conclude the study as well as provide relevant recommendations to the GTM based on the findings.

The literature reviewed in chapter 3 revealed that ineffective leadership and poor governance affect the provision of services at all spheres of government. Prominent academics such as Kuye, Maserumule, Naidoo, Fourie and Thornhill provided evidence that leadership and governance are certain factors that contribute towards a decline in service delivery at the local sphere of government. This study argued that leadership and governance does affect the provision of basic services at the GTM. The argument was based on the literature reviewed as well as collected data from relevant documentary sources.

6.2 SYNOPSIS OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 introduced the study as well as provided an overview thereof. This chapter provided the rationale for the study, motivation as well as limitations and delimitations. The problem statement was expounded upon and the following research questions were posed. (1) What is the current status of basic service delivery in the municipality? (2) What leadership model is utilised in the municipality? (3) What governance participatory structures have been adopted in the municipality? (4) What leadership and governance challenges are faced by the municipality?
In trying to find answers to the research questions, the following research objectives were formulated: (1) Assess the current level of basic service delivery in the municipality. (2) Determine the leadership model adopted by the municipality. (3) Identify participatory mechanisms in the municipality. (4) Identify leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality. The chapter further discussed the proposed outline of chapters and defined core terms and concepts that were utilised throughout the study. To conclude the chapter, a brief overview of the GTM was also highlighted to help the reader understand the origin and context of the study.

Chapter 2 described the full details of the research methodology that was used to conduct the study. Research methodology and research design are two different elements of research which are often used interchangeably. Therefore, an attempt was made to illustrate the difference between the two research elements. The chapter also provided a detailed outline of the research methodology, research design, and information collection methods. The justification for the selected research approach was also discussed.

Chapter 3 reviewed the existing literature on leadership and governance in service delivery at the local sphere of government and conceptualised the study in Public Administration. Furthermore, a theoretical framework and comprehensive review of published and unpublished material relevant to this research was provided. The reviewed literature provided evidence that ineffective leadership and poor governance indeed affect the delivery of basic services at the local sphere of government in South Africa.

The chapter also highlighted how leadership and governance of service delivery is grounded in Public Administration. The relationship between leadership and governance to service delivery as well as an overview of the concepts was discussed. Perceptions and opinions of researchers who had extensively written on leadership and governance theories relevant to the discipline were discussed. The chapter also focused on the significance of public participation, accountability and transparency, governance structures as well as types of leadership styles. Finally, variables of the study as well as contextualisation thereof were provided. The foundation of this study was based on this chapter. Documentary and secondary
sources that were consulted included: academic books and journals, newspaper articles, legislative documents, internet sources, conference proceedings, annual reports and records.

In **Chapter 4** a comprehensive overview and background of the GTM was provided and a case study of the municipality was discussed. Leadership and governance in service delivery as contended by the municipality was analysed. Structures to promote effective and good governance in the municipality were identified and expounded upon in detail. Furthermore, the municipality's participatory mechanisms as part of the case study were discussed. The selected case study was based on non-empirical evidence.

**Chapter 5** was aimed to analyse the research findings. The chapter provided the results of the study based on the findings. The findings were described, summarised and discussed. Data was summarised and thereafter presented. The findings revealed that the GTM lacks leadership and governance frameworks to ensure that efficient basic services are delivered to the local communities.

**Chapter 6** concludes the study and provides recommendations based on the findings. The chapter presented a summary of the preceding chapters. Furthermore, the research problem was re-examined. The sub-questions of the study were re-examined and responses to each question were provided. Different ‘issues’ which emanated from the study were identified and recommendations were based thereon. Finally, possible areas for future studies were identified.

### 6.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT RE-EXAMINED

The research problem was formulated in **chapter 1**. It was highlighted in that chapter that no research study can be conducted without a problem statement. The problem statement reads as follows: *ineffective leadership and poor governance affects basic service delivery at the GTM*.

Based on the extensive literature reviewed and findings of the study, it became evident that effective and hybrid leadership is required to steer the municipality into
the right direction. Furthermore, good governance is also required to ensure that local communities participate in the municipal affairs, especially service delivery decisions that affect their daily lives. It was established that good governance is the cornerstone of democratic dispensation around the world. Therefore, for the municipality to improve its service delivery track record, it must adopt an effective and hybrid leadership approach as well as practice good governance in its daily affairs.

6.4 RESEARCH QUESTION RE-EXAMINED

This section re-examined the research question(s). Therefore, it responds to the sub-questions of the study. The primary aim of the study was to investigate leadership and governance in basic service delivery at the GTM (Lim475), situated in the Limpopo province of the Republic of South Africa. The study was conducted through the case study approach utilising a municipality. The primary question which guided this study was: to what extent does leadership and governance affect the provision of basic services at the GTM? Besides this principal question, the study also endeavoured to respond to the following sub-questions:

1. What is the current status of basic service delivery in the municipality?

The study revealed that there is a huge backlog in the delivery of basic services at the GTM compared to the other four municipalities in the SDM. Generally, the current provision of basic services at the GTM is inadequate. This is largely contributed to GTM being neither a service provider nor authority within most of its jurisdiction. It is the responsibility of SDM to provide water and sanitation, while Eskom provides electricity and CoGHSTA housing. The GTM only identifies those in need of these services and compile a priority list. Furthermore, the study revealed that the GTM had submitted an application to the relevant authorities to be considered as both water, sanitation and electricity authority. They await a response.
2. What leadership model is utilised in the municipality?

Different types of leadership were identified and discussed in chapter 3. Based on the analysed GTM documents, the study discovered that decisions at the municipality are taken top-down without involving other stakeholders. Therefore, it was concluded that an autocratic leadership model is currently adopted in the municipality. It is recommended that a hybrid and effective leadership model be adopted as discussed in the recommendations section.

3. What governance participatory mechanisms have been adopted by the municipality?

There are numerous participatory mechanisms that can be used by the GTM for the public participation process. These include, amongst others, sections 79 and 80 governance committees, council meetings, and traditional leaders. However, the study revealed that the municipality predominantly utilised Mayoral Imbizos, Ward Committees and Integrated Development Plan process as public participation mechanisms. Furthermore, the study also established that these mechanisms are moderately effective and there is a need for improvement.

4. What leadership and governance challenges are faced by the municipality?

During the GTM documentary analysis, a plethora of leadership and governance challenges faced by the municipality in ensuring efficient provision of basic services as required by the Constitution was revealed. Those challenges included, amongst others, vacant senior management positions, inability of management to implement performance agreements, lack of training and development on the management level, lack of a public participation policy, ineffective communication between ward councillors and their constituencies, and poor attendance at public meetings.
6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, it became clear that the municipality is required to re-visits its leadership and governance approach and strategies to address community demands. Therefore, the following recommendations are suggested by the researcher based on the findings of the study on leadership and governance in service delivery at the GTM. These recommendations suggest tentative solutions to the 'issues' revealed in the study. As indicated in chapter 1, if given an opportunity, the findings and recommendations of the study will be discussed with the municipal manager of the GTM. It is assumed that they endeavour to improve basic services in the municipality.

**Issue 1:** Different types of leadership styles were expounded upon in chapter 3. The findings revealed that the municipality had adopted an autocratic leadership style whereby decisions are taken top-down without stakeholder participation. Furthermore, linked to this type of leadership style, the study revealed that senior managers in the municipality are not accountable for their actions. This led to a leadership crisis that affected the provision of services in the municipality.

**Recommendation 1**

It is recommended that a hybrid approach should be adopted in combination with democratic and charismatic styles. Democratic leadership will improve engagement between the stakeholders in the municipality. Democratic leadership has the ability to engage citizens in their demands and furnish particular solutions to service delivery dilemmas. Charismatic leadership is creative, trusted and respected by others. Furthermore, this leadership style is known to be a visionary who develops strategies. Therefore, if the municipality is to address its basic service delivery concerns, it will have to adopt leadership that is democratic and charismatic in nature. Both these type of leaders have the required competencies and traits, and are transparent and accountable.

**Issue 2:** The researcher discovered that senior management posts had been vacant for several years. It was also revealed that certain senior positions had been filled in an acting capacity for more than a year. Critical positions such as the municipal
manager and CFO had not been filled permanently for more than three consecutive years. All these aspects contributed to the collapse in leadership in the municipality.

**Recommendation 2**

All senior management posts should be filled permanently to ensure improved service delivery. Instances wherein a senior post has been filled in an acting capacity, a permanent incumbent should be appointed within three months.

**Issue 3**: The study revealed that the incumbents in senior level positions in the municipality generally do not attend leadership short learning programmes to sharpen their leadership skills. This implies that they are unable to acquire additional leadership skills, competencies and knowledge to steer the municipality in the right direction.

**Recommendation 3**

The researcher recommends that senior managers in the municipality enrol at the National School of Government for short courses such as executive management programmes and managing performance in the local government. These should also include workshops and seminars on leadership and governance at the local government. Leadership training is of significance to ensure that leaders are accountable to the citizens in the provision of services. Furthermore, the managers require ongoing training and skills development as an integral part of their ability to steer the municipality in the right direction.

**Issue 4**: All senior managers in the municipality are appointed on a five year performance contract. Although performance management is implemented only at senior management level, the study established that the municipality’s PMS is not fully operational. It lacked consistency because its targets were unspecific, immeasurable and time bound. Moreover, only the PMS manual was available.

**Recommendation 4**

In terms of sections 56 and 57 of the Municipal Structures Act, performance agreements must be signed by municipal employees, especially those in critical positions. This is to ensure that they meet set targets on their KPA’s and KPI’s. It is
recommended that the municipality ensures that its PMS is effective by formulating a policy that can monitor and evaluate the system. A proper model must be utilised to implement this system. Furthermore, the municipality should introduce an electronic PMS as the manual system is often difficult to trace.

**Issue 5**: The finding revealed that the delivery of basic services is not the responsibility of the GTM. The provision of electricity within the municipality is the sole responsibility of Eskom and DoE, whereas the provision of RDP houses is that of the Limpopo provincial CoGHSTA. The GTM only facilitates the list of the inhabitants who require electricity and housing. The provision of water and sanitation in the municipality is the responsibility of the SDM. However, the GTM does avail a budget for the provision of free electricity and water. It should be noted that only certain inhabitants qualify for free electricity and water depending on the set requirement. All these aspects affect the delivery of basic services negatively in the municipality.

**Recommendation 5**

It was noted that the GTM submitted an application to be allowed to provide the above services itself. Although the process takes time, it is recommended that the municipality follows-up with the relevant authorities. While awaiting approval, it is recommended that the municipality also partners with the private sector to source additional funds for the provision of basic services. Additional funds will help close the gap since SDM, Eskom and CoGHSTA occasionally have limited resources.

**Issue 6**: Although the study revealed that indeed the municipality has governance participatory mechanisms, it was also discovered that these mechanisms are moderately effective. Furthermore, of great concern is that there is no public participation policy to guide the participation process. In the absence of the public participation policy, engagement between the municipality and the community is weak and ineffective. In fact, non-existence of this policy shows a gaping loophole in the participatory process. In terms of the Municipal Structures Act, municipalities are obliged to develop a culture of participatory governance and must encourage communities to participate in the local affairs that affect their lives. Furthermore, the Municipal Structures Act dictates that the municipal council must develop
mechanisms for public participation and a policy for that process. This policy must be reviewed annually to establish its effectivity.

**Recommendation 6**

It is of vital significance that the municipal council approves a policy on public participation. The adoption of this policy will close the gap in the governance participatory process. The Municipal Structures Act expects municipalities to involve local communities in its governance activities. Furthermore, the Act accentuates the development of a policy to guide dialogue between the municipalities and communities.

**Issue 7**: The issue of a non-existent public participation policy in the municipality raises budgetary concerns. If there is no framework to guide the participatory process, then it will be impossible to have a budget to fund it. The study revealed that the public participation process in the GTM had not been budgeted for. Furthermore, the study revealed that there is no division in the municipality dedicated for this process. At this juncture, the department of community service within the municipality is driving the process, with limited financial and human resources.

**Recommendation 7**

Once the municipality approves its public participation policy to guide the participatory process, division for public participation should be established within the municipality to drive it. The proposed division should have its own manpower and budget to ensure the process is managed effectively and efficiently.

**Issue 8**: Because of the rural nature of the municipality, the study revealed that many locals do not attend public meetings. This was primarily due to them not being informed about these meetings. Furthermore, the study discovered that the dissemination of information of public meetings between ward councillors and their constituencies was generally poor.

**Recommendation 8**

In this municipality, many people still rely on radio stations as sources of information. Therefore, it is recommended that the municipality advertises the public meeting
dates on local radio stations such as Thobela FM and community radio stations such as Tubatse FM and Driekop FM. Local newspapers such as Steelburger can also be utilised to advertise these meetings. It is also recommended that ward councillors play a significant role to inform their constituencies of these meeting in advance.

6.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Based on the literature reviewed and study findings, it can be deduced that leadership and governance are indeed paramount in local government service delivery. The study revealed that the delivery of basic services in the GTM is inadequate. Furthermore, the findings of the study also revealed that at present, the GTM has a huge backlog of the provision of basic services than any other municipality in the SDM. It became evident that leadership and governance in the GTM contributed towards the declining level of the basic services.

The study also revealed that the current leadership and governance frameworks at the GTM are ineffective to address the service delivery backlog. For the GTM to manage the backlogs efficiently, hybrid leadership and governance frameworks are required. The study identified the need for effective leadership and good governance to address the situation.

6.7 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study focused on leadership and governance at the GTM. The primary objective of the study was to determine the extent to which leadership and governance affects the delivery of basic services in the municipality. After the local elections on 3 August 2016, the GTM (Lim475) was merged with Fetakgomo municipality (Lim474) to establish a new Fetakgomo-Tubatse municipality (Lim476). The new municipality was expected to be fully operational by the end of December 2016 (https://www.localgovernment.co.za/locals/view/243/Fetakgomo-Greater-Tubatse-Local-Municipality). Therefore, the following research areas could be explored.

1. A similar study could be conducted to determine the extent to which leadership and governance affects service delivery in the newly formed Fetakgomo-Tubatse municipality. Since the municipality has just been established, the
study could utilise primary data because there is inadequate secondary documents for analysis.

2. A comparable study could be conducted between the former GTM and Fetakgomo municipalities on matters related to leadership and governance in service delivery. The documents for analysis should still be available under their respective old names, that is, Greater Tubatse municipality and Fetakgomo municipality.

3. One of the limitations stated in chapter 1 was that the findings would only be limited to the GTM, and not generalised as the state of affairs of all the municipalities within the SDM. Therefore, a study could be conducted on leadership and governance in service delivery at the SDM, which would include all the municipalities in the district.

4. A study could be conducted to investigate a gap between service delivery protests and leadership and governance in the public service. The study could focus on the link between the two variables.

5. A study could be conducted to investigate the factors that contribute towards ineffective leadership and poor governance in the public service, especially on the local sphere of government since it is at the forefront of basic service delivery.

6. A study could be conducted to investigate a link between the lack of leadership, accountability and transparency in public service delivery.
LIST OF REFERENCES

BOOKS, JOURNALS, DISSERTATIONS, THESES AND PAPERS


**ACTS AND LEGISLATION**


**INTERNET SOURCES**


Paton, C. 2014. Service delivery protests: Why now? Available at:
(Accessed on 17 February 2016).

Paulus, E. 2014. Promoting participatory and effective democratic local governance. Available at:

Runji, N. 2016. Partnership of citizens and government is vital. Available at:

Sefara, M. 2014. South Africa is crying out for leadership. Available at:

Tau, P. 2013. They do wrong with impunity in Limpopo. Available at:


World Bank report. 1999. Sub Saharan Africa: From crisis to sustainable growth. Available at:
OFFICIAL MUNICIPAL DOCUMENTS


Enq.: Human Resources
Mkabela SF

FROM CORPORATE SERVICES
TO SHAILK
DATE 2014/07/11

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

1. The above matter bears reference:

2. It is with great pleasure to inform you that your request to conduct master's research in Public Administration has been granted.

3. You will be expected to sign certain documents which are a standard procedure before you can start with your research.

Hope to see you soon

MKABELA SF
DIRECTOR CORPORATE SERVICES

Address:
1 Kastania Street
P O Box 206, Burgersfort, 1160
Tel: 013 231 1000
Fax: 013 231 7467
Website: www.tubatse.co.za
The Speaker
Greater Tubatse Municipality
BURGERSFORT
1150

Dear Madam Speaker, CLLR. Q. Moeng

RE: ELECTRIFICATION OF MOTSHANA VILLAGE, WARD 16

1. According to 2011/12 DORA, in particular the DOE Grant, an amount of R19.8 million was allocated to electrify Motshana village including the other villages within Ward 16.

2. The Municipality has signed a memorandum of agreement with both DOE and MOU indicating timelines for the completion of the Project. The Project should have been completed on the 31st of March 2012. To date the community is not yet informed on why the Project was delayed by more than 12 months.

3. Madam Speaker, as you know, the right to know is enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (the Bill of Rights).

4. We have further learned that a submission relating to electrification of the INEP Projects was submitted to the Council meeting held on the 15th of October 2012. A resolution which instructed the Municipal Public Accounts Committee to investigate the cause of the delay, including the Budget shortfall was taken.
5. To our surprise, an investigation was never conducted because the Municipal Manager refused to provide necessary documents.

6. We hereby respectively request your office to explain comprehensively on why Motshana and other villages within ward 16 was not electrified and energized as per the agreement signed between the DOE and the Municipality. We understand fully that the Council is accounting to the communities, but in the Greater Tubatse Municipality, it is the other way round.

7. We therefore wish if we could be provided with satisfactory responses within 07 (seven) days and failure to get the said responses within the given ultimatum, we would have no option but to approach the office of the Public Protector for intervention / investigation thereof.

Trust you will find the above to be in order

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]
Chairperson of Traditional Council

[Signature]
Traditional Councilor

[Signature]
Traditional Councilor

[Signature]
Community member

ROKA-MOTSHANA TRADITIONAL COUNCIL
P.O. BOX 2736 IMIWINISOPI 1130
2013-02-19
KGOISHI KOMANI M.N. III LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS LIMPOPO PROVINCE