



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

**Leadership in establishing the Gauteng City-Region: the
Case of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality**

By

KGOSIENTSHO RAMOKGOPA

Submitted in fulfilment of
The requirement of the degree

DOCTORATE IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS

In the faculty of Economic and Management Science

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR. Dr. J.O. KUYE

2018



DECLARATION

I, the undersigned hereby declare that:

- I understand what plagiarism is and am aware of the University's policy in this regard.
- I declare that this dissertation is my own original work.
- Where other people's work has been utilised (either from a printed source, Internet or any other source), this has been properly acknowledged and referenced in accordance with departmental requirements.
- I have not used work previously produced by another student or any other person to hand in as my own.
- I have not allowed, and will not allow, anyone to copy my work with the intention of passing it off as his or her own work.

Signature:

Name of student: Kgosientsho David Ramokgopa

Student number: 20264647

Date: May 2018

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I extend my sincere gratitude to the Almighty for giving me the wisdom, courage, and patience to complete one of the most cherished milestones in my personal development. Great appreciation to my loving wife (Georgia) and son (Matthew) for allowing me the time, providing support, and opportunity at great sacrifice to our precious family life, to pursue this phase of my academic endeavour. I also express gratitude to Professor. Dr. Jerry Kuye for his stewardship and support during the most testing times of my study. Finally, thanks to my dear mother, siblings, nephews and nieces for your enduring words of encouragement.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANC:	African National Congress
APSA:	American Political Science Association
ARC:	Agricultural Research Council
BBBEE:	Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment
BOC:	Bus Operating Company
BOCA:	Bus Operating Company Agreement
BoP:	Base of Pyramid
BRT:	Bus Rapid Transport
CAGR:	Compound Annual Growth Rate
CASAC:	Council for the Advancement of the South African Constitution
CBD:	Central Business District
CDW:	Community Development Workers
CEO:	Chief Executive Officer
CGS:	Council for Geoscience of South Africa
CIPC:	Companies and intellectual property Commission
CNG:	Compressed Natural Gas
CoT:	City of Tshwane
CSIR:	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
DED:	Department of Economic Development
DFA:	Development Facilitation Act
DoRA:	Division of Revenue Act.
DoT:	Departments of Transport
DRDLR:	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
DTI:	Department of Trade and Industry
FDI:	Foreign Direct Investment
FNB:	First National Bank
GB:	Giga Bytes
GCIO:	Group Chief Information Officer



GCR:	Gauteng City-Region
GCRO:	Gauteng City Region Observatory
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GIS:	Geographical Information System
GP:	Gauteng Province
GPG:	Gauteng Provincial Government
GSDF:	Gauteng Spatial Development Framework
GVA:	Gross Value Add
HDI:	Human Development Index
ICT:	Information Communication and Technology
iGDP:	Internet's contribution to overall Gross Domestic Product
IGRFA:	Inter-Governmental Relations Framework Act
IRPTN:	Integrated Rapid Public Transport Network
ITMP:	Integrated Transport Master Plan
ITP:	Integrated Transport Plan
ITS:	Intelligent Transport System
IUDF:	Draft Integrated Urban Development Framework
KIMA:	Knowledge and information management systems
KM:	Kuka Maoto
LGBTI:	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender/Transsexual and Intersexed
LGE:	Local Government Elections
LGNF:	Local Government Negotiating Forum
MB:	Mega Bytes
MFMA:	Municipal Finance Management Act
MLGI:	Multilevel Government Initiative
MMC:	Member of the Mayoral Committee
MTREF:	Medium Term Revenue and Expenditure Framework
NDA:	National Development Agency
NDP:	National Development Plan
NDS:	National Democratic Society

NLTA:	National Land Transport Act
NPC:	National Planning Commission
NPO:	Non-Profit Organisation
NPM:	New Public Management
NT:	National Treasury
OCM:	Operational Cost Model
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OEM:	Original Equipment Manufacturer
PA:	Public Administration
PDO:	Pre-determined Objectives
PCC:	Premier's Coordinating Council
PCF:	Premier's Coordinating Forum
PFMA:	Public Finance Management Act
PLTF:	Provincial Land Transport Framework
PWV:	Pretoria-Witwatersrand-Vereeniging
R&D:	Research and Development
SACN:	South African Cities Network
SALGA:	South African Local Government Association
SEDA:	Small Enterprise Development Agency
SITA:	State Information Technology Agency
SME:	Small and Medium Enterprise
SMART:	Specific, Measurable, Agreed Upon, Realistic, Time-Base
SOE:	State Owned Enterprise
SPLUMA:	Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act
SARS:	South African Revenue Service
SSA:	Statistics South Africa
SWOT:	Strength; Weaknesses; Opportunities; and Threats
TA:	Transport Authority
TMR:	Transformation, Modernisation and Reindustrialisation
ToP:	Top of pyramid

TshWiFi:	Tshwane Free Wifi Project
TRT:	Tshwane Rapid Transit
TUT:	Tshwane University of Technology
UN:	United Nations
UN Habitat:	United Nations
UJ:	University of Johannesburg
UNISA:	University of South Africa
USA:	United States of America
UTC:	Urban Traffic Control
VUT:	Vaal University of Technology
WEF:	World Economic Forum
Wits:	University of Witwatersrand
WSTT:	Ward Service Task Teams

ABSTRACT

City-regions have increased in many developed countries as the primary political and administrative units to drive development and growth at a sub-national level. The Gauteng Province has all the hallmarks of an ideal city-region given its dominant role in the South African economy. The study examined the efforts of the City of Tshwane in facilitating the realisation of a Gauteng City-Region (GCR) by responding to the primary research question: **“Leadership in establishing the Gauteng City-Region: the Case of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality”**.

In the quest to respond to the primary research question, a qualitative research study was adopted and the case study method was utilised. Four case studies were selected on the following basis: replicability, innovation, and potential impact in realising the GCR. The lessons which emanated from the case studies were utilised to propose interventions necessary to realise the GCR. The study revealed that misaligned planning cycles; lack of enabling legislation, and a poor record of implementation track record were selected impediments to the GCR. The study formulates policy and provides recommendations on public leadership aimed to facilitate the realisation of the GCR. It is comprehensively concluded that the City of Tshwane has contributed meaningfully towards advancing the prospect of the GCR.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

1	CHAPTER one: BACKGROUND AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW.....	1
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Background.....	2
1.3	The City of Tshwane: Profile.....	25
1.4	GCR Leadership	30
1.5	Clarification of key concepts	35
1.5.1	Globalisation	35
1.5.2	Migration	36
1.5.3	Urbanisation.....	37
1.5.4	Gauteng City-Region	37
1.5.5	Spatial planning	39
1.5.6	Vision	39
1.5.7	Planning.....	40
1.5.8	Strategic Planning.....	40
1.5.9	Management.....	41
1.5.10	Public administration.....	41
1.5.11	Leadership	42
1.6	Framework of the Research.....	43
2	CHAPTER two: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	45
2.1	Introduction	45
2.2	Description of the research process	45
2.2.1	Statement of the Problem	46
2.3	Research design and approach.....	48
2.3.1	Research design	48
2.3.2	Research approach	53
2.3.3	Selected data analysis.....	56

2.4	Limitations of the study	56
2.5	Ethical considerations	59
2.6	Summary	59
3	CHAPTER three: THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE EMERGENCE OF CITY-REGIONS	61
3.1	Introduction	61
3.2	Public Administration: An analysis	62
3.2.1	Defining Public Administration	63
3.2.2	Paradigms or models of Public Administration	68
3.2.3	From public administration to public management	81
3.2.4	Post-NPM.....	82
3.3	Leadership: An examination	84
3.3.1	Introduction	84
3.3.2	Defining Leadership.....	84
3.3.3	Public sector leadership.....	90
3.3.4	Leadership theories and associated public leadership: a selection.....	95
3.3.5	The South African planning dispensation	103
3.3.6	Urbanisation and globalisation as drivers of city-regions.....	113
3.3.7	The emergence of city-regions	115
3.4	Summary.....	119
4	CHAPTER four: CITY OF TSHWANE'S PROJECTS IN SUPPORT OF THE EMERGENCE OF CITY REGIONS.....	120
4.1	Case 1: Tshwane public free WiFi	120
4.1.1	Introduction	120
4.1.2	Introduction Tshwane public free WiFi: Rationale	120
4.1.3	Internet as the driver of knowledge discovery and economic growth	121
4.1.4	Internet use on the African Continent	123
4.1.5	Characteristic features of South Africa's Internet usage.....	125
4.1.6	The demographics of internet penetration in South Africa.....	128

4.1.7	Objectives of the Tshwane public free WiFi.....	132
4.1.8	The implementation of Tshwane public free WiFi.....	134
4.1.9	Summary.....	137
4.2	CASE 2: Tshwane Bus Rapid Transport: A Re Yeng	139
4.2.1	Introduction	139
4.2.2	Rationale for introducing A Re Yeng	139
4.2.3	Public transport in South Africa	140
4.2.4	Municipalities legal obligations related to provision of public transport ..	148
4.2.5	The implementation of A Re Yeng	150
4.2.6	The A Re Yeng Operational Plan	151
4.2.7	Project Funding and Implementation timelines	153
4.2.8	Governance Model	154
4.2.9	Summary.....	155
4.3	Case 3: Tshepo 10 000 (Tshepo-10k)	157
4.3.1	Introduction	157
4.3.2	Explanation: “Tshepo-10k”.....	158
4.3.3	Rationale for the introduction of Tshepo-10k.....	158
4.3.4	Exploit the City’s fiscus to drive transformation	161
4.3.5	Objectives and scope of Tshepo-10k	162
4.3.6	Implementation of Tshepo-10k	163
4.3.7	Selection and recruitment.....	166
4.3.8	Targeted training intake: Tshepo-10k beneficiaries.....	168
4.3.9	Tshepo 10k reporting framework and funding	169
4.3.10	Summary.....	170
4.4	Case 4: City of Tshwane War Room (Kuka Maoto)	172
4.4.1	Introduction	172
4.4.2	Introduction of Kuka Maoto: Rationale.....	175
4.4.3	Kuka Maoto goals	177
4.4.4	Kuka Maoto delivery model	178
4.4.5	Anchors of Kuka Maoto	179



4.4.6	Kuka-Maoto: Implementation Plan.....	180
4.4.7	Budget and resources.....	184
4.4.8	Summary.....	185
5	CHAPTER Five: DATA AND INFORMATION ANALYSIS	187
5.1	Introduction	187
5.2	Tools of analysis	187
5.2.1	Central proposition and potential impact of each programme: GCR	189
5.2.2	Performance against pre-determined objectives (PDOs) analysis	191
5.2.3	Context analysis.....	208
5.2.4	Perspective Analysis.....	214
5.2.5	Programme adoption by the GCR	229
5.3	Summary.....	244
6	CHAPTER six: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	246
6.1	Introduction	246
6.2	Synopsis of previous chapters	247
6.3	Findings and Recommendations	249
6.3.1	Policy, legislative and planning discipline	249
6.3.2	Emerging public Leadership issues	261
6.4	Leadership approach to enhance GCR	269
6.5	Meeting study objectives and areas of future research	271
6.5.1	Areas of possible future study	275
6.5.2	What is the optimal form of the GCR?	275
6.5.3	Are there minimum universal characteristics of a successful city-region? 277	
6.5.4	What are the public leadership issues in city-regions?	278
7	REFERENCES.....	280

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Percentage of race by province.....	9
Table 2: South African Provinces per capita income.....	14
Table 3: Informal households per province	17
Table 4: Comparisons of the research preferences	50
Table 5: Characteristics of the four primary research strategies.....	53
Table 6: Leadership Paradigms	89
Table 7: Characteristic features of mobile phones in South Africa.....	126
Table 8: South Africa's Internet Users.....	127
Table 9: Percentage of internet penetration per age bracket	129
Table 10: Percentage of internet penetration by monthly household income bracket before tax	130
Table 11: Percentage of internet penetration by stated place of residence	131
Table 12: Multi-year budget allocation for Tshwane public free WiFi.....	134
Table 13: Primary mode of transport used per income quintile.....	141
Table 14: Households which use public transport per geographic location	145
Table 15: Distribution of monthly household income per capita spent on public transport	146
Table 16: Phasing the A Re Yeng project	154
Table 17: Dates and venues for collection of application forms: Tshepo-10k by region	168
Table 18: Tshepo-10k participant's intake per quarter	168
Table 19: Programme central proposition and potential impact on the GCR.....	189
Table 20: Typical Kuka Maoto operational programme.....	202
Table 21: Educational profile per region of selected Tshepo-10k participants.....	205
Table 22: Budget commitments per procurement category	206
Table 23: Tshwane public free WiFi SWOT analysis	210
Table 24: A Re Yeng SWOT analysis	211
Table 25: Kuka Maoto SWOT analysis	212

Table 26: Tshepo-10k SWOT analysis.....	213
Table 27: Matching of ANC manifesto commitments and programmes	216
Table 28: Matching development plans objectives or actions with programmes	221

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Map of South Africa.....	4
Figure 2: Map of Gauteng Province	6
Figure 3: Urbanisation levels per province and for South Africa (2011).....	7
Figure 4: Population Distribution by Age and Gender, SSA, 2000 & 2015	8
Figure 5: Summary of labour market measures at a glance Q1: 2016.....	10
Figure 6: City of Tshwane Population by age group and sex.....	27
Figure 7: Estimated City gross expenditure on R&D based on population weights (2012)	30
Figure 8: Internet's percentage contribution to GDP by country.....	123
Figure 9: Average per capita monthly household travel cost of households who used public transport by income quintile.....	142
Figure 10: Average per capita monthly household travel cost of households who used public transport by type of public transport modes.....	143
Figure 11: Percentage of monthly household income per capita spent on public transport by quintile.....	144
Figure 12: Percentage of households who used public transport by income quintiles.	147
Figure 13: A Re Yeng business model.....	155
Figure 14: Net migration figures by metropolitan municipality.....	159
Figure 15: Annual growth in city population	160
Figure 16: Summary of capital expenditure by city	161
Figure 17: Summary of operating expenditure by category and city	162
Figure 18: Frequency of motivations for public gatherings (2009 to 2013)	172
Figure 19: Local level protest frequency for all municipalities (January 2004 to September 2015)	173

Figure 20: Proportions of protests involving violence.....	174
Figure 21: Top five motivations for local service delivery protests (2007 to 2012).....	175
Figure 22: Stages of a typical programme lifecycle.....	181
Figure 23: Tshwane public free WiFi factsheet	192
Figure 24: Tshwane public free WiFi usage by LSM and mobile service provider	194
Figure 25: Ntirhisano macro structure	238

CHAPTER one: BACKGROUND AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

The all-inclusive 1994 national democratic elections in South Africa represents a significant democratic breakthrough for all freedom loving South Africans. The elections marked a major point of inflection in the South African political landscape by ushering the first democratically elected administration in the country. The elections were a culmination of decades of heroic and bold struggles waged both domestically and internationally against Apartheid, a system that was universally categorised as a crime against humanity. The Apartheid system denied the majority Black population their inalienable right to elect leaders of their own choice. The majority Black population was further excluded from meaningful participation in public institutions that affected their daily lives. To pacify the wishes of the Black majority, the Apartheid regime created pseudo-public institutions to cater for the needs of Blacks.

The advent of constitutional democracy in South Africa imposed new requirements such as equality before the law, guaranteed property rights, free, fair and periodic elections, the redesign of the state and government; and the installation of institutions to buttress constitutional democracy. In meeting and advancing the new constitutional imperatives, a thorough appreciation of the historic evolution of the Apartheid state and its associated institutions is necessary including how these have abetted racial and economic polarisation of South African society. An examination of the demographics of the post Apartheid state is essential to appreciate the prospects of meeting the obligations of constitutional democracy. A comprehensive look at the eminent contemporary trends of development, such as globalisation, urbanisation, and city-regions; is indispensable to formulating appropriate policy responses aimed at undoing the legacy of Apartheid and building a prosperous South Africa. City-regions, where applicable, presents a glorious opportunity to meet and advance the values and aspirations of a constitutional democracy.

1.2 Background

Cloete (1982: 282) notes that “with the establishment of the Union of South Africa on 31 May 1910 the Department of Native Affairs was created for the administration of the areas reserved for Blacks and Black affairs generally on all parts of the Union. This Department was the first institution created in the Union to provide for government and administration systems to meet the unique needs of specific population groups. Once the National Party was installed into power in 1948 the policy of separate development was clarified and extended to provide for specific public institutions for Coloureds and Indians”. Therefore, at the core of the Apartheid logic is the classification and hierarchy of the population on the basis of race. In the logic of the Apartheid system, the White population occupied the apex of the racial classification hierarchy whilst the Black majority supported the racial classification ladder. The dawn of the democratic dispensation gave hope to the multitudes of South Africans that the almost intractable socio-economic and political tensions in the country, which were primarily defined along race, class and gender lines, would finally be resolved. The tensions included the evident wealth and income inequalities between Blacks and Whites; land poverty experienced by the formerly oppressed majority Blacks; acute urban-rural divide; significant deficits in the provision of basic services to the poor who are largely Black; spatial inequalities to the detriment of the urban poor; and the general lack of access to meaningful opportunities by the Black majority.

The demise of Apartheid implied that new legislative institutions designed for all South Africans and serving them equitably had to be constructed. Cloete (1998: 39) made a telling observation of the model for the structuring of legislative institutions. He noted that “a single model for the structuring of legislative institutions for all states has not yet been discovered. Indeed, it is doubtful whether it will ever be possible to find such a model. The social and physical conditions prevalent in each state make it unique so that an abstract structure of legislative institutions, or the structure of another state, cannot meet requirements. The physical and social conditions prevalent in a state result in unique values, assumptions, attitudes and beliefs that shape its peculiar political culture.

The legislative institutions created for a state have to be adapted to its political culture to make it acceptable to the people”. He concluded that it is difficult to devise a simple hierarchy of legislative institutions (from municipal councils up to a sovereign legislature) that will be acceptable to all the South African citizens. Cloete’s observations are correct in that the birth of any State is a function of the many contending forces and the political aspirations of multiple actors. Therefore, there is no universal model for the structuring of legislative institutions for all States. Consequently, the South African political settlement experience is no different.

The determination of the legislative institutions during the negotiations of a democratic constitution in South Africa was largely defined by tension between, on the one hand, the majority progressive camp that advocated for a unitary state that cherished the diversity of all South Africans living side-by-side in harmony; and the polar-end of the political continuum, a camp that advocated for a federal arrangement principally to legitimise the Apartheid manufactured demographics which would, in large part, continue to advantage the erstwhile White minority ruling-class. Ultimately, the meeting point was a country carved into nine provinces, namely: Eastern Cape, Gauteng, Free State, KwaZulu-Natal, Northern Cape, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North West and Western Cape as illustrated in Figure 1 (Stats SA 2006) below. Furthermore, a Constitution with an enshrined Bill of Rights was agreed to and became the supreme law of the land.



Figure 1: Map of South Africa

A combination of the legacy of the Peace Treaty of Vereeniging, which resulted in the co-operation of the four British colonies culminating in the Union of South Africa on 31 May 1910, the historical accumulation patterns, including the architecture of the Apartheid system ensured that there is a large concentration of opportunities in key urban areas of Johannesburg, Pretoria, Cape Town and Durban. This led to countless waves of rural Black men and women of working-age moving to the urban centres in search of a better life. The Apartheid spatial policies further made it impossible for the poor and the new entrants to the urban spaces to locate closer to centres of economic activity and production because these were reserved for the ruling White minority. This policy of systematic spatial exclusion led to the racial demographics of cities, that is, the poor, essentially Blacks, located in the townships on the periphery of the urban centres. These townships largely served as labour reserves for cities, devoid of any meaningful economic activity, and experienced limited or no basic service delivery.

Johannesburg and Pretoria attract interest because the former essentially serves as the country's financial capital while the latter as the seat of the Executive branch. These two major cities are located in the Province of Gauteng (Gauteng). Gauteng, which means a place of Gold in Sesotho, was formed from part of the erstwhile Transvaal Province after 27 April 1994 democratic elections. It was initially named Pretoria-Witwatersrand-Vereeniging (PWV) and renamed Gauteng in December 1994. Gauteng is bordered by four, largely rural provinces, namely: Free State, Limpopo, North West and Mpumalanga. This is significant in that the province has become the natural magnet for economic migrants from the neighbouring four poor and rural provinces. It is significant to note that Gauteng is the only province of the nine that does not share any international borders. Figure 2 (Stats SA 2006) below illustrates Gauteng's geography.



Figure 2: Map of Gauteng Province

Gauteng exhibits unique features in many ways. Firstly, it is the smallest of the nine provinces in terms of land mass. It accounts for 1.5% of South Africa's land-mass. Statistics South Africa (2015) notes that "Gauteng Province is the fastest growing province, with a population growth of over 33% between the 1996 and 2011 censuses, thus making Gauteng the largest population of any province in South Africa, though occupying the smallest area. As of the census of 2011, there are 12,272,263 people and 3,909,022 households residing in Gauteng with a population density of 680/km². The density of households is 155.86/km², and about 22.1% of all households are made up of individuals. The average household size being 3.33".

Secondly, the province is the most urbanised amongst all of its peers; approximately 96%.

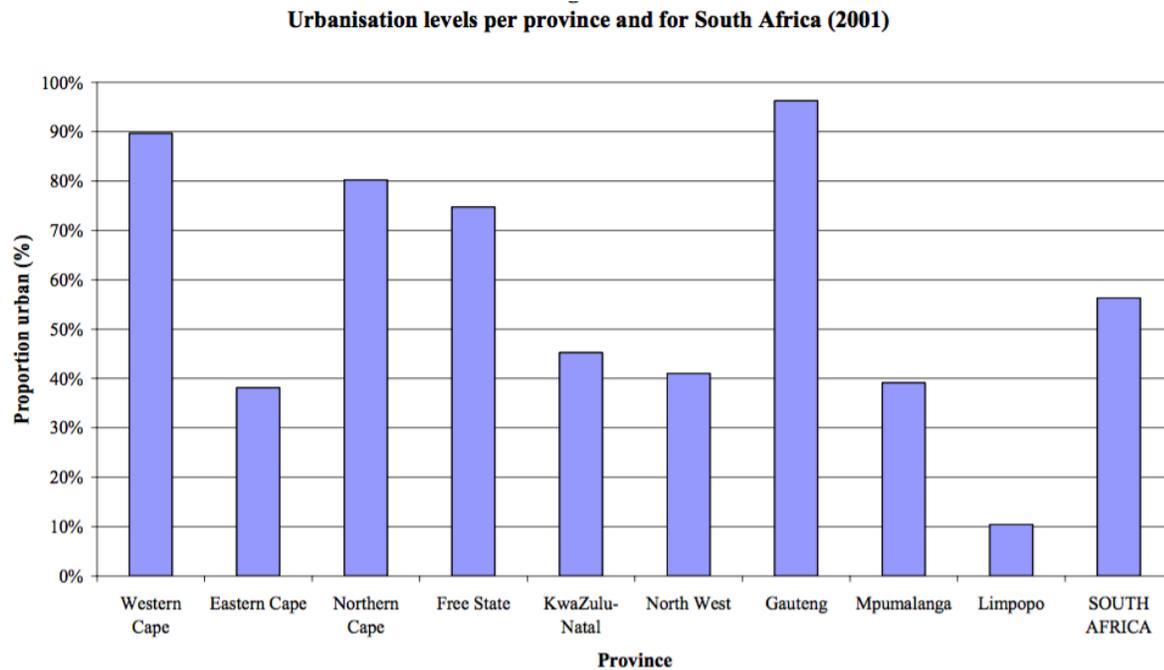
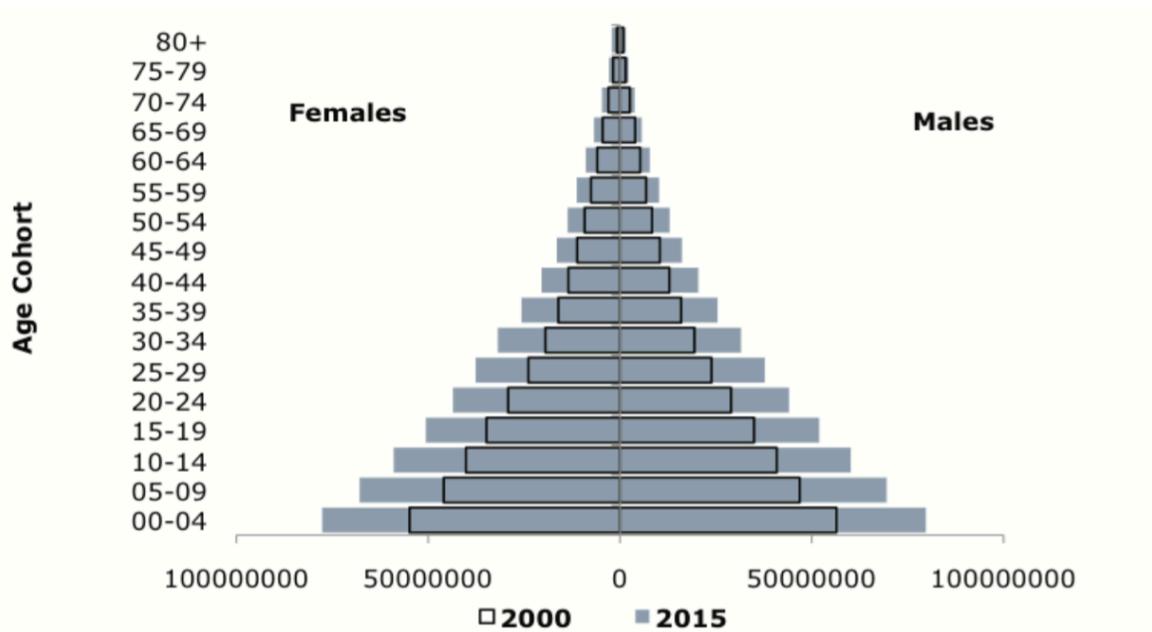


Figure 3: Urbanisation levels per province and South Africa (2011)

Based on Figure 3 Stats SA (2006:23) it can be concluded that “urbanisation levels of the white and Indian/Asian population groups have tapered off as they approach saturation level whilst the coloured population is expected to taper off soon as well. As far as the black African population is concerned, it can probably be expected that the increase in its urbanisation level will continue for the foreseeable future”. The third unique feature of Gauteng is that it boasts the most youthful population of all provinces. Gauteng population is 23.6% under 15 years of age, 19.6% from 15 to 24, 37.9% from 25 to 44, 15.0% from 45 to 64, and 4.0% who are 65 years of age or older. The median age of Gauteng is 27 years. For every 100 females in Gauteng there are 101.2 males. For every 100 females in Gauteng aged 18 and over, there are 102.3 males (United Nations 2015, Figure 4).



Source: United Nations, 2015

Figure 4: Population Distribution by Age and Gender, SSA, 2000 & 2015.

Fourthly, Gauteng is also the most racially and ethnically diverse of the all provinces. Statistics South Africa (2015) revealed that 14.4% of the residents speak Afrikaans at home; 12.5% English; 7.3% IsiXhosa; 20.5% IsiZulu; 1.2% SiSwati; 4.2% Tshivenda, 10.7% Sepedi; 13.1% Sesotho; 8.4% Setswana; 1.5% IsiNdebele; and 5.1% speak Xitsonga. 1.0% of the population speaks an unofficial language at home (Stats SA 2006).

Table 1: Percentage of race per province

Province	African/Black	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Western Cape	31.5%	51.5%	0.6%	16.5%	100%
Eastern Cape	88.8%	7.3%	0.3%	3.5%	100%
Northern Cape	54.0%	38.5%	0.2%	7.4%	100%
Free State	87.5%	2.7%	0.2%	9.5%	100%
KwaZulu Natal	88.9%	1.1%	7.3%	2.8%	100%
North West	92.0%	1.6%	0.9%	5.5%	100%
Gauteng	77.7%	3.1%	3.2%	16%	100%
Mpumalanga	93.4%	0.3%	0.3%	6.0%	100%
Limpopo	97.4%	0.6%	0.7%	1.3%	100%
Total	80.2%	8.9%	2.5%	8.4%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2006.

Gauteng enjoys an unassailable position as the country's economic engine. Makhura (2015:5) notes that at current prices, Gauteng is now a more than R1-trillion economy. Gauteng contributes 36% to the country's GDP, 40% of total industrial output and 60% of exports. Gauteng is the biggest contributor to national employment and the number of employed people grew from 2.7 million in 1995 to 4.88 million people in 2014. The Province contributes 42% to national employment and has the highest labour absorption rate of any of the provinces in the country. In 1996 2.5 million were people employed in the Gauteng's economy and over a period of twenty years this figure escalated to 5 million, an increase of 100%.

Gauteng Province accounts for more than 10% of Africa's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The province acts as a magnet for foreign direct investment and is significant as an indispensable driver of the country's economy as affirmed by Ernst & Young Survey (2014:24). The findings revealed that "the strong position of Southern Africa as an investment destination is derived mainly from the power of the South African economy.

South Africa has held its lead in Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) projects, positioning itself as a springboard for foreign investment into the fast-growing African markets to its north. While some investors are worried that the country may lose its “gateway to Africa” status, FDI statistics indicate that it remains very attractive. In FDI project numbers, South Africa has increased its lead over other countries since 2008. In fact, in 2012 and 2013, the South Africa received at least double the number of FDI projects of the second-largest recipient. FDI projects in South Africa have increased at a CAGR of more than 16% since 2007. In 2013, South Africa’s FDI projects alone exceeded those of the whole of North Africa”.

5. Summary of labour market measures at a glance, Q1: 2016

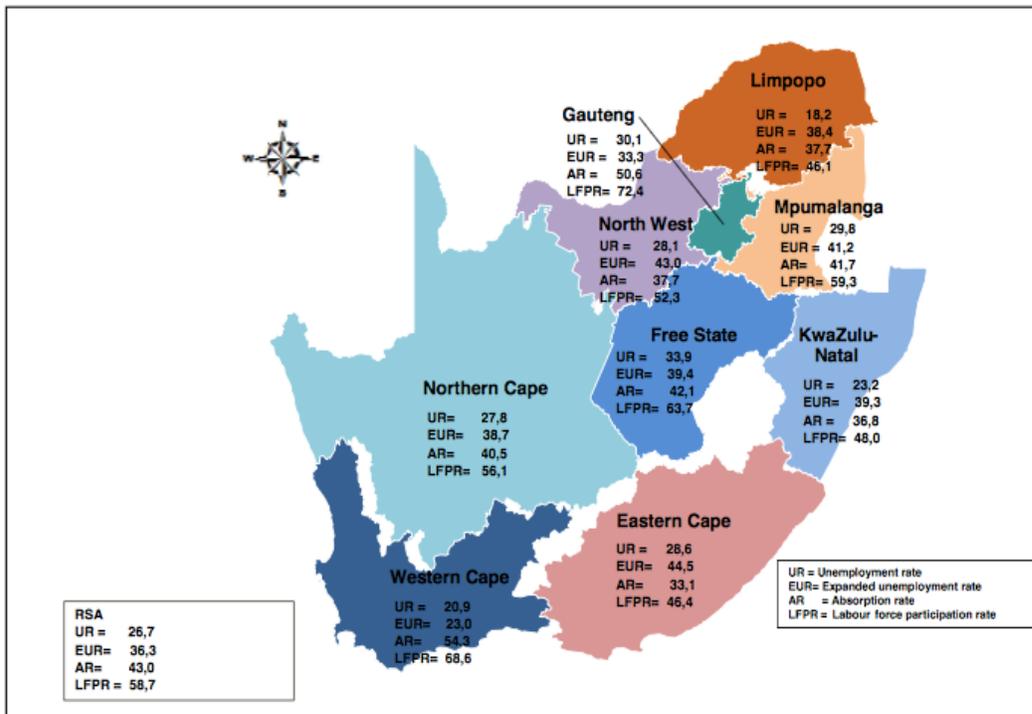


Figure 5: Summary of labour market measures at a glance Q1: 2016

Figure 5 above further illustrates the dominant economic position of Gauteng compared to its peers (Stats SA 2016). Gauteng has the highest employment absorption rate of all the provinces including the highest labour force participation rate. However, Gauteng has one of the highest unemployment rates (narrow definition) but the second lowest unemployment rate utilising the expanded definition. This is not difficult to comprehend. Many of those unemployed in Gauteng seek employment opportunities in the province because of a higher probability of success. It can be argued that many of those unemployed left their provinces of birth to pursue better employment prospects in Gauteng. The tourism figures also supports Gauteng's principal position as the engine of growth in the country. Gauteng receives the largest number of foreign tourists (41.4%); and has the highest number of bed-nights and generated revenue, compared to other provinces, within the international tourist markets. Gauteng also receives the majority of African land-based tourists. Between 2003 and 2013, the Gauteng provincial economy has consistently escalated above the national average. In 2013, the Gauteng economic growth recovered to 2.2%. Since the National Development Plan and Vision 2030 sets an annual national growth target of 5%, the Province will need to grow at a much higher rate to increase the national economy (Makhura 2015).

To further illustrate the commanding economic heights of Gauteng's contribution to the national economy compared to other metro-regions in the world, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2011:17) concluded that compared to the 90 other OECD metro-regions, Gauteng ranked 14th in terms of its contribution to the national GDP, i.e. above metropolitan Tokyo's share of Japan's GDP or metropolitan Paris' contribution to the French economy. While the Gauteng city-region's GDP per capita is comparable to that of Mexico City and Istanbul, the South African national average is more than a third lower than the national averages of Turkey and Mexico. Gauteng is also South Africa's engine of growth. Over the 1995-2008 period, the Gauteng city-region's economy grew at an annual average rate of 3.6%, while growth during 2006 and 2007, exceeded 6%. For every additional 1% share of population in Gauteng, 1.6% is added to its contribution to national growth, which

implies higher productivity than in other parts of the country. The above OECD observations simply confirms the inherent potential of Gauteng's economy if it were to be modelled along other leading city-regions of the world. Furthermore, Gauteng further serves as the continent's financial hub. The most advanced and reputable stock exchange on the African continent, the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (as the name would suggest) is located in the City of Johannesburg. An overwhelming number of financial institutions have headquarters in the City of Johannesburg and Tshwane. These include all the major banks and insurance companies in the country. The Reserve Bank of South Africa is also located in Gauteng, in the City of Tshwane.

Gauteng enjoys the position of being home to some of the world's leading car manufacturing brands. BMW, Nissan, Ford and Tata are all located in Tshwane. The presence of these leading brands has resulted in the province contributing 40% of all the total vehicle manufacturing exports in the country. Gauteng also serves as a laboratory for research and development in the country, contributing approximately 52% to the country's total research and development expenditure in 2008-09. Gauteng's Research and Development (R&D) as a percentage of GDP stands at 1.45%, which compares favourably with the OECD regional average of 1.58%. Within South Africa, the business sector in Gauteng is the leading contributor to R&D (64.7%), which places it at the level of entrepreneurial Catalonia (65.0%), Ontario (62.0%) or New York State (67.1%) (Makhura, 2015). In terms of patenting, the GCR generates the majority of patents in South Africa (57% in 2004), though its level per capita ranks in the bottom quartile of OECD metro-regions. Gauteng's leading patenting sectors were machinery and equipment (171 patents), furniture (60 patents), fabricated metal products (45 patents) and chemicals (39 patents). Comparative analysis has revealed that Gauteng's level of patent applications per million inhabitants is approximately 49 patents, placing it in the Leeds, Busan, Birmingham, Rome and Budapest leagues respectively (OECD 2011: 17-18).

The OECD findings serve to affirm the latent potential of Gauteng to drive and lead innovation in the country. The reasons for Gauteng's strong position in research and development capacity has more to do with the fact that the province is home to many of the national research institutions such as the Centre for Science and Industrial Research (CSIR), Agricultural Research Council (ARC) and the Council for Geoscience (CGS) to mention but a few. Gauteng is home to many institutions of post-secondary learning in the country, which include: University of Pretoria (UP), University of South Africa (UNISA), Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), Sefako Makgatho University of Health Sciences, Wits, University of Johannesburg (UJ) and the Vaal University of Technology (VUT). The City of Tshwane (the City) is the Administrative Capital of the country, which implies that it is the Executive branch of National Government; and all the latter head-offices of government are located in Gauteng. Consequently, the province serves as the epicentre of executive political management in the country. The aggregate of the locational advantages, relating to finance houses, vehicle manufacturing, research and development institutions, post-secondary learning institutions and the seat of the Administrative Capital of the country implies that Gauteng provides better quality employment opportunities, superior average salaries for the same work, potentially better quality of living, an above average education level, has a disproportionate GDP contribution, and is the locus for political and finance decision-making. Table 2 below reveals the relative wealth of the population in Gauteng compared to its peers.

Table 2: South African Provinces per capita income

Province	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Western Cape	65 239	65 609	66 786	67 362	67 800	67 915	67 647
Eastern Cape	31 851	32 445	33 487	34 000	34 292	34 468	34 524
Northern Cape	52 310	53 008	53 596	54 855	55 711	56 849	56 917
Free State	52 449	53 710	54 723	56 274	57 236	58 161	57 966
KwaZulu-Natal	41 793	42 831	43 942	44 619	45 256	45 791	45 645
North West	51 319	52 261	52 712	51 003	51 757	49 138	50 800
Gauteng	77 474	78 451	79 648	80 079	80 588	80 674	80 148
Mpumalanga	50 486	51 114	51 567	51 966	52 330	53 138	52 339
Limpopo	37 446	37 974	38 430	38 365	38 918	38 837	39 095
South Africa	53 102	53 993	55 027	55 497	56 119	56 309	56 274

Source: Statistics South Africa, 2016.

With its inherent and accumulated positive position in the country's political and economic landscape, Gauteng has not succeeded in exploiting its position and identifying itself as the principal driver and kernel of the efforts to reverse the manufactured Apartheid spatial and socio-economic distortions. The poor in Gauteng are still located along the periphery and continue to spend a disproportionate amount of their income on travel to access economic opportunities. The Black townships continue to be areas of social and economic decay, with limited or no investment to uplift their economic viability. The only hint of economic activity in the Black townships is in the form of retail development which is predominantly owned by the White privileged minority.

The municipalities have embarked on an effort to reverse the Apartheid morphology in cities by attracting investment back into the traditional central business districts (CBD). The recapitalisation of the CBD has resulted in unintended consequences such as gentrification; and spatial and class dimensions. Investment in infrastructure has led to

the exponential increase in property and land prices, a situation that further privileges the few and penalises the poor. Poor horizontal and vertical spatial planning has resulted in the sprawl. The housing delivery policy for the poor has simply reinforced and legitimised the Apartheid spatial configuration. The failure of Gauteng and the municipalities in the province to fully exploit what are historical locations and economic advantages has largely to do with the country's legislative, political and administrative design.

Gauteng comprises of eleven autonomous municipalities. Three of the eleven are Metropolitan Municipalities: Johannesburg, Ekurhuleni, and Tshwane; two are District Municipalities: Sedibeng which incorporates the Local Municipalities of Emfuleni, Lesedi and Midvaal; and West Rand incorporates Merafong, Rand West and Mogale Local Municipalities. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, of 1996 assigns the municipality's original powers. These eleven municipalities and the Gauteng Provincial Government exercise their powers independently from each other. The lack of coordinated planning between province and the municipalities and across municipalities occasionally leads to unhealthy and/or destructive competition. The determination of priorities is highly localised with limited or no consideration of the impact on other spheres. The mostly indistinguishable population of Gauteng is largely perceived as the sum of populations in the individual municipalities as opposed to a single population spread across a functional economic geography.

Spatial planning is defined along artificial municipal boundaries as opposed to planning for a coherent urban conurbation. This is more pronounced in the determination of the urban edges of the respective municipalities. The advent of the Gauteng Spatial Development Framework (GSDF), which articulates a Gauteng-wide spatial vision and seeks to incorporate advanced planning of all players that impact on spatial development, warrants support from all municipalities in Gauteng including National government. The possibility of the spheres of government in the Gauteng Province working together under an institutional arrangement referred to as the Gauteng City-

Region (GCR) will enhance the prospects of the province and assert itself as the principal driver of both the country and the continent's economy. Pemberton and Lloyd (2011:502) note that "the city-region concept appears to offer opportunities for securing relative effectiveness and efficiency gains in local and regional institutional governance and its capacity. These could include the potential realisation of the more effective management of the perceived functional realities of particular territorial spaces through enabling larger scale partnership working arrangements. City-regions could facilitate a relatively more robust integration of economic development and land use planning agendas; and secure the effective dovetailing of public policies across a broader regional domain".

Adopting the city-region route in Gauteng will ensure that public transport planning and design is not perceived as a network of roads in a defined municipal boundary but as an instrument to: facilitate mobility, reorient the provincial spatial form, enhance economic access, and unlock and/or maximise economic development along major corridors across the province. Although Gauteng enjoys the largest share of investment of public transport in the country in the form of Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) that is being rolled-out in the three metros of Johannesburg, Tshwane and Ekurhuleni is unable to maximise the scale benefits because the three metros are not progressive in their planning.

In planning for the BRT, the three metropolitan (metro) areas perceive themselves as separate unrelated transport areas. However, in reality, the commuting and transport movements in the three metros is intimately intertwined. In the current institutional dispensation, human settlement planning and construction is about meeting the immediate housing needs of communities in an isolated geography as opposed to the creation of interconnected, liveable, sustainable and resilient urban environment that enhances economic participation for all. Currently, Gauteng is the province with the highest number of informal settlements and informal households in the country. Stats SA suggests that there are three million informal households in the country, with over a third situated in the Gauteng. The effort to determine the minimum levels of services for

informal households and their ultimate eradication is predicated on a Gauteng-wide policy on township establishment and settlement upgrading.

Table 3: Informal households per province

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Western Cape	282 204	285650	254664	261309	282671	617796	644579	370029
Eastern Cape	155146	146162	140298	160847	133908	247212	211339	205375
Northern Cape	29347	30373	24703	27231	39871	72323	69072	64105
Free State	146206	134949	120573	139025	146983	153564	168459	188017
KwaZulu-Natal	253957	236257	240355	285865	278792	371624	387874	407801
North West	190687	195097	227483	273795	288731	174165	153181	325226
Gauteng	103617 8	103660 5	107633 8	118845 5	117966 1	137693 1	150768 3	136871 8
Mpumalanga	95768	113394	82628	112987	104926	213466	201827	208821
Limpopo	89849	61846	82070	94380	90780	124196	124202	165609
SA	227934 1	224033 3	224911 3	254389 2	254632 3	335127 5	346821 6	330370 1

Source: Stats SA, 2017.

Greater levels of policy harmonisation across the desperate municipalities and the Gauteng Provincial Government within the auspices of a GCR could position Gauteng as South Africa's innovation hub, and facilitate the broadening of economic development for Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) and start-ups. The fostering of entrepreneurial activity in Gauteng could spearhead to encourage and promote innovation in the country. Improved coordination among Gauteng's political actors could help to eliminate the impediments that inhibit start-up and survival of firms, particularly

SMEs. The realisation of a GCR could mitigate against the negative factors that obstruct SME development, such as lack of access to commercial finance, high interest rates and under-developed skills.

A thriving SME sector could be of enormous value in diluting the highly concentrated market structure which is dominated by more established businesses and tends to be associated with lower output and employment including higher prices in the affected sectors. Applying the OECD classification of manufacturing industries based on technology, Gauteng's industry is led by medium-low tech (40.3%); followed by low-tech (29.1%); medium-low (26.6%); followed by high-tech (4.1%) (OECD, 2011). The development of Gauteng-wide investment incentive schemes can help the province to maximise its potential and position it firmly to become the principal driver of development. Such incentive schemes could isolate the various municipalities from being pitted against each other by unsavoury private business players. The incentives could be modelled that allows GCR to direct investment as opposed to the current practice of the Gauteng Provincial Government and the its based municipalities following investments. The GCR has the potential to reclaim the initiative to determine the direction and pace of development in its geographic space. This position could help to address funding concerns.

The local government financial and funding environment is experiencing major difficulties. This stems from the inability of many of the municipalities in the province to fund many of their constitutionally mandated activities. This is largely due to a diminishing revenue base, rapid urbanisation that places onerous responsibilities on municipalities and poor management of the limited resources by the bureaucracy. The South African National Treasury has highlighted the financial plight of municipalities in the country and identified several of the municipalities as technically bankrupt. The municipal finances status instructs that there should be a complete rethink of financing decisions and the re-examination of the debt raising options in the country.

Opportunities exist for pool-funding which will allow the full exploitation of scale benefits and the advantages of an expanded balance sheet.

The establishment of a city-region would invariably reform of the intergovernmental grant system which could provide much-needed additional public funding for infrastructure development in the wake of rapid urbanisation. Urbanisation has been a defining feature in the global South in the past decade. It is generally considered as a positive force for development. The UN Habitat (2016: 34) contends that “urbanisation on has facilitated millions to escape poverty through increased employment opportunities, productivity, large-scale investment in infrastructure and services, and improved quality of life”. Urbanisation in the global South contrasts with the one in the North in a number of areas. Urbanisation in the global North followed structural transformation, that is, the urbanising population moved to decent work opportunities whilst the one experienced in the global South was largely as a result of rural - pushing factors characterised by a generally unskilled urbanising population, the net result was the urbanisation of poverty.

Urbanisation in the global South occurs in an environment of heightened rights culture and the aggressive foregrounding of the third generation rights. Parnell and Pieterse (2010: 149) argue for a developmental state at a city level. They postulate especially for the chronically city poor, accentuate 3rd generation rights (that are realised through stronger state capacity to provide inclusive development planning and to enforce land use management), including the economic and environmental regulations that advance the interests of the poor is key for a sustainable model of urban poverty reduction based on economic growth and job creation. Therefore, the GCR should appreciate that the challenges of urbanisation presents new dimensions of social tensions, such as environmental concerns and rights of lesbian communities that were not necessarily experienced in the global North. The policy choices of the city-region should not rely on the market forces. It requires deliberate and active participation of the city-region itself.

There should be greater caution in simply superimposing or inappropriate borrowing of global North solutions to address the urbanisation in the global South. Watson (2009: 153) notes that “the World Urban Forum in Vancouver in June 2006 was an important event, as it advocated for a significant shift in global thinking about the future of Southern cities. the forum recognised that by 2008, for the first time in history, the majority of the world’s population will live in cities, and in future years most of all new population growth will be located in cities in the global South”. Rampant urbanisation has resulted in a more pronounced contribution of cities to development in their respective countries. The rise of cities has seen them surpass nation-sovereign states in their significance to the resolution of socio-economic conflict in their respective countries. The exponential growth in world population is concentrated in the major cities of the world as a result of both organic growth and urbanisation.

The South African Cities Network (SACN) (2016) notes that “the world population is growing fast, albeit the rate is slowing. In 2015, the world population will reach a staggering 7.3 billion, which is one billion people more than 12 years early. However, it is envisaged that it will take 15 years to add another one billion people to the population, which is projected to reach 8.5 billion by 2030. Between 2005 and 2015, the annual rate of population growth dropped, from 1.24% to 1.18%. Africa is now the fastest-growing continent in the world. Africa accounts for just 16% of world population (1.2 billion in 2015) with the highest rate of population growth, at 2.55% annually. This will result in almost half (1.3 billion of the 2.4 billion) of the people projected to be added to the world population between 2015 and 2050, being Africans. As a consequence, Africa’s share of the world population will reach 25% in 2050, and 39% by 2100, whereas Asia’s share will reduce to 44% over the same period”.

The National Development Plan (NDP) estimates that South Africa's urban population will grow by approximately 10% every two decades, reaching 70% in 2030 and almost 80% in 2050 (NPC 2011). The Gauteng Province is projected to be the fastest urbanising space in the country. UN Habitat (2016:27) argues that cities are core to trade and innovation, global production, making urbanisation a “transformative force” that, if well managed, offers significant opportunities for (improving quality of life and economic prospects for the majority):

- alleviating poverty
- working towards social inclusion
- driving innovation and productivity
- contributing to national and regional development’.

Only a well-governed GCR could exploit the upside of urbanisation and fend off the adverse impact of this inescapable reality of modern civilisation. The World Economic Forum (2015) notes that poorly managed urbanisation could result in the expansion of slums, increased inequality, and disastrous impacts on climate change, with particular challenges in four areas:

- infrastructure
- climate change
- health risks
- social instability’.

In spite of clear projections, many African countries and cities are ill-equipped for the rapid population growth, and the economy is generally incapable of absorbing this influx. As a consequence, 40% of the global urban expansion takes place in slums (World Economic Forum [WEF], 2015). Pillay (2004: 344) exposes certain socio-economic tensions that are experienced in the city-regions of the global South. He observes that while these city-regions are largely considered as far richer than the rest of the national territories in which they are located, they also invariably comprise of populations characterised by major income disparities, and extreme situations of social

fragmentation and polarisation in racial, class and income terms. These city regions then assume spatial configurations that express this social segmentation. At one extreme one finds massive poor communities living in shantytowns and squatter settlements, and at the other the more spacious and well-resourced communities of the middle classes and the wealthy. In many such global city-regions, there are complex social tensions related to combinations of proximity, segregation and inequality. Violence, or the fear thereof is a central concern of the upper class, driving them towards forms of fortress settlements, “gated” high-rise communities, surrounded by guarded entries and high walls. This architecture of fear only worsens the fragmented character of the urban space, and generates additional problems for infrastructure provision, as the rich attempt to disaffiliate politically and socially from the space of the urban community as a whole. Therefore, the issues of closing the inequality gap and social cohesion are some of the areas that need to be addressed by the GCR.

Urbanisation in Sub-Saharan Africa is unique as Yeboah, Codjoe and Maingi (1998: 99-100) note that the size of an urban population is not necessarily a problem, but unlike countries of the global core, where urban demographic growth is associated with industrialisation and employment creation, in sub-Saharan Africa it is driven by poverty and conflict. This situation presents sub-Saharan African countries with challenges to provide urban livelihoods, service, governance, infrastructure development, minimise environmental degradation, poverty alleviation, and the exclusion of groups from urban society. The myriad of challenges associated with urbanisation in sub-Saharan Africa are particularly pronounced. A governance structure such as a city-region as advocated for Gauteng has a better chance of withstanding these challenges and fully exploiting urbanisation as a transformative force. The maximisation of the above-mentioned unique features of the Gauteng Province cannot be assumed. It requires a coordinated and seamless approach from all the three spheres of government in particular the Gauteng Provincial Government and all its municipalities.

The aggregation of the Gauteng Provincial Government and Gauteng-based municipalities into a clearly defined institutional and political unit called the GCR should be in a position to exhibit the following characteristics:

- function as an efficient bounded space that places limited attention on internal boundaries making it a single urban conurbation;
- the polycentric economic geography that is made of unique but mutually reinforcing economic geographies;
- treasures and promotes a coherent province-wide spatial planning approach;
- in a position to qualitatively transform townships from labour reserves to vibrant economic hubs that are dynamically interconnected with traditional economic centres; and
- meaningfully involve non-state actors in the policy determination and governance.

The realisation of a GCR holds the key to Gauteng being the foremost driver of the country's inclusive and shared growth, sustainable development and the architect of innovation across all aspects of human life. A successful GCR will be predicated on the existence of a more nuanced governance model, one that does not seek to control but that strives to manage and/or lower tensions between the various actors and foster cooperation in pursuit of a commonly shared goal of the future. Governance in an inherently cooperative environment require leadership qualities that cherishes persuasion and promotes of shared values.

The complex and dynamic Gauteng space requires a unique set of leadership skills and attributes to maximise what appears to be the inherent advantages offered by the city-region. The GCR can best be described as kinetic, i.e. one that is in a constant state of motion seeking new possibilities and bringing with it attendant social and economic challenges. The region's metabolism is defined by many movements of industry and commerce, tourists and migrants alike who all endeavour to exploit and experience the advantages offered by the city-region. Being the heartbeat of economic development both on the continent and in the country, implies that those navigating the space are in a constant state of scrutiny. The values they espouse and the principles they propagate will attract major attention from the many and varied actors in the space referred to as the city-region. As attested by the economic and demographic profile of the region, Gauteng occupies front-centre of the national aspirations of: realising a resilient and shared economic growth; registering a victorious fight against inequality and joblessness; the creation of spatial justice, and an engaged active citizenry.

The kind of leadership advocated for in this dynamic and highly contested political and economic space, Gauteng, should extend beyond the limits of the political domain, i.e. it should extend beyond the realms of those directly elected into political office. An environment should be created to accommodate, in a very meaningful way, new and different voices in the policy arena. The inscription of these voices will further enhance and solidify the democratic space of the GCR. Leadership at a provincial government level and at the various municipalities within the province of Gauteng will be key for a successful GCR. The focus would be orientation of the leadership including certain programmes adopted and implemented by the City will be the focus. Hopefully, this focus will provide certain suggestions of how these programmes can be expanded to advance the GCR and further expose certain requisite leadership imperatives to help bring to fruition the GCR project. A brief overview of the City of Tshwane follows below.

1.3 The City of Tshwane: Profile

The 1994 democratic breakthrough significantly altered the political relations of the South African society and fundamentally redefined the governance institutions in the country. The adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act of 1996 became the Supreme Law on 4 February 1997, and the country's landscape took a completely different character. Bekink (2006: 15) observes that “the constitution contained comprehensive bills of rights in which the rights of all people in the country were enshrined. All spheres of government were bound by the Bill of Rights, and the Bill of Rights also applied in law. A newly restructured judiciary, with the inclusion of a specialised Constitutional Court, was given the power and duty to oversee and control full compliance with the new constitutional standards and requirements. The former centralised government was furthermore replaced by a system with federal elements in which significant powers and functions were devolved to provincial and local authorities. The final Constitution, which completed the negotiated framework of transformation, established a governmental architecture of three spheres, which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated”.

It should be noted that as part of the negotiations for a democratic South Africa, a process meant to set the scene for the transformation and restructure of local governments throughout the country was set in motion by the Local Government Negotiating Forum (LGNF) in 1993 (Bekink 2006: 27). The LGNF parties agreed on the transformation programme of the envisaged democratic and inclusive local government in the country, the content of which was defined in the Local Government Transition Act, 1993 (Act 209 of 1993). The LGTA envisaged three phases of the transition process of local government. These phases include:

- The pre-interim phase, which started with the negotiations of the transformation process and lasted until the first municipal elections,

- The interim phase, which began with the first municipal elections and lasted until a new local government system had been designed and legislated, and
- The final phase, which began with the elections of new local government structures under the newly designed local government system stipulated in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996.

The final phase began in 2000. A key milestone in the history the City was the amalgamation of the municipality with 13 other smaller municipalities on December 5, 2000 to form the new City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This amalgamation was not simply an exercise in spatial integration; more significantly, it was a deliberate step towards reconciling the residents of this City and developing an integrated economic base to deepen socio- economic transformation (City of Tshwane Vision 2055, 2013). The City covers 6298 km² making it the third largest municipality in the world by land mass after Yokohama in Japan and New York in the United States of America. The City's population increased from 2.1 million citizens in 2001 to 2.9 million in 2011 (Stats SA 2013). Of the City's total population, proportionately there are more females (1 468 005) than males (1 453 483) in the City. Gauteng Province saw the population growth rate decrease from 3.6% between 1996 and 2001 to 2.7% between 2001 and 2011. Similar trends were observed for the City between 1996 - 2001 and 2001 – 2011 and the population growth rate marginally decreased from 3.6% to 3.1% (City of Tshwane Vision 2055).

Almost half of the world's 7 billion people are aged 24 or below. Approximately 1.2 billion are aged between 10 and 19 years. It is also estimated that currently in Africa, slum dwellers comprise more than 70% of the region's urban population, while the vast majority of are under the age of 24. Similarly, the City's population distribution by age revealed that it has a relatively young population of approximately 677 110 people below the age of 14 and a further 1 185 605 between the ages of 15 and 34. Combined, it represents approximately 64% of the City's population. The extent to which the City

can take advantage of its large youthful population will depend on whether it is able to prioritise customised youth programmes to enable the youth to participate meaningfully in the economy (City of Tshwane Vision 2055).

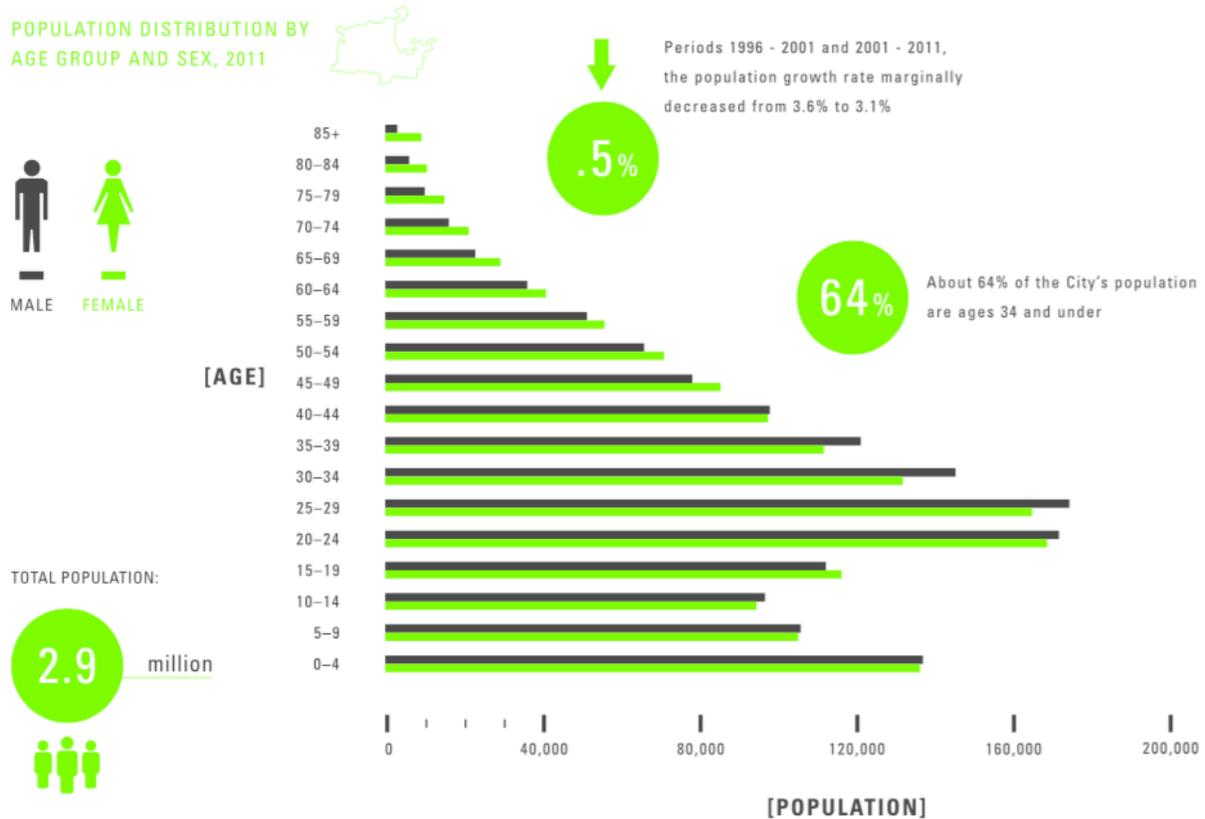


Figure 6: City of Tshwane population per age group and sex

While the City's population pyramid reveals proportionately more females than males, there are comparably more males in the age groups between 0 to 14 years and between 20 and 44. In the age groups from 45 to 49 years including 85+ years, there are proportionately more females' (City of Tshwane Vision 2055, Figure 6). The demographic profile of the City suggests that there is a huge demographic dividend that should be exploited. With the rampant urbanisation experienced in major cities across

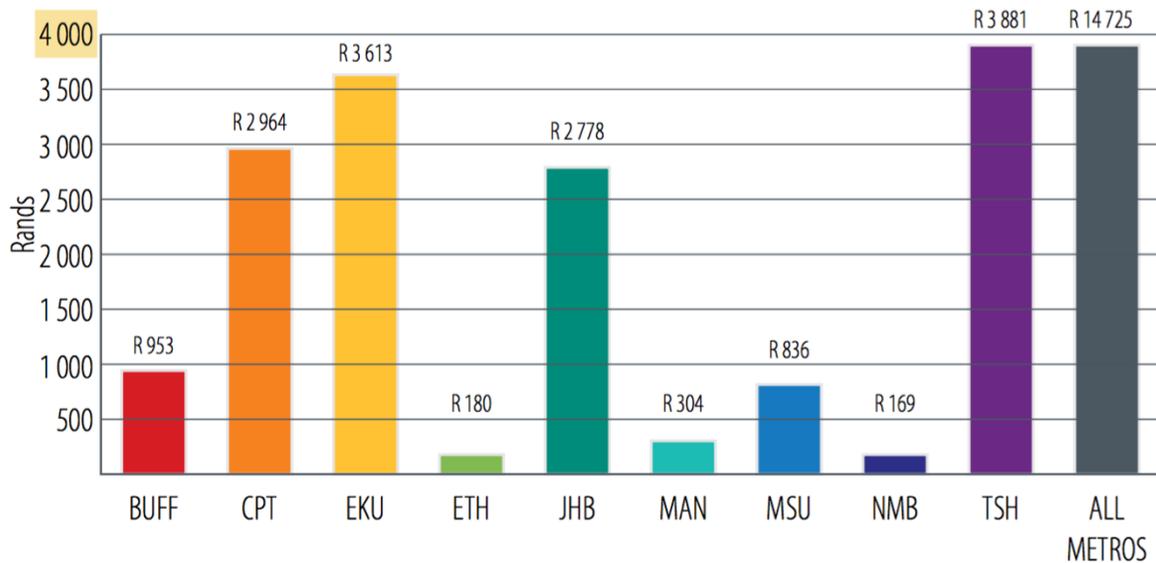
the country, all indications are that the population will experience steady growth into the foreseeable future. In fact, the City of Tshwane Vision 2055 indicates that “while the Gauteng Province inter-provincial net migration was a gain, although at lower figure of 566 760 people in 2011 compared to 901 622 people in 2001, it still had higher net migration gains compared to all the other provinces in the country. In the City of Tshwane, Census 2011 data reveals that of the City’s 2,9 million population, 110 000 people were born in the SADC, 58 120 in the rest of Africa, 7 200 in the United Kingdom and European Union, 6 500 in Asia, 170 in North America and a further 690 in Latin America and the Caribbean. About 160 500 residents did not specify their place of birth. About 25 000 moved from the City according to Census 2011 data”. Other key City indicators include:

- Number of households is 911, 536
- Average household size of 3.2
- Households with no annual income are 135, 640
- Number of employed people (ages 15 to 64) are 1 079 273
- Unemployment rate of 24%

The City is a significant player on the economic front. Stats SA (2015) revealed that “in 2012, Gauteng contributed 35.7% to South Africa’s GDP. In terms of contribution to Gauteng’s economy, the City accounted for 27.72% of GDP in 2012, a slight decrease from 28.13% in 2010– largely attributed to the residual effects of the 2008-2009 global economic downturn. The City accounted for 9% of South Africa’s total gross value add (GVA). In terms of the City’s trade position, the City had a trade surplus of R101.3 billion in 2012. In addition, the City of Tshwane contributes approximately 16% to South Africa’s total national trade”. Further economic performance analysis revealed that the government, social and personal services sub-sector accounted for the largest single share of the GVA followed by the finance and business service sub- sector.

The City's proximity to a number of airports and important rail and road links makes it ideal for business, import and export. The City's primary economic sector is community services which has seen a steady increase between 2006 and 2011. The finance, transport, trade and manufacturing sectors are other major contributors. A worrying trend is the steady slow-down of the City's manufacturing sector over the period, which is reflective of global trends, but remains a significant sector for the City. The other sectors in the City, namely: electricity, mining and agriculture – have remained relatively constant with respect to their contribution (Stats SA 2015).

In 2012, Tshwane spent a significantly high percentage of its budget on R&D, followed by Ekurhuleni, Cape Town and Johannesburg. Nelson Mandela Bay spent the least of all the cities, a mere 4% of what Tshwane spent per person (Quantec Research 2015, Figure 7). The high density of post-secondary institutions of higher learning in the City bolsters its contribution towards the R&D spend. The presence of illustrious research institutions such as Armscor, Medical Research Council, and the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, the Human Sciences Research Council and higher educational institutions bolsters the City's research credentials.



Source: Quantec Research (2015)

Figure 7: Estimated City gross expenditure on R&D based on population weights (2012).

1.4 GCR Leadership

Figure 7 above confirms that the City is a significant player in the GCR equation. If the City strives towards this objective, it would contribute immensely to realise a fully functioning GCR. Its ability to identify and prosecute programmes to realise GCR is crucial. This research will endeavour to delineate and examine certain leadership imperatives that should constitute a floor of requisite leadership credentials that would help boost the GCR to better serve its constituency; compete favourably against its peers in other parts of the world; exploit opportunities of a rapidly growing and socially mutating space; and manage and/or mitigate the challenges brought about by this space. It must be noted that this study does not purport to advance a theory of leadership in public administration. Chapman *et al.* (2015) confirm that scholars evaluating public leadership have measured a variety of variables encompassing styles, behaviours and traits; however, there is a lack of convergence both theoretically and

empirically that presents challenges to advancing an integrative theory or even fostering a more coherent dialogue around what is known about public leadership.

An examination of the leadership imperatives in the GCR will restrict its jurisdiction to the public sector leadership (those in the high echelons of the public service) and public leadership, i.e. elected representatives of the people (in the province and municipalities). Having drawn lessons from the City leadership, this research, therefore, restricts itself to only elucidating on the requisite minimum leadership GCR imperatives. This study will seek to contribute towards universal leadership imperatives associated with leading complex space that is city-regions which include:

- *Dexterity to manage and harmonise competing and militating interests of the actors and accommodating new players.* The levels of activism and knowledge of the rights of citizens in the city-region space is particularly heightened since it is home to the most educated sections of the community compared to other provinces. The coexistence of industry, informal settlements, certain of the most affluent households implies that the interests are varied and occasionally conflicting. Emergence of more diverse and assertive voices should not be perceived as a threat to the stability of the city-region but as enhancing the vibrancy of the space.
- *Ability to articulate a comprehensive and shared picture of the future.* By definition, the city-region has multiple cores. The leadership will be required to demonstrate that there is no assimilation or cannibalisation of the cores that define the region, but rather articulate a vision of the GCR that draws on and enhances the locational, inherent and accumulated advantages of the multiple cores in a manner that reinforces the one-ness of the city-region.
- *Ability to transcend the limits and prejudices of party political interests and narrow territoriality.* A city-region is a cohesively articulated aggregation of the institutional and political units at the level of the province and the municipalities that make the province. The inherent tensions of different political parties entrusted with the

mandate to lead either at the provincial or local government level implies that there is likely to be a variance in electoral mandates and priorities. The need for a of cooperation and protocol framework for dispute resolution will be critical for the full realisation of the benefits of a GCR governance model.

- *Skill to advance GCR interests to enhance the national goals.* The dominant and apparent unassailable economic position of the GCR should not deviate the region from contributing towards the stated national goals. The GCR is not in competition with national government, its actions should be complementary to the national effort. Arrogance should not be one of the attributes of the GCR when engaging with national government, but mutual respect and enthusiasm to uplift the interests of the nation.
- *Embrace an internationalist outlook and strive for global competitiveness.* Embracing an internationalist outlook does not retract from the fact that national government remains the custodian of foreign policy as defined in legislation. The GCR leadership should be aware that in a deeply globalised economic environment, its primary competition is the city-regions in other parts of the globe. Therefore, familiarity with international trends will place the GCR in good stead.
- *Must show agency and advocate.* The influence of the GCR is more pronounced compared to provinces and municipalities in other parts of the country. The dominant position of the GCR enables its leaders to help shape new ways and structures of participation and decision-making. The voices of the city-region leaders are likely to be heard or heeded given the elevated significance of the GCR. Therefore, the GCR leadership should exploit their vantage point positively to a progressive country and results in change where conditions dictate.
- *Readily open to new ideas and approaches to doing things.* The city-region space like many other is experiencing rapid changes in content, form and technology. GCR

leadership should be predisposed to being transformative in outlook to be able to manage the complexities of the space and help advance swiftly. Van Wart (2013) notes that “just as transactional leadership suited the more static public management from the 1950s to 1970s, the focus of transformational leadership on change especially suits a more tumultuous world. Neither complexity nor chaos in contemporary organisations shows any sign of lessening for their leaders. Indeed, complexity and chaos show every sign of not only continuing but also of fomenting change – at times, dramatic change”.

- *Exhibit high levels of integrity, strict adherence to principle and values.* One of the major deficits in contemporary leadership is the inability of leaders and the leadership collective to uphold exemplary levels of integrity, principles and values on a consistent basis. This failure has the potential to undermine the public’s confidence in both the leaders and the institutions they lead. Van Wart (2013) notes that in the public sector, principles include civic virtues such as commitment to the common good, dedication to the public service, and dedication to the law of the land. The final dimension of integrity is conscientiousness, or concern for doing an effective job. At a basic level, conscientiousness implies forming good habits and working earnestly; at a higher level, conscientiousness includes striving for excellence, which, in turn, improves leader credibility. Leaders understand that duty is essential and that it comes with especially high standards of proficiency in the public sector: duty includes respect for rules, the law, , and professional norms. The current levels of public suspicion of the ruling classes and low levels of confidence in the public institutions and its incumbents, the legitimacy and popularity of the city-region will be in part a function of the conduct of its leadership’s conduct.
- *Have a dynamic comprehension of the interaction and interface of public administration and business.* The city-region environment is complex in that the delineation of the tools required for the execution of functions related to the administration of the legislative institutions and requisite agility to advance the

interest of commerce in the city-region can be ambiguous. For example, for business to be competitive, it requires swift administrative decisions and the city-region has competency, but the decision-making processes of the bureaucracy can be cumbersome, occasionally fatal to the detriment of industry. Therefore, an efficient GCR leadership should be able to navigate the need for robustness, consultative and transparent decision-making in a public sector environment and the agility and swiftness in decision-making required by industry to compete in a globalised environment.

- *Go beyond intergovernmental relations, promote the “One-ness” of the City-Region.* The full realisation of the benefits of the city-region dictates that the actions of the Gauteng Provincial Government and the municipalities should not be solidaristic but act as a single political and administrative unit. Bekink (2005: 90) notes that ‘in general, intergovernmental relations can be described as a set of multiple formal and informal processes, structure and institutional arrangements for both bilateral and multilateral interaction between and within different spheres of government. In South Africa’s new government system, the concept “intergovernmental relations” has emerged to give more meaning to the foundation of co-operative government that is protected in Chapter 3 of the Constitution’. The city-region governance model will be more than co-operative government but about co-governance codified in a GCR governance protocol.

In the examination of the leadership imperatives, attention is given exclusively to the prerequisites as they relate only to the process or activity to administer the GCRs public affairs. This research does not venture into the area of intellectual inquiry, a discipline or study, i.e. it does not concern itself with Public Administration as a discipline but public administration as a process or activity. Waldo (1955: 4) asserts that ‘public administration is action designed to maximise the realisation of goals that are defined. In public administration as an activity there is continuous calculation of the means to maximize public goals, although there is a variation in the goal awareness, knowledge

and level of abstraction of those assigned in the activity.’ In pursuance of Waldo’s counsel, this study shares the contribution of the leadership of the City in contributing towards the GCR.

1.5 Clarification of key concepts

This part of the research serves to clarify the working definitions in relation to the key concepts in this research. It should be noted that the complexity of certain concepts resulted in the lack of a universal definition, therefore, assuming that the latter is more contextual than universal. Globalisation, migration and urbanisation are perceived as the key effort of the GCR hence the attempt to provide their working definitions in for this study.

1.5.1 Globalisation

This study argues that the emergence of the city-region and their dominant position in the economic space of their respective nation states is driven largely by globalisation and urban migration. There is a fierce debate of the meaning of globalisation and its impact on the world, especially the world’s poor. Some anti-globalist perceive globalisation as an expansion of capitalist modes of production to new territories, largely developing countries, designed to super-exploit workers and repatriate the benefits to the privileged classed. Rennan and Martens (2003: 137) observe that some are opposed to globalisation in its current form, which they claim is predominantly capitalist in nature, whereas others do not contest a capitalist- orientated globalisation as such, but want a more democratic and equal distribution of the benefits of globalisation. However, in the entire discussion about globalisation there is limited evidence to deny the phenomenon as such. Apparently, it is widely accepted that we are living in a globalising world. The protests and debates focus largely on how globalisation should be defined, and how it should be directed – if it can be directed at all’. A universal definition of globalisation is elusive, although as Rennan and Martens point out, it is accepted that we are living in a globalising world.

For the purposes of this research, globalisation is defined as “a complex group of phenomena, which these days is understood to mean the deepening and acceleration of the integration and unification processes of the world economy”. Furthermore, globalisation also affects cultural life, human relations, lifestyles and every day (Mesko and Farkashazi, 2003). Globalisation is of interest to the study because of its interrelationship with the rise of City-Regions in that:

- City-regions have higher productivity levels which could attract multinational organisations.
- City-regions are considered to generate more knowledge outcomes (patents, innovations, copyrights, licenses).
- City-regions have higher human capital making access to skills relatively easy to access.
- City-regions are found to be the triggers of creativity and entrepreneurship which are drivers of new enterprises to seek markets beyond its domestic economies.

1.5.2 Migration

This study is dependent on the statistical data as provided by the foremost authority on statistics, Statistics South Africa. The definitions of a statistical nature were drawn from the Stats SA where applicable. Stats SA (2006: 5) states that “although it is important for researchers to develop and apply conceptually sound definitions of migration and not data-driven conceptualisations, this does not always seem to be possible. For example, an important question in migration analysis is: What constitutes the spatial units to or from which moves can be categorised as migration? Standing (1984) points out that the limits often placed on the concept ‘area’ can be largely arbitrary or become a mere expediency”. Having acknowledged some of the key questions that arise in an attempt to define migration, Stats SA proposes a working definition for the concept. *Migration should be defined both theoretically and operationally as the crossing of the boundary of*

a predefined spatial unit by persons involved in a change of residence (Statistics SA 2006: 7). This definition was adopted in the research.

1.5.3 Urbanisation

The emergence of the GCR suggests that cities are incubators of scientific knowledge and the “melting pots” of different cultures. The history of the preponderance of cities further suggest that they are closed tied to modern civilisation. Davoudi and Stead (2002: 4) note that “the emergence of city life is seen as giving rise to the authority of the state, and to the complex economies based on complex social systems”. Cities are seen as the incubators of advanced culture and repositories of artistic and scientific knowledge and innovation. Historically, this has been reflected in the close association between economic development and urbanisation. Despite the squalor and misery that characterised the working-class districts of the 19th Century slums, the pro-urban view celebrates them as the predecessors to the modern city which today is the engine of economic growth (Le Gates & Stout, 1996). It is apparent from the study of the urbanization trends in Gauteng that the province will continue to be the most urbanised of all provinces. For our purposes, urbanisation is defined along the same principle as the OECD (2003), namely:

- Increase in the share of a population living in urban areas; and
- Process by which a significant number of people becomes permanently concentrated in relatively small areas, forming cities.

1.5.4 Gauteng City-Region

The GCR is considered a dependent variable; its realisation is a function of the leadership discharged. The GCR does not occur organically but relies heavily on the set of policy intervention, levels of economic and social integration, which in turn are a

function of the political leadership across all spheres of government in the Gauteng Province.

The widespread rate of urbanisation and the rapidly globalising economy has resulted in the growing importance of cities as the epicentres of development and the principal drivers of global growth. In many parts of the world, especially in the global North, this rate of growth of cities has resulted in an economic dynamic that links traditional urban cores with their neighbouring rural hinterland in a manner that allows the two previously separate space to function as a seamless economic space. This economic dynamic gave rise to the notion of city-region, which acknowledges the mutually reinforcing economic and spatial function of the new space beyond the political boundaries. Pain (2008) advises that “from the early 1970s, there has been recognition that the city–region is also a functional entity that extends across urban administrative areas, but even so research has mainly continued to focus on their internal relations and the demarcation of their boundaries. With the development of knowledge–dependent forms of trade and commercial production in a world economy, the economic relations of city–regions can clearly no longer be defined in this way. The new reality of a borderless space economy suggests the need to find a new term to describe the intersection of global flows with the city–region scale”.

The GCRO defines the city-region as a combination of two or more historically and politically separate cities with no hierarchical ranking, in a reasonable proximity and with functional interconnection. In spatial terms it consists of one or more central metropolitan areas and surrounding hinterlands in a polycentric spatial form. In economic terms, it serves to increase economic activity to secure improved comparative advantage in response to heightened economic integration; and is able to cooperate internally to compete better externally. In social terms, city-region serves as poles of attraction for migrants leading to increasing diversity, urbanisation of poverty, and increased inequality. For purpose hereof the *Gauteng City-Region is defined as a combination of urban cores that constitute the municipalities of the Gauteng Province*

linked by functional ties. The GCR boundary is restricted to the Gauteng province administrative area as defined by law.

1.5.5 Spatial planning

The Apartheid government was extremely efficient in exploiting allocation and distribution of space as one of its principal agencies. The geographic allocation of communities on the basis of race and ethnicity was useful in abetting the objects of the Apartheid government of, amongst others separate development. The engineering of ethnic based “homelands” only served to perpetuate the false idea of the existence of independent state. Some of the key features of Apartheid spatial planning was to allocate White farmers in productive pieces of land, settling White communities in areas of major economic activity and advanced infrastructure; and locating the majority African people at the periphery with little or no infrastructure investment. The GCR represents the most potent instrument to exploit the transformative capacity of spatial planning given the GCR’s apparent advantages of densities, economic activity in terms of scale and concentration, infrastructure development, and diverse racial character. For purposes of the study, spatial planning is defined as the *strategic act of interrelated series of material driven practices, which seeks to address the substance, form, and overall dimensions of the urban space to achieve specific outcomes.*

1.5.6 Vision

Every organisation or institution exist for a particular purposes. At its inception, an organisation has to have the ideal-state in mind. The ideal-state is essentially the reasons for the organisation’s existence. Typically the organisation will set out to mobilise all its resources and networks to attain defined ideal-state. In the course of its existence, the organisation will form and exploit alliances with the like-minded in favour of achieving the ideal-state. This ideal-state is commonly referred to as a vision. A well-conceived vision consists of two major components: *core ideology* and *envisioned*

future. Core ideology defines the enduring character of an organization, a consistent identity that transcends market or product life cycles, management fads, technological breakthroughs, and individual leaders. Envisioned future consists of two parts: a 10-to-30-year bold goal and vivid descriptions of what it will be like to achieve the goal (Collins & Porras, 1996: 66). The study defined a Vision as *a commonly shared picture of the future*.

1.5.7 Planning

Having defined a vision, an organisation will enter into a planning phase that seeks to bring to life its vision. Planning is largely a managerial function that involves defining the organisation's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving those goals and developing a comprehensive set of plans. Planning can take the form of either being informal or formal. The informal means not written down and short term focus whilst the formal means written, long-term focus and specific. Planning seeks to provide direction, reduce uncertainty, and set standards for controlling. The types of plans generated by an organisation fall into two broad categories, namely: strategic plans and operational plans. The strategic plans are largely long-term and directional whilst the operational plans are more short-term and specific. This study defines planning as *an act of clearly setting out the vision and mission of the organisation from which goals and objectives are defined whose attainment is elaborated in the strategy which in turn addresses areas of policy and procedures*.

1.5.8 Strategic Planning

There are many complex variables at play in the public policy and governance space. These variables include multiple and diverse political and social actors, resource availability, and the green environment. The ability to mitigate and negotiate the tensions in this space requires foresight, political agility, managerial prowess; and organisational cohesiveness. Strategic planning makes it possible to bring these elements together in a disciplined and robust process. For purposes of the study

strategic planning is defined as *the process by which leaders of an organisation establish what it seeks to be in the future and how it will get there. To put it in another way, they develop a vision for the organization's future and determine the requisite procedures, priorities, and strategies to achieve that vision* (World Bank Group: n.d.).

1.5.9 Management

Having completed the strategic planning exercise, the next step is the pursuit of the vision to get the actual work done. Management is the function through which the work is undertaken. The act of management typically consist of six functions: forecasting, planning, organising, commanding, coordinating, and controlling (Management Innovations: 2008). In essence, management is about mastering the art of getting things done. Management is essentially what managers do, at various levels of the organisation, with varying degrees of authority, scope and resources. The study defines management as *the act of engaging with an organisation's human talent and its resources to achieve desired goals and objectives*.

1.5.10 Public administration

The state is assuming an increasingly dominant role in the life of citizens. The delivery of basic services to all underpinned by universal human rights, especially the right to dignity; collection of taxes; safety of citizens; and environmental protection brings into sharp focus the role of the state. In the course of meeting its most basic functions, the state needs to codify its interventions and/or roles in the form of laws, policies and regulations. The state delivers its responsibilities through a myriad of vehicles or platforms, namely: the public sector institutions. Thornhill (1985:1) argues that public sector thus represents a group of institutions having in common some reliance on the power of the State, from which they can justify their activities, and a political conviction which assigns greater merit to collective rather than to individual action. From Thornhill's assertion, it is apparent that the adjective "public" implies invocation of the power of the state. It can further be deduced from Thornhill that there is a considerable

distinction between the public and private sector the latter has an obvious political orientation.

Thornhill (1985: 2) further argues that the endowment of State power varies from one institution to another, but it is possible to identify three broad groups. First, are those bodies which exercise the functions of government and are readily recognisable: government departments, local authorities, and similar bodies. These bodies exist to achieve predetermined goal(s) or policies. This study utilised Morrow's (1980:1) definition of administration as 'all those processes that contribute to the efficient implementation of a predetermined goal or policy. These processes could be the application of organisational, decision-making and staffing theory procedures'. Therefore, for public administration, the extent to which these processes help to resolve the public problems is examined.

1.5.11 Leadership

Leadership referred to in the problem statement makes reference to public leadership which is inclusive of political leadership (elected officials and high-level political appointees) and public service leadership (leadership for and in public service). In this study, leadership is considered an independent variable.

Chapman *et al.* (2015) notes that scholars examining public leadership have measured a variety of variables encompassing traits, styles and behaviours; however, there is a lack of convergence both empirically and theoretically that presents challenges to advancing an integrative theory or even encouraging a more coherent dialogue of what is known about public leadership. Leadership is important as both a dependent and an independent variable. However, greater emphasis on examining and understanding leadership as a dependent variable is needed to develop a sound conceptual understanding that can feed into both research and training. Many models of leadership are not prescriptive. Reframing leadership as a dependent variable could facilitate for testing and

identification of concepts that could apply across contextual and individual characteristics.

This research does not prescribe a particular definition of leadership, but accentuates the contextual circumstances. This research will not make any claim to contributing to the formulation of a theory of public leadership, but examine the City's incumbents public sector leadership in contributing towards the realisation of the GCR.

1.6 Framework of the Research

An outline of the chapters is provided below.

Chapter one: General Introduction

This chapter frames and introduces the research subject. The reader is introduced to the defining demographics and key socio-economic indicators of the Gauteng Province and the City of Tshwane. Key elements of the city-regions are also discussed. The chapter offers a brief overview of the emerging issues and trends that are likely to confront the GCR.

Chapter two: Research methodology

This chapter substantiated the research design. It describes the research followed to gather and analyse information. Furthermore, the following is discussed in detail: statement of the problem, research objectives, primary and secondary research questions, research design, significance of the study, the limitations of the study, and adopted research method.

Chapter three: The role of leadership in the emergence of city-regions

Chapter three provides a detailed theoretical grounding of the research, that is, the study is grounded in the discipline, Public Administration. The following issues are expounded upon: leadership, public administration and public policy. Furthermore,

cognisance is taken of the relevant literature associated with public administration as an activity.

Chapter four: City of Tshwane's projects in support of the emergence of city-regions

Chapter four introduces and describes in detail the four selected case studies for this research without critique. The chapter provides the rationale for the selected case studies and its relationship to attain the GCR.

Chapter five: Data and Information and Analysis

This chapter investigated the successes and/or failures of each case. For example, leadership, funding, legislative and related policy. A multiple lens of analysis was utilised to provide a thorough understanding of the impact of each case on the realisation of the GCR. Lessons that could enhance and guide GCR were explored.

Chapter six: Findings and Recommendations

Chapter six interprets the findings and identifies recommendations that could contribute towards the realisation of the GCR. The chapter further notes areas of possible future study that could significantly advance the GCR.

CHAPTER two: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

Data and methodology are inextricably interdependent. For this reason, the methodology adopted for a particular research problem must always consider the nature of the data that will be collected in the resolution of the problem (Leedy & Ormrod 2005). This chapter focussed on substantiating the adopted methods. An explanation of the specific data collection strategies was provided.

2.2 Description of the research process

Research is a process that is popularly perceived as an activity far removed from everyday living, yet some of the great discoveries that enhance the frontiers of human knowledge and well-being is a product of this activity. Research is not just a process to gather information, as occasionally suggested. Rather it is about responding to unanswered questions or formulating that which does not currently exist. In many instances research can be perceived as a process of broadening the boundaries of our ignorance. The person who believes that he/she knows everything reveals not only arrogance, but a profound ignorance (Goddard & Melville 2001). Research can either be labelled as applied or pure. Applied research is about solving a particular practical problem, whilst pure research is simply about gaining knowledge.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 2) define research as “a systematic processes of collecting, analysing, and interpreting data in order to improve our understanding of the phenomenon about which we are concerned or interested. It follows, therefore, that research originates with a question or problem. Alternatively put, what is it that we want to know? The information that one wants to know could be triggered one’s quest to answer unanswered questions and/ or unresolved problems”.

2.2.1 Statement of the Problem

City-regions have emerged as the undisputed drivers and leaders of their respective national economies (OECD 2013). Their significance is being reinforced by globalisation, migration, and urbanisation. Again, the city-region space is confronted by many challenges such as: growing unemployment, increased inequality, spatial injustice, marginalisation of the voices of the poor, growing competition among city-regions globally, environmental degradation, disparities between urban and rural areas, migrations and poor governance. Given its relative share of the South African population and the its disproportionate contribution to the GDP of the country, as recorded by Stats SA 2015, the Gauteng Province (hereafter referred to as the Province) holds the key to helping South Africa meet the targets as presented in the NDP. However, for this to happen, the province needs to organise itself differently with regard to coordination and co-operation of the programmes of the Gauteng Provincial Government and the municipalities within. This will require a fundamental rethink of the institutional, spatial, and administrative design of the Gauteng space. The establishment of the GCR is one plausible way of offering the proposed rethink. The successful realisation of the GCR requires bold and visionary leadership at a political and administrative level across the three spheres of government. Given the constitutional arrangements in South Africa, the desire of realising a fully functional GCR is a function of the extent to which there is buy-in by the province and municipal spheres of government within. The City of Tshwane leadership demonstrated an unparalleled commitment to the idea of the GCR and has initiated a number of programmes that helps to advance its realisation.

Research question

This study, therefore, seeks to examine the extent to which the City of Tshwane leadership has contributed towards the realisation of the GCR. Therefore, the guiding research question of this study is:

What are the leadership requirements needed to realise the Gauteng City-Region?

2.2.1.1 Sub-Problems

It is apparent from the problem statement above, that this study would be better served if it is disaggregated. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 51) note that “most research problems are too large or complex to be solved without subdividing them. The strategy, therefore, is to divide and conquer. Almost every problem can be broken down into smaller units. From a research standpoint, these units are easier to address and resolve. The subparts of the main problem are called sub-problem...”. Aurini, Heath and Howells (2016) further advise that ‘though not required, each master question may be followed up with three or four sub-questions that are intimately tied to it and the subsequent data collection strategy. While the master questions tend to be more open and broad, sub-questions are not the place where you get to articulate every single question you ever had about the project’. In order to help navigate towards resolving our guiding research question, the sub-problems for this research would endeavour to fulfil the following characteristics:

- Each sub-problem will be a completely researchable unit. The sub-problem constitutes a logical subarea of the larger research problem and it can be researched as a separate subproject within the larger research goal.
- Each sub-problem is clearly tied to the interpretation of the data.
- The sub-problems will add up to the totality of the problem. The sum total of the answers to the sub-problems will bring us closer to resolving the overarching research problem.

Having due consideration of the above characteristics, the following constitutes the sub-problems to the larger research problem of this study:

- What are the statutory roles and functions of a Metro in the context of South Africa?
- What are the characteristic features of the Gauteng City-Region?
- What is the place of the City of Tshwane in the Gauteng City-region?
- What are the global trends of the city-regions?
- What type of leadership approach guided the leadership of the City of Tshwane in formulating the programmes that enhanced the GCR?
- What are the legislative and/or policy impediments that undermined the City of Tshwane's programmes in contributing fully towards the realisation of the GCR?

2.3 Research design and approach

A research design is about the general approach to solve the research problem. It provides the overall structure for the procedures that will be followed in this research, the data to be collected and conduct data analysis. The research design could be similar across disciplines, but the specific methods of collecting and analysing data varies across academic disciplines. In planning the research design, it is very important not only to select a viable research problem but also consider the kinds of data that an enquiry of the problem will require and the feasible means of collecting and interpreting the data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

2.3.1 Research design

Principally, there are three types of research designs, namely: Qualitative Research, Quantitative Research and Mixed Methods Research. Creswell (2009:3) offers the following definitions for each research design:

- Qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data by typically collected in the

participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher providing interpretations of the meaning of the data. The final report has a flexible structure. Those who engage in this form of examination support a way of looking at research that honours an inductive style, a focus on individual meaning and the significance of rendering the complexity of a situation

- Quantitative research is a means to test objective theories by evaluating the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures. The final report has a structure consisting of introduction, literature and theory, methods, results, and discussion. Like qualitative researchers, those who engage in this form of inquiry have assumptions about testing theories deductively, building in protections against bias, controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generate and replicate findings.
- Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms. It involves philosophical assumptions, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the mixing of both approaches in a study. Thus, it is more than simply collecting and analysing both kinds of data; it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research.

In Table 4 below, Kelly, Bennett and Moore (2002 cited in McNabb 2013: 122) contrast the two research designs.

Table 4: Comparison of the research preferences

Quantitative Preferences	Qualitative Preferences
Precise hypothesis and definitions stated at the outset	Hypothesis and definitions that emerge as study develops
Data reduced to numerical scores	Data as narrative description
Focus on assessing and improving reliability of scores obtained from instruments	Reliability of inference is often assumed to be adequate
Assessment of validity with reliance on statistical indices	Validity assessed through cross-checking sources of information (triangulation)
Random selection samples	Recruitment of expert informants for sample
Precise description procedures	Narrative/literary description of processes
Statistical control of extraneous variables	Logical analysis in controlling or accounting for extraneous variables
Specific design control for procedural bias (procedural and measurement integrity checks)	Reliance on researcher to deal with procedural bias (integrity checks are still critical)
Statistical summary of results	Narrative summary of results
Breaking down of complex phenomena into specific parts for analysis	Holistic description of complex phenomena
Willingness to manipulate aspects,	Unwillingness to tamper with naturally

<p>situations, or conditions in studying complex phenomena</p>	<p>occurring phenomena</p>
--	----------------------------

The qualitative design was considered suitable for the purpose of this study. The study aimed to explain on why leadership is indispensable for the GCR without claiming to offer mere descriptions. The study sought to produce explanations and/or arguments which have some demonstrable wider resonance or are generalisable in some way. In contrast to quantitative design, the study did not rely on standardised instruments or tools that can be tested for reliability or can be neutrally applied. It is for these reasons that the qualitative design is chosen for our study. It should also be noted that the research does not endeavour to test a theory (deductive); it examines the lessons, issues and proposed future options. Ravitch and Carl (2016:7) assert that “qualitative research, broadly, is based on the methodological pursuit of understanding the ways people see, view, approach and experience the world and make meaning of their experiences as well as specific phenomena within it”. Peshkin (1993 cited in Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 134) further substantiate the appropriateness of employing qualitative research studies by arguing that they “typically serve one or more of the following purposes:

- Description. Can expose the nature of certain settings, situations, processes, systems, relationships, or people.
- Interpretation. Enable a researcher to (a) gain new insights about a particular phenomenon, (b) develop new concepts or theoretical perspectives about the phenomenon and/or (c) discover the problems that exist within the phenomenon.
- Verification. Allow a researcher to test the validity of certain assumptions, claims, theories, or generalisations within real-world contexts.
- Evaluation. Provide a means through which a researcher can judge the

effectiveness of particular policies, practices, or innovations”.

As a general rule, qualitative studies do not allow the researcher to identify cause-effect relationships and attempt to answer questions such as what caused specific outcomes? One would require quantitative research, especially experimental studies, to respond to questions of this nature. In this study, the research results were utilised to explore the requisite leadership imperatives for the GCR by drawing lessons from the leadership of the City to execute certain programmes. In essence, the research attempted to reveal the conduct and orientation of the leadership of the City in advancing an emerging governance practice in the form of the GCR. Therefore, this descriptive as defined by Peshkin above. This research is conducted within the academic discipline of Public Administration. It is generally accepted that Public Administration research has to do with its applied nature. Ricucci (2010, cited in Van Thiel 2014: 4) note that “being a relatively young discipline, Public Administration and research typically concentrates on finding solutions to topical issues in the public sector. Over time, reference to the public sector has grown in scope, to refer much more than just government, in the form of elected officials and civil servants”.

The emergence of an assertive and globally coordinated rights movement, the scope of the public sector has expanded to include such bodies as civic movements, non-profit organisations and state owned enterprises. Therefore, with this expanded scope of public sector actors, it implies that Public Administration research concerns itself with an even wider body of subjects. Van Thiel (2007: 5) asserts that “Public Administration focuses more on finding solutions to everyday problems rather than developing new or big theories. If one adds the fact that many of its study subjects are unique – which makes generalised, theoretical advancement difficult at any rate – it will be clear that research in Public Administration is more often practical in nature than theory-oriented”.

2.3.2 Research approach

A key feature of the research design is the choice of which strategy to follow and what methods and techniques to apply. Van Thiel (2014: 58), as per Table 5 below provides an overview of the strategies and desirability for the type of research problem.

Table 5: Characteristics of the four primary research strategies

Strategy	Research Problem	Number of Units	Number of variables
Experiment	Explain, test, evaluate	Small	Small
Survey	Describe, test, diagnose	Large	Large
Case Study	Explore, describe, diagnose, design, evaluate	Small	Large
Desk Research	All	Varies	Varies

There is limited literature on public leadership requirements in a city-region. There is, however, extensive literature that expands on the origins and content of the city-region. The majority of the available research work focused on the city-regions in the global North. However, recently, there has been an attempt to detail the institutional contours of city-regions in the global South, largely the cities in Asia and South America.

The only significant work documented on the emergence and features of the city-region on the continent of Africa is the GCR. Reputable organisations such as the OECD, Mckinsey, Statistics South Africa, South African Cities Network, Gauteng City Region Observatory and UN Habitat, have in one form or the other, provided a thorough

treatment of the relevance and/or significance of the GCR. These bodies also made a case for the establishment of the GCR through research work that highlights the contribution of the latter towards the growth of both the South African and African economies, and its potential to help reconfigure the democratic space. Some of the works examine both the opportunities and/or complexities of this dynamic urban space.

The availability of wide-ranging information on city-region implies that the Desk Research Strategy would be the most effective and efficient one to adopt in the pursuit of responding to the research question. To further reinforce the nature of the complexities of the GCR, the research examined four case studies. Stake (1995, cited in Creswell 2009: 13) states that “case studies are a strategy of examination in which the researcher explores in depth an event, program, activity, process, or one or more individuals. Cases are bounded in time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over sustained period of time”.

The following four cases were studied:

- *The introduction of public free-WiFi in the City of Tshwane.* This project has as its principal goal, the provision of public free and universal access of the internet for the residents of the City.
- *The inception of the Kuka Maoto programme.* This programme intends to improve service delivery responsiveness, transparency, and accountability of the executive of the City to its citizens; and deepen the City’s democratic space.
- *The roll-out of A Re Yeng.* This is the City’s version of the bus rapid transport that is intended to help reconfigure the City’s space through the provision of affordable, efficient, reliable, safe, and integrated public transport system.
- *Tshepo-10k.* This is a youth programme that is aimed at helping to alleviate youth unemployment, and aid initiatives to harvest the demographic dividend by providing vocational skills and entrepreneurship opportunities to ten thousand (10 000) young people aged between 21 and 35 years living in the City of Tshwane using the City’s fiscus.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 136) advise that if one conducts a case study, one would include the following in the report:

- A basis for studying the case. Explain why a comprehensive study of the case is necessary.
- A thorough description of the facts related to the case. Should describe the specific program(s), individual(s), or event(s) one studied, as well as the revealing and any other uncontested facts about the case.
- A description of the data collected. Convey to the readers what observations were made, whom was interviewed, and what material was examined.
- A discussion of the patterns established. A description of themes, personality characteristics, trends, which the data suggest. On the back of this, interpretations of the facts follows. Sustain each pattern identified with enough evidence to convince the reader that the pattern does, in fact, accurately portray the data. A description of contradictory data to the proposed pattern should also be discussed.
- A connection to the big picture. One needs to answer the question, so what? In what way does the case study contribute to the knowledge about some aspect of the human experience? The connection(s) one establishes here might take one or more of several forms. One could compare the case with others, previously reported cases and identify similarities and dissimilarities. One might argue that the case either supports or disconfirms an existing hypothesis or theory. Or one might use the case to support your contention that a particular intervention- perhaps a medical treatment, teaching method, or campaign strategy- can be a highly effective one.

The research endeavoured to explore the guidance provided by Leedy and Ormrod above. The research examined the rationale and description of the facts related to each case in Chapter 4; and the discussion and analysis of each case in Chapter 5.

2.3.3 Selected data analysis

There are three methods to gather and analyse existing data namely: content analysis, secondary analysis and meta-analysis (Van Thiel 2014: 107). Content analysis can be used to establish facts and opinions; and to reconstruct the argument used in the text. Secondary analysis includes using statistical data; this method is especially suitable for deductive or hypothesis-testing forms of research. Meta-analysis method transcends the level of just one piece of research, and utilises several previously conducted studies. Van Thiel (2014: 113) notes that in a meta-analysis study, the results of all kinds of existing research – inductive or deductive, different strategies and methods, collecting qualitative or quantitative data – are brought together, with the aim of arriving at new conclusions. In this instance, the gathering and analysing of data was a combination of content and meta-analysis methods.

Baxter and Jack (2008) note that “a major feature of case study research is the use of multiple data sources, a strategy which also enhances data credibility. Potential data sources may include, but are not limited to archival records, documentation, interviews, direct observations, physical artefacts, and participant-observation. Unique in comparison to other qualitative approaches, within case study research, researchers can collect and integrate quantitative survey data, which facilitates reaching a holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied”. In case study research, data from these multiple sources is converged in the analysis process rather than managed individually. Each data source is one piece of the “puzzle,” and each piece contributes towards the researcher’s understanding of the whole phenomenon. This convergence adds strength to the findings as the various strands of data are braided together to promote a greater understanding of the case (Patton 1990; Yin 2003).

2.4 Limitations of the study

It is important to note the limitations of this research so that the reader has sufficient appreciation of the context to adequately evaluate the impact and relevance of the

conclusions arrived at. How to write about your study limitations without limiting your impact (2015) advises that “experience has shown that many authors are reluctant to write about their limitations because they feel it weakens their study and is pointing out flaws others may not have noticed. It should be accepted that limitations are a part of science, so it’s better to be upfront about them”.

Therefore, this section of the study highlighted the limitations that could potentially restrict some of the conclusions arrived at. It is instructive to state that having been the Executive Mayor of the City of Tshwane for the period September 2010 to August 2016, one has been at the coalface of the discussions to realise a GCR. I am essentially a participant observer. Therefore, a real danger exists in me not interpreting the data through objective lenses, i.e. introducing bias in the study. To address the possible bias, data provided by statutory bodies such as Statistics South Africa, reputable and independent institutions such as the GCRO, the OECD, National Treasury (NT), and South African Cities Network including public assertions by the various political principals other than the author was relied upon. The research topic intends to focus on the issues, trends and future options associated with the leadership imperatives in the GCR. It is important to note that the concept of the city-region is well-established in many parts of Europe and Northern America. There are emerging city-regions in parts of Asia, Latin and South America due to the size of their population; share of the national GDP in the respective countries; and dynamic interaction with the neighbouring hinterlands. However, no geographic spaces have organised themselves (either organically or as creation of statue) as city-regions in sub-Saharan Africa. However, literature on Lagos makes reference hereto, but the country is not a city-region as argued. The size and expansive geography of a city does not necessarily translate into a city-region.

It should also be noted that this research does not attempt to prescribe the reach, catchment or outer-boundaries of the GCR. This research departs from the counsel offered by Ellingsen and Leknes (2012: 227) that “in approaching and understanding the

development of city-regions, we isolate three main dimensions: the conceptual level, evident from the constant reiteration and the narratives of this spatial imagination; materiality in terms of objects and bounded territory; and practice, in the sense that a region has to be practiced in order to become meaningful. In this regard, practice refers not only to the institutionalised form of organising a region, but also to the everyday practices of, for example, commuting and shopping”.

If the counsel of Ellingsen and Leknes were to be strictly adhered to in examining the GCR, then a complete study will be necessary. Therefore, this research does not venture into finding an ideal configuration of a city-region; it considers the GCR as described in the GCRO as a given. The idea of city-regions has evolved extensively. Healey (2007: 4) notes that Twentieth Century regional planners and development analysts in Europe have repeatedly turned to the idea that “functional” realities should be aligned with administrative jurisdictions, to create planning areas – city regions, metropolitan regions, functional urban areas, etc. which contain within them the critical relations upon which the future development trajectories of settlement depend. Before twentieth century urbanisation, municipality or city commune appear to provide such correspondence. By the mid-Twentieth Century as urban infrastructures and communications networks spread across national landscapes, urban relations exploded beyond municipal boundaries, generating all kinds of proposals to create larger administrative arenas to correspond with perceived “functional” city region.

It is evident that the argument for the proposed GCR follows the twentieth century regional planners approach to determine the coverage of city-region. This is an uncritical engagement with the city-region space economy. As mentioned, this study does not venture into the management of the objective boundaries of the GCR. This study will argue that there are material differences in the challenges and opportunities presented by urbanisation and globalisation in the global South and global north and more specifically, on the African continent and sub-Saharan region. There is limited literature dedicated to the critic of the evolution of the city-regions in sub-Sahara.

Consequently, there is limited statistical information in relation to the development of city-regions in sub-Saharan Africa. Finally, this study is limited to the period May 2011 to August 2016. This period is relevant because it marks the third Administration of the City. The idea of the GCR gained considerable momentum in 2008 when the GCRO was established. The 2008 marks the mid-term of the second Administration of the City, therefore, the second Administration would have had limited or no time to incorporate the idea of the GCR in its plans. It is the actions or inaction of the third Administration that would provide a more accurate indication of the City's commitment to the GCR project.

2.5 Ethical considerations

The data for the study was exclusively from official, published and authorised documents, public speeches, and public information. The data was sourced from public organisations such as the City of Tshwane, Gauteng Provincial Government, National Treasury, research bodies such as Stats SA and SACN; and international bodies such as the OECD and the World Bank. There was no physical contact and/or interviews conducted for this study. The study acknowledges the sources of data throughout the study.

2.6 Summary

This chapter outlined the research design and methodology adopted for this study. More significantly, utilisation of a qualitative research design was considered appropriate for this research. The utilisation of the case study research method was found to be the most appropriate to respond to the overarching research question. No interviews will be conducted during this research and draw information and data from official documents, research information from reputable organisations and publicly available speeches by the principal political actors. Information on the GCR approach will also be drawn from documents originated during the post-Apartheid dispensation, 1994. It should be noted that the researcher is a participant observer in this study.

There is a need to anchor the research within the discipline of Public Administration.
What follows, is a thorough literature search to ground the theory of the study.

CHAPTER three: THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE EMERGENCE OF CITY-REGIONS

3.1 Introduction

Leadership is about directing human effort and organising resources to achieve the objective(s). Succeeding in achieving the set objectives is a function of the degree to which a person is able to motivate his/her team, instil confidence and high levels of motivation amongst his/her team members. This general observation about leadership is applicable to both the public and private sector. The study is concerned with examining the leadership question in relation to attaining the GCR, hence locate interest in leadership in the public sector realm. Public Administration is, broadly speaking, the study and implementation of policy. As a moral endeavour, public administration is linked to pursuing the public good through the creation of civil society and social justice. The adjective 'public' often denotes 'government', though it increasingly encompasses non-profit organisations such as those of civil society or entity and its management not especially acting in self-interest (Gatwech 2015). To achieve the set goals in the public domain, a leader invariably needs to perform the planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting functions. These functions are commonly captured in the acronym POSDCORB. Public administrators indicated that the traditional activities summarised by POSDCORB fully explain the purpose and processes of their work (Chalekian 2013). It is for this reason, that the study is located in the discipline of Public Administration.

Policy choices are central to the realisation of the GCR. It is for this reason that the concept of leadership, in particular the public sector leadership is investigated. The emerging global public policy issues of urbanisation and globalisation are a key factor in the reorganisation of the power and economic relations at the a subnational level. They are some of the principal influencers of the city-regions. It is for this reason that urbanisation and globalisation is scrutinised in this chapter. Relevant aspects of the

South African planning and legislative framework, the Constitution and the NDP are examined to the extent that these aid the realisation of the GCR.

Creswell (2009: 25) suggests that 'literature review accomplishes several purposes. It shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the one being undertaken. It relates a study to the larger, ongoing dialogue in the literature, filling the gaps and extending prior studies. It provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study as well as a benchmark for comparing the results with other findings. All or some of these reasons may be the foundation for writing the scholarly literature into a study'. There is no dedicated scholarly literature that examines how Gauteng-based cities can help shape and influence the GCR. Work has been conducted by the GCRO that seeks to inform the complexion and orientation of the GCR without mapping how to arrive at such an end-state.

3.2 Public Administration: An analysis

The NDP represents a seminal and yet comprehensive articulation of a commonly shared representation of future democratic South Africa. It serves as a broad strategic framework that specifies a coherent and holistic approach to approaching poverty and inequality in South Africa. The NDP contends that the creation of a developmental state is a minimum and indispensable requirement for its successful realisation. Furthermore, it is also asserted in the NDP (2012: 54) that 'a developmental state needs to be capable, but a capable state does not materialise by decree, nor can it be legislated or waved into existence by declarations. It has to be built, brick by brick, institution by institution, and sustained and rejuvenated over time. It requires leadership, sound policies, skilled managers and workers, clear lines of accountability, appropriate systems, and consistent and fair application of rules.

The governing party in South Africa, the African National Congress (2017: 12) asserts that “the attributes of the South African developmental state we seek to build include visionary acumen in terms of long-term orientation; ideational capacity reflected in the legitimacy to lead and mobilise society behind set objectives; organisational systems that ensure that the state is able to meet its objectives; and technical capacity residing in a bureaucracy that is professional and capacitated to translate policies into practical programmes and projects”. What is apparent from both the NDP and the ANC is that the developmental state is the primary vehicle for the realisation of a just and prosperous society. An understanding of the public policy environment; the organisation and the interrelationships of the various systems that constitutes the state are key variables for the birth of a developmental state. These variables are also constituent elements of public administration.

3.2.1 Defining Public Administration

Public administration must be analysed in its context. In one way, Public Administration as a field of study is constructed by theories that place it in context, particularly for government institutions. In certain situations, scholars find it difficult to comprehend the original terminology or the framework of public administration, including the role and meaning of the state and government. It is also important to understand public administration, its meaning as well as its boundaries because the activity (public administration), by its nature, differs from private or business administration. In its original analysis, the term administration originates from a Latin word *administrare*, which means to serve, or to attend to someone’s needs. Furthermore, public refers to something that has to do with general, common and national interest (Lungu, 1997 cited in Siswana 2007: 48).

The term administration is generic in nature. Consequently, it is exercised in any public or private institutions that intends to realise its common objectives. Administration refers to operations executed by individuals in any organisation to attain targeted results. This study is rooted in the public domain, therefore it inspires the notion of public administration. Explicitly, public administration is conducted only in government institutions (Pruthi 2005: 2). Cayer (2003 cited in Sheoraj 2015: 65) asserts that “the nature of public administration has been the subject of much debate. In particular, questions relate to whether it is an art, craft, science, profession, field of study or discipline. While there has been a great deal of debate over these issues, there are few definitive agreements or answers to the debates”. Rosenbloom (1993) reinforces the aforementioned view and posits that public administration, like many human endeavours, is difficult to define. Nonetheless, we all have sense of what it is, though we may disagree profoundly about how it should be carried out. In part, this is because public administration covers vast amount of activity.

Kirkhart (1972) argues that the question of what Public Administration is more pronounced in that “this problem is particularly acute because one of the most striking features of Public Administration is its lack of conceptual boundaries. The only theme that consistently recurs in the literature which attempts to define Public Administration is a concern for organisation questions. In part, this problem is a consequence of the dominant role that political scientists played in the inception and development of Public Administration”. Henry (1980: 26) holds that public administration is a broad-ranging and amorphous combination of theory and practice. The purpose is to promote a superior understanding of government and its relationship with society it governs, as well as to encourage public policies more responsive to social needs and to institute managerial practices attuned to effectiveness, efficiency, and the deeper human requisites of citizenry.

Public Administration is a concept utilised to represent the study of selected practices associated with the behaviour, conduct and protocol of the state's administrative affairs (Kuye 2005: 5). Naidu (2005: 4) contends that Public Administration is the study of the management of public agencies that carry out public policies in order to fulfil the state's purpose in the public interest. Fry (1989: 78) argues that public administration refers to two distinguishable but closely related activities. It refers on the one hand to the administration or management of matters which have principally to do with society, politics, and its subparts which are not essentially private, commercial, or individualistic. On the other hand, it refers to the disciplined study of such matters. In this simplest meaning, public administration has to do with managing the realm of governmental and other public activities. This simple definition conveys the essence of public administration and probably includes the vast majority of activities and concerns of contemporary public administration.

Botes and Roux (1996 cited in Siswana 2007) note that the subject of Public Administration can denote both the science aspect of it (with capital letters) as well as an art (with lower-case letters) to denote the field of operation for practitioners, which in itself is the primary study focus area for Public Administration scholars. Public Administration is thus concerned with scholarly research about implementation of government policy by practitioners, alternatively known as public officials. Hanekom and Thornhill (1983: 176), in their analysis of the term public administration conclude that 'public' implies that administration is not concealed, it is open to all, and the opposite of the private administration that affects society. Cayer (2003: 39) focuses on the complex interaction of human attributes and the external environment and posits that in public administration, the administrators deal not only with those people who make up the organisation but must also work with the interested members of political environments. Included are the elected political leaders, citizens, interest groups, and clients of organisations. These elements of the political environment affect the ability of the organisation to accomplish its purpose. Along with the internal human interaction, these external elements create ever-changing, often perplexing settings for public

administration. Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991: 2) define public administration as that “system of structures and processes’, operating within a particular society as environment with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy, and the efficient execution of the formulated policy. From this perspective, public administration establishes a bond between the society, public policy and government as key players by using structures and processes accurately. Therefore, public administration without people’s involvement in public policy formulation and implementation, and the government’s use of its structures and processes, is a fallacy”.

Jreisat (2012: 112) suggests that “Public administration is fully engaged in the various phases of public policy process. Public administration embraces the policy objectives, participates in their formulation, and employs its resources for achieving these policy objectives. It is further noted that the challenge from theory and practice is how to integrate the various elements of setting policy goals, deciding means of implementation and designing rules for monitoring and regulating these functions”. Rosenbloom and Kravchuk (2009: 5) define Public Administration as the use of managerial, political, and legal theories and processes to fulfil legislative, executive, and judicial mandates for the provision of governmental regulatory and service functions. What a government accomplishes for a society depends on what policies it formulates and adopts, and how effectively these are put into practice (Coetzee 1988: 45). Government is involved in almost everything people do because it is the ultimate provider of services that keeps society together and the final arbiter that ensures the activities of one person are not detrimental to another. Government tries to stabilise the environment and maintain social cohesion and social tranquillity. It creates the structure of civility and civil order (Cayer 2003: 37).

White (2015: 69) defines public administration as the management of men and materials in the accomplishment of the purposes of the state. This definition emphasises the managerial phase of administration and minimises its legalistic and formal aspect. It relates to the conduct of government business to the conduct of the

affairs of any other social organisation, commercial, philanthropic, religious, or educational, in all of which good management is recognised as an element essential to successes. Peters and Pierre (2007: 4) enhance the aforementioned definition by White and advise that public administration must be largely realised by bargaining and governing through instruments such as effective communication and contracts, rather than relying on direct authorities to achieve government goals.

According to Kuye *et al.* (2002: 5) “public administration is a term used to mean the study of selective practice of the tasks associated with the behaviour, conduct and protocol of the affairs of the administrative state”. Coetzee (1988 cited in Sheoraj 2015: 66) suggests that public administration is concerned with the execution of the laws, rules and regulations of the government of the country. Public administration is also concerned with policy formulation and execution. Public administration deals with the formulation and implementation of governmental and other public programmes and the management of organisations and activities involved. Public administration requires the co-ordination of all organised activities, having as its purpose the implementation of public policy. The co-ordination of organised activity is common to all administrative endeavours, private and public, and the implementation of public policy are key factors within this understanding of public administration. Human co-operation and joint effort are perceived as critical in implementing government policies in particular (Gortner 1981: 5).

Public administration does comprise activity, because it is concerned with the politics and policy-making, and tends to be concentrated in the executive branch of government. However, it differs from private administration, and is concerned with implementing the law (Rosenbloom 1993: 6). Emmerich (n.d.) asserts that in its broadest context, the practice of public administration embraces all executive acts, subject to political control, performed by public agencies, officials, or employees. It would exclude purely political acts such as running for office, collegial action in debate, and voting in legislative assemblies. Public administration contributes towards both the

shaping and execution of policies (policies which find expression in laws, rules and regulations). It must be remembered, though, that the law is merely printed paper. Thus, the task of public administration is to translate the print of statute books into varied behaviour by individual members of society, i.e. to convert words into action, form into substance (Coetzee 1988:16).

Pruthi (2005: 2) maintains that Public Administration is a specialised field. It essentially deals with the machinery and procedures of government activities. It is public leadership of public affairs directly responsible for executive action. In a democracy, it has to do with such leadership and executive action in terms that respect and contribute to the dignity, the worth, and the potentialities of the citizen (Appleby 1979: 8). The subject of dignity resulted in the emergence of what is referred to as “New Public Administration”. The rationale for Public Administration is almost always better (more efficient or economical) management. New Public Administration adds social equity to the classic objectives and rationale. Conventional or classic Public Administration seeks to respond to either of these questions: (1) how can we offer more or better services with available resources (efficiency)? Alternatively, (2) how can we maintain our level of services while spending less money (economy)? New Public Administration adds this question: Does this service enhance social equity? (Frederickson (2015: 283).

To have a complete appreciation of the public administration dilemma and the associated difficulty in shaping a unified definition, it is useful to examine its evolution as an academic field through five overlapping models/paradigms.

3.2.2 Paradigms or models of Public Administration

Public Administration has developed as an academic field through a succession of five overlapping paradigms. Each phase may be characterised according to whether it has a locus or focus. Locus is the institutional ‘where’ of the field. A recurring locus of public administration is the government bureaucracy, but this has not always been the case and often this traditional locus has been blurred. Focus is the specialised ‘what’ of the

field. One of the foci of public administration has been the study of certain principles of administration, however, the disciplines foci has been distorted with the changing paradigm of public administration. The paradigms of public administration may be understood in terms of locus and focus. One has been relatively sharply defined in academic circles, the other has been conceptually ignored and *vice versa* (Henry 1980: 27).

3.2.2.1 Paradigm 1: The politics/administration dichotomy, 1900-1926

The rise of Public Administration can, in no small measure, be ascribed to the rise of the self-consciousness of the discipline of Political Science, evidenced by the creation of the American Political Science Association (APSA) in 1903. Individuals who might be referred to as founding fathers of Public Administration were trained as political scientists and tended to the discipline as part of a sub-discipline of Political Science. However, 1900 is generally recognised as the starting point of the separation between politics and administration (Coetzee 1988: 35). This era was inaugurated by Woodrow Wilson with his article "*The study of public administration*", published in 1887 in *Political science quarterly* (Coetzee 1988: 34). Bitonio (2013) further argues that the locus of Public Administration should be the centre of government's bureaucracy. Wilson, in his pioneering book in 1926, "Introduction to PA" made critical assumptions that formed the basis on the study of Public Administration: (a) Administration is unitary process that can be studied uniformly, at the federal, state and local levels; (b) the basis for study is management, not law; (c) Administration is still an art but the ideal of transference to a science is both feasible and worthwhile; (d) Administration has become the heart of the problem of modern government.

The key assumption and strategy during this epistemological period was the idea to separate politics and the administrative functions of government as a strategy to promote efficiency and effectiveness. The period also believed that administration of the public sector differed from administration in the private sector. During this period, it was

believed that as a strategy to promote efficiency and effectiveness in managing government, there had to be a clear distinction between those involved in politics to who were charged with the business of administration. This period was one in which the extension of administrative practice was believed to be a necessary step in improving government (Basheka 2012: 35).

Bitonio (2013) advises that this paradigm provided the rationale for PA to be an academic discipline and professional specialty. Wilson was credited for positing the existence of major distinction between Politics/Administration and what became known as P/A dichotomy. The role of politics has something to do with policies or the expressions of the will of state while administration, with execution. The phrase that came to symbolise this distinction between politics and administration was, “there is no Republican way to build a road”. The reasoning was that there could only be one “right” way to spread tarmac – the administrative engineer’s way (Henry 1980: 29). In essence the emphasis of Paradigm 1 was on locus – where public administration should be.

In 1926, Public Administration obtained academic legitimacy with the publication of Leonard D. White’s *Introduction to the study of public administration* – the first text book devoted solely to the field. The text, *inter alia*, reflected the general thrust of the field, which politics should not intrude on administration; that management lends itself to scientific study; and that public administration is capable of becoming a value-free science in its own right (Coetzee 1988: 36). The arguments in White’s text book laid the foundation for the principles of administration.

3.2.2.2 Paradigm 2: The principles of administration, 1927 – 1937

In 1927, W.F. Willoughby’s book, *Principles of Public Administration* was published as the second fully fledged text in the field. Although Willoughby’s *Principles* was fully American Progressive in tone as White’s *Introduction*, as the title alone indicated the new thrust of public administration: that certain scientific principles of administration

existed; they could be discovered; and administrators would be expert in their work if they learned how to apply these principle (Henry 1980: 31). Coetzee (1988: 37) observes that the word ‘principles’ in the title of Willoughby’s book was an important doctrinal aspect of Public Administration in its founding years. A principle was “a guide to good efficient administration, a light thrown by research and logic on present and future problems.

During this period, it was claimed that public administration had matured to become a science. As such, there was a belief that certain ‘scientific principles’ (or proverbs as Herbert Simon Later called them) of administration that could be relied upon to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of government existed. The period saw a number of public administration scholars provide what they believed constituted the core administrative principles that could shape the discipline, Public Administration. It was believed that the ‘principles’ of administration worked in any administrative setting regardless of sector, culture, function, environment, mission or institutional framework (Basheka 2012). The development of Public Administration between world wars was the period of high noon of orthodoxy. The tenets of orthodoxy held that: (a). True democracy and true efficiency are synonymous or at least reconcilable; (b). the work of government could be neatly divided into decision-making and execution; and (c). Public Administration is a science with discoverable principles (Bitonio 2013).

The “high-noon of orthodoxy,” of public administration was marked by in 1937 by Luther H. Gulick and Lyndall Urwick’s publication of *Papers on the Science of Administration*. This landmark study also marked the high noon of prestige for public administration (Henry 1980, p. 32). To accentuate the principles of administration or functions of those engaged in administration, Gulick and Urwick formulated the acronym POSDCORB, representing Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating, Reporting and Budgeting. The emphasis fell on the focus of Public Administration as an academic discipline (Coetzee 1988). The phenomenon known as administration can also be divided into six primary groups of function, namely: policy-making, organising, financing,

staffing, determination of work procedures and the exercise of control over the progress being made to ensure that the objective will be attained (Cloete 1981: 34). Planning can be defined as the act of outlining a series of steps executed to achieve and identify goals or acquire a desired result. It is the means by which purpose is translated into programmes and includes the identification of key controllable items that are to be manipulated to achieve organisational objectives (Lerner 1992: 56).

The organising, staffing, leading and controlling functions stem from the planning function. The manager is ready to organise and staff only after goals and plans to reach the objectives have been implemented. In the controlling function, the determination of whether or not goals are being accomplished and standards met is based on the planning function. The planning function provides the goals and standards that drive the controlling function (Lerner 1992: 56). These principles have to date had a lasting impact on the management and administrative discourse. Basu (1994 cited in Basheka 2012: 42) informs us that ‘the main reason for the interest in administration, at least in the USA, was that following the catastrophic years of the Great Depression in the 1930s, the functions of the government had so rapidly multiplied that there were not enough skilled government personnel to fill the welfare departments newly created under the New Deal. Schools of administration were established quickly to train as many men and women as possible, in the techniques of administration’.

Mooney and Reiley (1939, cited in Basheka 2012: 43) set out a number of common principles which relate to all types of organisations. They gave particular attention to (1) the principle of co-ordination – the need for people to act together with unity of action; (2) the exercise of authority and the need for discipline; (3) the scalar principle – the hierarchy of organisation, the grading of duties and the process of delegation; and (4) the functional principle – specialisation and the distinction between different kinds of duties. In the 1940s the discipline was subjected to searching criticism of its core beliefs, and heterodoxy came to replace orthodoxy. The criticism and new orienting ideas were clearly foreshadowed in the 1930s. In 1936 there had appeared *The*

frontiers of public administration, a series of essays by John M. Gaus, Leonard D. White, and Marshall E. Dimock, in which these prominent figures of the orthodox period introduced points of view later to become important.

A number of scholars began to question the assumption that politics and administration could be dichotomised. They were emphatic in their assertion: was it worth to discern the difference between politics and public administration, if, in reality, there was none? Was the underpinning politics/administration dichotomy of the field at best naïve? (Bapuji 1988: 391). Another equally powerful attack on the principles appears is the argument that the development of universal principles of administration was hindered by the obstructions of values contending for pre-eminence in organisations, differences in individual personalities, and the social frameworks that varied from culture (Bapuji 1988: 393). Henry (1980: 36) concludes that by mid-century the two defining pillars of public administration the politics/administration dichotomy and the principles of administration had been abandoned by creative intellects in the field. This abandonment left public administration bereft of a distinct epistemological identity. Some would argue that an identity has yet to be found. Hebert A. Simon in an essay entitled “A comment on ‘the science’ of public administration” offered an alternative new paradigm for public administration. For example, he suggested that there ought to be two kinds of public administrationists i.e. “working stimulation: those scholars concerned with developing a pure science of administration” based on “a thorough grounding in social psychology”, and a larger group concerned with “prescribing for public policy” (Coetzee 1988: 39).

Simon’s call for a “pure science of public administration” and “prescribing for public policy” has added to the irritation already existing in the field on account of its “pure science” claims. Furthermore, his rational decision-making models had slipped into the hands of economic practitioners in governmental business whose aim is the maximisation of profits (Bapuji 1988: 393). Moreover, developments soon followed: political scientists began to resist the growing independence of public administrationists and, in 1952, Roscoe Martin published an article in the *American political science*

review, calling for the continued “dominion of political science over public administration” (Coetzee 1988: 39).

3.2.2.3 Paradigm 3: Public Administration as political science, 1950-1970

Bapuji (1988: 393) notes that the discipline of Public Administration entered the Post World War II era with lot of intellectual uneasiness and the epistemological weakness surrounded by icy conceptual critiques. As a consequence, the emerging trend attempted to take back the field into the fold of the mother discipline of political science. Henry (1980: 38) confirms this observation by noting that public administrationists leaped back with some alacrity into the mother discipline of political science. The result was renewed definition of locus-the government bureaucracy-but a corresponding loss of focuses. Bitonio (2013) notes that political scientist began to resist the growing independence of PA rather than advocating a public service and an executive preparatory program, they began calling for “intellectualised understanding” of the executive branch rather than “knowledgeable action” on the part of public administrators. The political science discipline was in constant throes of being shaken conceptually by the behavioural revolution that has occurred in other social sciences. Henry (1980) contends that “the third phase of definition was largely an exercise in re-establishing the conceptual linkages between public administration and political science. But the consequence of this exercise was to “define away” the field, at least in terms of its analytical focus, and essential “expertise”. Writings on public administration in the 1950s spoke of the field as an “emphasis”, an area of interest, or even as a “synonym” of political science”.

The 1960’s is a very eventful decade in the history of public administration. At least two major developments occurred during this decade – the rise of comparative public administration and development administration and the rise of New Public Administration (Bapuji 1988). “New Public Administration was about making ‘the study of the practice of government relevant to the needs of the changed society. The focus of

New Public Administration (1965-1970) was averse to examine such traditional phenomena as efficiency, effectiveness, budgeting, and administrative techniques. Conversely, new public administration was quite aware of normative theory, philosophy, and activism. The questions raised dealt with values, ethics, the development of the individual member in the organisation, the relation of client with bureaucracy, and the broad problems of urbanism, technology, and violence (Coetzee 1988).

Bapuji (1988: 394) holds that Comparative studies of government and administrative systems are hardly new. However, the concept was pushed into new realms only during the 1950's because of the sweeping shift in the orientation and aims of political science and the developments occurred after the World War II in several parts of the World. Heady (1979 cited in Henry 1980) explained that Comparative public administration addresses five "motivating concerns" as an intellectual enterprise: the search for theory; the urge for practical application; the incidental contribution of the broader field of comparative politics; the interest of researchers trained in the tradition of comparative law; and the comparative analysis of on-going problems of public administration. Basheka (2012) concludes that 'in the post-war years, public administration changed its character, scope and methods of investigation. What was left was a very 'sick' discipline of public administration. The dichotomy was declared dead in 1950, due to a major stroke suffered by Simon in 1946. Its death was confirmed when J Gaus, a leading scholar, published his article, 'Trends in the theory of public administration'. The article appeared in the leading *Journal of Public Administration* and stated that "a theory of public administration in our times means a theory of politics also". With this confusion, public administration would never be the same again.

3.2.2.4 Paradigm 4: Public Administration as administrative science, 1956-1970

During this stage, which runs approximately concurrently with stage four, certain public administrationists began searching for an alternative. To them the administrative science option appeared a viable alternative, although it lost its identity and its uniqueness within the confines of some larger concept (Coetzee 1988: 41). Henry (1980: 45) advises that the term *administrative science* is used here as a catch-all phrase for studies in organisation theory and management science. As a paradigm, administrative science provides a focus but not a locus. It offers techniques, often highly sophisticated techniques, that require expertise and specialisation, but in what institutional setting that expertise should be applied is undefined. As in Paradigm 2, administration is administration wherever it is found, focus is favoured over locus.

Early in the 1960's "organisation development" ascended as a speciality of administrative science and, as a focus, represented an alternative to political science for many public administrationists. As a field, organisation development was grounded in social psychology and, with its concomitant emphasis on values, was conceived as a very compatible area of research within the framework of administrative science (Coetzee 1988: 41). Henry (1980: 46) argues that the above notwithstanding, there was "a problem in the administrative science route, and a real one. If it were selected as the sole focus of public administration, could one continue to speak of public administration? After all, administrative science, while not advocating universal principles, nevertheless did and does contend that all organisations and managerial methodologies have certain characteristics, patterns, and pathologies in common. If administrative science alone defined the field's paradigm, then public administration would exchange, at best, being an "emphasis" in political science departments for being, at best, a subfield in schools of administrative science".

Coetzee (1988) posits that the ‘real conceptual dilemma, in part, lay in the traditional distinction between “public” and “private” spheres of American society. As a consequence, public administrationists came to appreciate that the “public” in public administration can no longer be conceived in simply institutional terms. It must instead be cast into philosophic, normative and ethical terms; i.e. “public” becomes that which affects the public interest. Without a sense of the public interest, administrative science can be used for any purpose, no matter how immoral. However, the concept of determining and implementing the public interest constitutes a defining pillar of public administration and a locus of the field that receives little if any attention within the context of administrative science’. If paradigm 4 accomplished nothing else, it exposed public administrationists to certain management technologies that they needed to learn and adapt to a governmental context, and, by its very disinterest in questions of values (aside from the value of economic efficiency), it resulted in public administrationists thinking philosophically (as opposed to institutional) about what *public* in public administration actually implied. Increasingly (and applied equally to public administrationists who were functioning in the context of Paradigm 3), public administrationists concluded that the field needed both a focus and a locus (Henry 1980: 48).

3.2.2.5 Paradigm 5: Public Administration as Public Administration, 1970 to date

“Public administration as public administration” refers to public administration’s successful break with both political science and management, and its emergence as an autonomous field of study and practice (Henry 2013: 44). Henry (1980: 53) observes that there has been less progress in delineating a locus for the field, or in determining what the public interest, public affairs, and “prescribing for public policy” should encompass in terms relevant to public administrationists. Nevertheless, the field does appear to be zoning in on certain fundamental social factors unique to fully developed countries as its proper locus. The choice of these phenomena may somewhat be arbitrary on the part of public administrationists, but they do share commonalities in that

they have engendered cross-disciplinary interest in universities, require synthesising intellectual capacities, and lean toward themes that reflect urban life, administrative relations between “public” and “private” organisations, and the interface between technology and society. The traditional rigid distinction of the field between the public sphere and the private sphere appeared to wane as public administration’s new and flexibly defined locus expanded. Furthermore, public administrationists have been increasingly concerned with the inextricably related areas of policy science, political economy, the public policy-making process and its analysis, and the measurement of policy outputs.

Vocino and Robin (1981 cited in Coetzee 1988: 42) hold that Public Administration is an academic field of sorts, but it is importantly the confluence of parts of various fields as they come to bear on understanding and improving our knowledge of matters relating to the profession of public administration. Bapuji (1989: 396) notes that 1980s saw a new environment emerging which rejected some of the earlier premises of public administration. The greatly reduced confidence in the efficacy of government and of public administration was reinforced by the disintegration of the intellectual foundations of the discipline along with its paradigms. The notion of big government was rejected as a potential threat, to individual freedom and as the enemy of economic efficiency while the movement of small government started finding appeal in several countries of the West and Non-west resulted in the decline of governmental activities and simultaneous growth of private sector activities, at least in the West.

Basheka (2012: 52) states that “from the 1980s onwards, the state started rolling back in both developed and developing countries for various reasons, and the emphasis shifted from the state and the public sector to the private sector. The public sector was generally ‘diagnosed’ to have had an acute sickness whose symptoms manifested themselves in inefficiency and corruption, among others. With this diagnosis, the experts forcefully argued that the prescriptions had to come from an efficient doctor who was only to be found in the private sector. Government was a patient and it needed a

doctor! The prescriptions to governments were very clear: liberalise, privatise and stabilise. The implementation was later to see a number of reforms right from the structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) through the capacity-building reforms of the 1990s and the new service improvement reforms of the 2000s”.

Henry (2004: 49) reinforces Basheka’s view and observed that “beginning in the 1980s, a number of trends accelerated that harbour the possibility of fundamental change in how we perceive government and its administration. The trends can be grouped under the rubrics of globalisation, devolution and redefinition, and these developments are causing enormous change within and among the three sectors – public, private, and non-profit”. The future of government would be significantly altered as a result of the developments. Henry (2004: 49) noted the following:

- *Boundaries will blur.* The institutional distinctions between the public, private and non-profit sectors, and between federal, state and local governments, already are fuzzy, muddy, and grey, and will grow fuzzier, muddier, and greyer.
- *Governments will flatten and spread.* Governments have always been hierarchies, and likely always will be, but they already are adapting and restructuring their largely vertical organisation to accommodate and exploit burgeoning horizontal networks that encompass information technologies and other sectors. There is a good chance that this restructuring will accelerate.
- *Governments will alter their capacity and scale.* Globalisation pressures governments to reduce their sovereignty so that Earth may be governed as a planet. International cooperation in the areas of climate, commerce, and violence (including violence within nations, not just between them) all point to this outcome. Devolution and redefinition persuade governments to reduce their responsibilities so that other entities in all three sectors may take them over and deliver public services.

Bapuji (1989: 397) makes a profound observation that “the academic study of public administration in the West has been buffered by many of the volatile currents of the past quarter century. The ethno-centric Western Paradigms are losing appeal to the Third World academics who are now trying to create indigenous models firmly grounded in their own convictions and cultures”. One of the major results of the developments is the movement from government to governance. Hughes (2003 cited in Basheka 2012: 59) opines that government is the institution itself, whereas governance is a broader concept describing forms of governing which are not necessarily in the hands of the formal government. It is within this same context that concepts like corporate governance, local governance, and global governance emerged.

Corporate governance, for example, was used to refer to how the private sector structures its internal mechanisms to provide for accountability to its stakeholders. While government may be involved through company law in the affairs of the private sector, there are a number of aspects in which it does not have much control. Governance is not the preserve of the government alone, but certainly it is one of the key players. Other players that may include private sector organisations, the church, non-governmental organisations, professional associations, traditional cultural institutions, and a number of other citizens’ groups are important ingredients of good governance machinery. The term governance is, therefore, utilised to describe certain fundamental processes of modern government that are distinct from the way “governments” traditionally operate. It consists of broad political processes where citizen and group participation in government policy and programmes is vital (Ikeanyibe 2016).

Stoker (1988) advanced five critical and dilemmatic propositions that have largely become similar principles of the governance paradigm, namely:

- A network of institutions and actors from within and beyond government.
- The blurring of boundaries and responsibilities for tackling social and economic issues. This shift in responsibility goes beyond the public–private dimension to

include notions of communitarianism and social capital.

- Power dependence among institutions involved in collective action. Organisations are dependent upon each other for the achievement of collective action, and thus must exchange resources and negotiate shared understandings of ultimate program goals.
- The autonomous self-governing networks of actors.
- The capacity to get things done which does not rest on the power of government to command or use its authority.

It is important to note that the underscoring governance invariably focuses on the significance of leadership in the realisation of stated goals. Therefore, a scholarly examination of the concept of leadership follows in the section below.

3.2.3 From public administration to public management

The study of public administration since the early 1980s has been concerned predominantly with the so-called 'paradigm shift' from principles of public administration to those of public management. In its application, the term 'new public management' has come to identify a series of themes aimed at reforming the organisation and procedures of the public sector in order to make it more competitive and efficient in resource use and service delivery. In a very real sense, the new public management is concerned with the commercialisation, as far as is possible, of the state's role in providing services to its citizens, and of the state's relationship with its citizens (Falconer [sa]: 1). The key change in the public sector is from public administration to public management. A public manager is now required to achieve results and take personal responsibility for their achievement. Public organisations do things. Governments now want to know what they do, how well they do it, who is in charge, and

who is taking responsibility for results. Management is seen more as a function requiring its own skills rather than something that specialists from technical areas can simply pick up. A managerial model requires leadership indeed this is another of the key aspects of the change from traditional administrative model. A strictly bureaucratic model has no place for leadership or any other personality-driven behaviour from anyone in the system (<http://www.darryljavis.com>).

An organisation can only be as effective as its people can and for this reason they need to recruit and retain the highest calibre public servants. This process requires leaders and managers to plan and steer the course together with people. For this reason the administrative reform focused on debureaucratisation and decentralisation must go in tandem with new approaches to management, openness, adaptability, participation, flexibility and responsiveness. Leadership plays an important role in the implementation of reform because it involves two of the most important aspects of reform: change and people. Changing organization is really about changing people's behaviour, so organisations undergoing reform need leadership. Leaders can help diffuse and maintain the new values necessary for public sector reform (Pavlov [sa]: 1). It for this reason that leadership is examined.

3.2.4 Post-NPM

The emergence of a dominant neo-liberal ideological framework in the late 1970s in the mainly advanced capitalist nations gave eminence to the New Public Management (NPM). This ideological framework rejects a bloated public sector, questions the capacity of government, and has confidence in the superiority of the private sector and advocates for market forces in the delivery of services (Hague 2001). NPM theoretical basis is that of private management and economics. NPM promotes a leaner, decentralised and more focussed government. In this way, advocates of NPM argue that a more efficient government modelled along market principles will deliver better customer satisfaction and enhanced mechanisms of public accountability. The advent of NPM has resulted in the creation of multiple public sector single-focussed organisations

aimed at delivering services. These organisations are seen as specialised, agile, and efficient in the conduct of their mandates.

NPM resulted in gradual disintegration of the delivery of services, poor horizontal coordination, mandate overlap and creep, and dilution of political control. The Post-NPM reforms were introduced to counter and eliminate the objective weaknesses of the NPM dispensation. The primary aim of post-NPM reforms has been to counteract the fragmentation and/or disintegration brought about under NPM and to restore public-sector organizations to a position of improved coordination and integration (Christensen & Lægreid 2007b). The post-NPM era of reforms promotes a more holistic strategy (Bogdanor 2005). The slogans and “whole-of-government” and “joined-up-government” provided new labels for the old doctrine of coordination in the study of public administration (Hood 2005).

Post-NPM reforms are largely inter-organisationally oriented and are aimed at improving the horizontal coordination of governmental units, and also to enhance coordination between the government and important actors. Under post-NPM politicians are the chief guarantors of compromise deals between multiple stakeholders, while civil servants serve as network managers and partnership leaders. Post-NPM is also concerned with improving the capacity of the centre, both administratively and politically, and to also structurally control or reintegrate more state-owned enterprises and agencies (Christensen & Lægreid 2007a). In summary, Post-NPM reforms should result in horizontal coordination in line with a governance approach; increased focus on integration, and improved political control and recentralisation. The rise of post-NPM reforms can be attributed to combination of external pressure from the institutional and technical environments, drawing from deficits of NPM reforms.

3.3 Leadership: An examination

3.3.1 Introduction

There has been a concerted effort by various scholars to contribute towards developing a unified theory of leadership. Daft (1999: 5) notes that leadership has been a topic of interest to historians and philosophers since ancient times, but it was only around the turn of the century that scientific studies began. Since that time, scholars and other writers have offered more than 350 definitions of the term “leadership” and one authority on the subject has concluded that leadership “is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth”. The failure to arrive at a universally agreed theory of leadership is in part because of the fact that leadership is constantly changing because of new contexts, tools, conceptualisations, and concerns, as illustrated by the differing situational demands on leadership. While abstract principles may remain consistent, the more practical and operational aspects generally vary substantially and are vitally important for leaders if they are to lead effectively. Occasionally, genuinely new aspects of organisational life develop; for example, communication patterns have been fundamentally different in the last quarter century because of the Internet (Van Wart 2013).

3.3.2 Defining Leadership

Leadership is both the most studied and the least understood topic in the social sciences. The concept of leadership remains elusive and enigmatic, despite years of effort at developing an intellectually and emotionally satisfying understanding. This can be attributed to persons who discuss leadership have different concepts in mind, resulting in the communication about leadership rather difficult (Avery 2004: 3). Fisher (1999) observes that “leadership was often difficult to define and evaluate. Leaders have a multitude of roles they fill and many duties that they perform each day. Effective

leaders consisted of a myriad of traits and behaviours. While effective leaders did exist, most professionals could not lead, and they did not want to follow”.

Leadership is complex. It is not easily defined, nor can it be explained by simple ploys (Kotter 1988). Sociology, anthropology, political science and psychology are among the disciplines which have addressed the question, *what is leadership?* Definitive answers, however, remain elusive (Ladkin 2010: 1). Avery (2004) shares certain reasons why understanding leadership is challenging; these include:

- There is no agreed definition of leadership or what the concept should embrace. Many definitions are ambiguous and inconsistent, making it extremely difficult to have a sensible conversation about the concept.
- Most ideas about leadership have been internationally broken down into smaller components so that scholars can conduct publishable research into them. As a result, much of the work on leadership is currently too simple to reflect the full richness and complexity that practitioners face on the job.
- Theories and research into leadership are far from complete. Individual scholars tend to focus on particular aspects of leadership, with few attempting to build consistent theories. Thus, possibly because of the difficulties in agreeing on what leadership is, leadership research and writings contain many gaps that have both been investigated.
- The ideas underlining concepts of leadership have changed over the course of history, paralleling many social and other changes’.

The above observations by Avery notwithstanding, Sadler (2003: 1) suggests some of the many definitions of leadership as articulated by others, which include:

- An activity or set of activities, observable to others that occurs in a group, organisation or institution involving a leader and followers who willingly subscribe to common purposes and work together to achieve them (Professor Kenneth Clark).
- The process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or a leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers (John Gardner).
- The reciprocal process of mobilising, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realise goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers (James McGregor Burns).

DuBrin (2010: 2) defines leadership “as the ability to inspire confidence and support among people who are needed to achieve organisational goals. He argues that a major point about leadership is that it is not found only among people in high-level positions. Leadership is needed at all levels in an organisation and can be practiced to some extent even by a person not assigned to a formal leadership position”. Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) argue that leadership involved persuading other people to set aside for a period of time their individual concerns to pursue the common goals that were important for the responsibilities and welfare of the group. The authors also noted that leadership was persuasion, not domination. People who require others to do their bidding because of power were not leaders. Leaders have others who follow them willingly while the leader adopts the goals of a group as their own goals. Institutions require people to turn their lifeless structures into dynamic functioning entities. Institutions can also only achieve their goals and objectives through effectively managing all available human, technical and financial resources. When managing people, managers (individuals in the organisational hierarchy who have followers or subordinates) need to possess leadership qualities in order to become leaders (Bass 1990).

Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1996) defined leadership as an interpersonal process that a leader used to direct the activities of individuals or groups towards given objectives within a certain situation through the process of communication. Leadership is also viewed as a process of initiating, executing and evaluating aspects of organisational change. Literature suggests that leadership styles are situational and have enhanced individual and organisational success in many ways. Leaders actively create the tempo and provide guidelines for employees to follow (Naidu & Van der Walt 2005: 1). Banerji and Krishan (2000: 406) consider leadership “as a process whereby leaders develop a shared vision and set the tone to influence the behaviours of all in the organisation towards achieving common values. The shared vision creates alignment by developing a common mental model for employees to follow”.

Leadership is the result of many simultaneously interacting forces, which must be integrated by the leader to lead behavioural changes in his/her subordinates and the achievement of a predetermined outcome. It can thus be stated that the majority of tasks performed by a leader includes interaction with subordinates and that it is therefore essential for every leader to develop a particular approach (or style) to leading in order to become efficient (Bass 1985, 1990). Bass (1999 cited in Helland & Winston 2005) conceptualises leadership as “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members. Leaders are agents of change—persons whose acts affect other people more than other people’s acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivations or competencies of others in the group ...any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership, and members will vary in the extent to which they do so”. Leonard (2003) observes that before the mid 1950’s, leader characteristics were identified as capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status. However, due to the rapid change of the global economy from an industrial and manufacturing base to a post-industrial and information base, an examination of the models for leadership and leadership development was in order.

Greyvenstein and Cilliers (2012) confirm the observations of Leonard and note that leadership of 21st century organisations is functioning under increasing pressure and complexity. Theoretically, leadership is constantly being deconstructed into an array of different theories, models, ideals, outcomes and desired characteristics. This is evident in the quantity of articles and books being published monthly which also results in constant changes in organisational leadership development programmes. According to Kets de Vries (2007 cited in Greyvenstein & Cilliers 2012) this deconstruction acts as a defence against the complexity of the leadership role and its various relationships. He also mentioned that the theorising may be irrelevant because it just adds new academic and 'grand theories' to the list, which are all far removed from the reality of everyday organisational life.

Ladkin (2010: 3) asserts that there should be a reformulation of the question. "What is leadership" assumes the possibility of defining leadership in an objectively-determined, clear-cut way, perhaps as one might be able to define "bird" or a "fork-lift" truck. Such a question suggests that we can "report it as we see it" and that doing so is a straight forward endeavour. Ladkin proposes a shift into a more philosophically oriented query; "What kind of phenomena is leadership?" By posing this query, the certainty that leadership is the kind of thing, which can be described in a definitive way, loses some of its power. Depending on the kind of phenomenon leadership is, the way we go about defining it may be altered. On the other hand, Avery (2004: 5) proposes that common definitions and terms are essential to enable people to discuss leadership in a meaningful way. He recommends "common platforms" in the form of "*Leadership Paradigms*" for this to happen. The leadership paradigms represent four broad sets of ideas, which are termed: Classical, Transactional, Visionary and Organic leadership.

Table 6: Leadership Paradigms

Leadership Characteristic	Classical	Transactional	Visionary	Organic
Major era	Antiquity-1970s	1970s- mid – 1980s	Mid-1980s - 2000	Beyond 2000
Basis of leadership	Leader dominance through respect and/or power to command and control	Interpersonal influence over and consideration of followers. Creating appropriate management environments	Emotion- leader inspires followers	Mutual sense-making within the group. Leaders may emerge rather than formally appointed.
Source of follower commitment	Fear or respect of leader. Obtaining rewards avoiding punishment	Negotiated rewards, agreements and expectations	Sharing the vision, leader charisma may be involved; individualised consideration.	Buy in to the group's shared values and processes; self-determination.
Vision	Leader's vision is unnecessary for follower compliance	Vision is not necessary, and may not ever be articulated	Vision is central. Followers may contribute to leader's vision.	Vision emerges from the group, vision is strong cultural element.

Source: Avery 2004

There is general acknowledgement that leadership and communication are inextricably linked. The medium, speed, clarity and comprehensiveness of communication has a major bearing on how instructions should be executed. The shifts in organisational practices influence the exercise of leadership. The fact that the modern workforce is becoming more educated and skilled, the rapid advancement in technology and the spread of the production value-chains across the globe has resulted in flatter structures of organisations, which in-turn influences the leadership style. Cetin (2012) notes that vast literature on leadership has been growing since the past four decades exponentially, while at the same time being the focus of several empirical studies with a view to sustain the theory of leadership. However, these studies have been oriented for business organisations. Later, these developments accelerated when the New Public Administration literature, informed by neo-classical economics and with private sector practices, brought the significance of public leadership into focus in this context. The public leadership has therefore, been a focus of attention and several empirical studies followed. This focus on public leadership is borne out of the observation that, it is this leadership sector that will help resolve the almost intractable challenges that are facing governments in many parts of the world. In the final analysis effective leadership is about getting results, leading followers, leading organisations, leading systems, and leading with values.

3.3.3 Public sector leadership

Public sector leadership can be divided into two, namely: political and administrative. Public sector political leadership is vested in a single person, such as the mayor. Here the leader can use his or her ideas, goals and visions in the council, in the administration and to the citizens. In other systems, power lies in the hands of a collective, with the mayor and the CEO acting together, or with a political cabinet appointed exclusively from the majority party, or reflecting the proportional strength of the party (Berg & Rao 2005: 3). Public sector political leadership is also about making and consolidating networks of like-minded political actors, constant engagement with

the electorate, and agenda setting. Van Wart and Dicke (2008: 14) define administrative leadership as “leadership from the frontline supervisor (or even lead worker) to the non-political head of the organisation. The focus is not on elected legislative leaders and only on elected executives and their political designees, such as agency secretaries and directors, commissioners, or legislatively approved directors, to the degree that they include nonpolicy functions as a significant component of their responsibilities”. Our study is concerned with the latter form of public sector leadership, political leadership. Our study examines how policy choices made by the elected City of Tshwane leadership have helped drive idea of the GCR.

It is worth noting that in most fields of study there are core concepts that are both centrally important to the field and subject to continuing debate and controversy. In Public Administration (PA), the topic of leadership is such a concept. Debates of the significance and challenges associated with leadership in public service emanate constantly throughout the development of the field. While leadership in general has been difficult to study and measure, the increasingly complex scope of PA has made this more challenging, resulting in a fragmented approach to the study of public service leadership (Getha-Taylor *et al.* 2011; Van Wart 2013a cited in Chapman *et al.* 2016).

While the leadership theory was more focused on the private sector, it was not significant up until 1980s and 1990s when public leadership literature gained prominence excluding certain retrospective and sound contributions such as Selznick’s work in 1957 which is considered as a timeless book. This is also related to the global environment and increased emphasis on public sector reform which came into agenda of both developed and developing countries (Cetin 2012: 79). Indeed, public leadership is associated with public sector reform and good governance as it has been pointed out in the previous section. From the 1930s to 1990s, studies were conducted on administrative leadership which provides reference for the current public leadership literature and theory. However, it is argued that it was only after the incorporation of

transformational leadership into leadership theory that it gained momentum as a mirror image of global developments (Van Wart cited in Cetin 2012).

In this context, Van Wart distinguishes five possible definitions of public leadership:

- As the process of providing results required by authorised processes in an efficient, effective and legal manner;
- As the process of supporting followers who provide results;
- As the process of aligning the organisation with its environment, especially the macro level changes necessary, and realigning the culture as appropriate;
- As the service focus; and
- As a composite of providing technical performance, internal direction to followers, external organisational direction –all with a public service orientation.

In their quest to determine how public service leadership is studied, Chapman *et al* (2016) formulated the following three research questions:

- The ‘how’ of studying public leadership: what are the patterns in methods used to study public leadership?
- The ‘where’ of studying public leadership: what is the variation in methods across jurisdictions of public leadership (sector based, level of government and setting locus)?
- The ‘what’ of studying public leadership: what is the extent to which leadership is the main focus of study?

In responding to ‘*how*’ to study public leadership, Chapman *et al* (2016) revealed that the empirical treatments of leadership represent a growing acknowledgement that it plays a critical role in effectively achieving PA outcomes. Specifically, the impact of leadership has been examined on performance management, organisational commitment, ethical decision-making, collaboration, crisis management and implementing change, ambitious goals and administrative reforms. In answering the ‘*where*’ of studying public leadership, Chapman *et al* (2016) revealed that the way leadership is operationalised varies across these studies. The jurisdictional frame may well guide how leadership variables are operationalised and affect data collection methodologies. Studies of leadership within network contexts, for example, would be well-served if consistent variables could be tested across different studies so that theorising about collaborative leadership could stand upon a stronger empirical base.

Moreover, qualitative studies are applied most often in articles which focus on agencies at the federal level. When leadership is examined within the jurisdiction of a comprehensive government, surveys are often utilised to collect data, while studies of other government jurisdictions do not overwhelmingly favour one data collection method over the others. This could be as a result of access and accessibility to data sources for respective jurisdictions. On the ‘*what*’ of the study of public leadership, Chapman *et al* (2016) revealed that the greatest opportunity for future research is reflected in the operationalisation of public leadership theories. Limited consistency is offered across the research of how leadership is operationalised. A significantly smaller aspect of the empirical studies examines leadership as a dependent variable. In these articles, the conditions that influence leadership are explicitly examined. These may include the role of resource dependence, organisational and institutional context and individual attitudes and values. Given the limited attention paid to leadership as an outcome, future research should examine what factors, including jurisdictional context, influence the results.

Chapman *et al* (2016) conclude that their research serves to confirm the shortcomings of PA in that it lacks a comprehensive theoretical approach to knowledge creation and empirical theory testing of public leadership. The Chapman *et al* (2016) research further reveals that the state of public leadership studies is rather fragmented. While varied methods, contexts and frameworks contribute to a robust body of work, the larger question is how these approaches advance the knowledge base and practice of public leadership. The Chapman *et al* (2016) research notwithstanding, there is a need to continue to sharpen the tools of understanding public sector leadership in its comprehensiveness. The growing emphasis on the need for public sector reform to facilitate the speedy resolution of the global socio-economic conflict has led to the gradual rise to prominence of public sector leadership.

Van Wart (cited in Cetin [sa]: 79) notes that ‘public leadership is associated with public sector reform and good governance as it has been pointed out in the previous section. From 1930s to 1990s there were studies on administrative leadership which provides reference for the current public leadership literature and theory. However, it is argued that it was only after the incorporation of transformational leadership into leadership theory that public leadership gained momentum as a mirror image of global developments’. Ospina (2017) argues that the increasing pressure and focus on public sector leadership will inevitably result in the de-marginalisation thereof as a theoretical construct or a recognised area of research interest. This distinctive and autonomous domain of study deserves greater attention and is characterised by significant improvement in the cohesiveness of the literature showing a positive trajectory and bright prospects for continued advances. Ospina (2017) calls for two fundamental research agendas to further strengthen the development of public leadership, namely:

- *A broader conceptualisation of public leadership.* There is a need to broaden the scope of leadership research to consider more actors; more arenas and levels of analysis; more processes, context and complexity; the shared dimensions of leadership; and followership, particularly to emphasise citizens; active role.

- *A unique perspective in the study of public leadership.* This call is about a renewed commitment to a public administration perspective to the study of leadership. Vogel and Masal (cited in Ospina 2017) highlight the literature's tendency to pay more attention to the public context than to the general leadership theories to explain empirical findings of public leadership studies.

3.3.4 Leadership theories and associated public leadership: a selection

There are as many differing perceptions of leadership as there are characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Whilst most research has shifted from traditional trait or personality-based theories to a situation theory, which dictates that the situation in which leadership is exercised is determined by the leadership skills and characteristics of the leader, all contemporary theories can fall under one of the following three perspectives: leadership as a process or relationship, leadership as a combination of traits or personality characteristics, or leadership as certain behaviours or, as they are more commonly referred to, leadership skills. In the more dominant theories of leadership, there exists the notion that, at least to some degree, leadership is a *process* that involves *influence* with a *group* of people toward the realisation of *goals* (Wolinski 2010).

The absence of a single unifying theory of leadership has resulted in a myriad of definitions of the concept of leadership. There are essentially two generic approaches to address the leadership question. One approach focuses on the “how-to” leadership within the political, corporate, social and administrative contexts; while the other concerns itself with providing a list of significant attributes frequently embedded in a philosophy that is associated with a specific context or individual. In an attempt to overcome the lack of a unified definition of leadership, four well-organised theories of leadership are presented (Van Wart 2013).

The overarching theories of leadership are labelled as follows:

- Ethical leadership theory
- Transactional leadership theory
- Transformational leadership theory
- Horizontal or collaborative leadership theory

Each of these broad theories includes a variety of valid theoretical domains and perspectives. Furthermore, each of the theories of leadership has been associated with major research eras or peaks, but all have continued to evolve and used in research, education, and training because other theories have escalated to prominence.

3.3.4.1 Ethical leadership theory

At the heart of this leadership theory, is the assertion that good administrative leaders instil and build trust, understand duty, and keep the common good in mind at all times (Van Wart 2013). Yang (2014) defines Ethical leadership ‘as the behaviour of appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships’. In-fact, Lawton and Paez (2015) contend that “ethical leadership involves some aspect of personal conduct, deemed ethically appropriate, in decision-making and developing relations with others, such that these others are inspired to follow”. While there has long been a consensus that leadership ethics contain certain leaders personnel characteristics such as honesty or trustworthiness, ethical leadership promotes a comprehension that goes well beyond the notion of simple altruistic attributes (Trevino *et al* 2000). Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005) define ethical leadership as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making”.

Ciulla (2004, cited in Van Wart 2013) argues that ethics-based approaches to leadership tend to include three major concerns or pillars. The first concern is the *intent* of individuals, whether they are leaders or members of the organisation. A second concern is selecting the *proper means* for doing well. A third concern is selecting the *proper ends*. Most would agree that all three concerns (good intent, proper means, and appropriate ends or, stated differently, character, duty, and the greatest good) must be functioning in order for effective leadership (as a process) to be robust.

3.3.4.1.1 Ethical public leadership

The central thrust of Ethical Theory is that leaders should demonstrate unparalleled levels of integrity. Integrity is multidimensional, with all the dimensions relating to the wholeness of oneself in society. Carnevale (1995, cited in Van Wart 2013) elaborates on the four dimensions of integrity. The first dimension that people generally think about is honesty or truth. Yang (2014: 514) posits that “although honesty is an important factor that makes up ethical leadership, it is only one of the many factors necessary for an ethical leader”. The second dimension of integrity relates to trustworthiness. Trustworthy people know their principles, are able to explain them clearly, and consistently conform to them. In the public sector, principles include such civic virtues as dedication to public service, commitment to the common good, and dedication to the law of the land. According to Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998), trust can be described as “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another”. If a leader’s behaviour is perceived as being ethically correct and considerate, employees’ attitudes towards the organisation as a whole should be more positive and, in turn, should lead to less incentives for deviant or counterproductive behaviour (Brown & Trevino 2006). A third dimension of integrity is fairness. Those with management and executive responsibilities have much discretion, so fairness is important in both the equality of treatment and making rational and appropriate exceptions.

The final dimension of integrity is conscientiousness, or concern for undertaking an effective job. At a basic level, conscientiousness implies forming sound habits and working earnestly; at a higher level, conscientiousness includes striving for excellence, which, in turn, enhances leader credibility. Leaders understand that duty is important and is associated with high standards in the public sector: duty includes respect for the law, rules, and professional norms.

3.3.4.2 Transactional leadership theory

Transactional leadership theories have focused on the daily interactions of leaders and their followers. Since the theories underscore the operational level, these have been utilised by supervisors. However, their use among executives is not inappropriate (Van Wart 2013). Sadler (2003: 24) argues that transactional leadership occurs when managers take the initiative in offering some form of need satisfaction in return for something valued by employees, such as pay, promotion, improved job satisfaction or recognition. The manager/leader sets clear goals, is adept at understanding the needs of employees and selects appropriate, motivating rewards. Transactional leadership is rooted in the belief that leaders exchange promises of rewards and benefits to subordinates for the fulfilment of agreements with the leader (Bass & Stogdill 1990: 53). This leadership style, argues Northouse (2010), is one in which the leader does not individualise employee needs, nor does he/she focus on employee development

Wolinski (2010: 9) suggests that transactional theory “focuses on the *exchanges* that take place between leaders and followers. It is based in the notion that a leader’s job is to create structures that make it abundantly clear what is expected of his/her followers and also the *consequences* (i.e. rewards and punishments) for meeting or not meeting these expectations. This theory is often likened to the concept and practice of *management* and continues to be an extremely common component of many leadership models and organisational structures”. Transactional leaders use power and influence

to achieve organisational goals through the efforts of others. It should not be surprising that the followers of these effective transactional leaders are likely to be independent (Sashkin & Sashkin 2003: 68). Transactional leadership is based on a rational exchange relationship between leader and subordinate (Bass 1985; Howell & Costley 2001).

3.3.4.2.1 Transactional public leadership

Burns (1978, cited in McCleskey 2014) argues that “transactional leadership practices lead followers to short-term relationships of exchange with the leader. These relationships tend toward shallow, temporary exchanges of gratification and often create resentments between the participants. Additionally, a number of scholars criticise transactional leadership theory because it utilises a one-size-fits-all universal approach to leadership theory construction that disregards situational and contextual factors related organisational challenges”.

Liu *et al.* (2011 cited in McCleskey 2014) identified the limitations of transactional leadership as including: ‘results oriented towards leaders’ description of what they would do rather than actual behaviour, omission of measures designed to identify social desirability, and inability to generalise findings to the larger population.

3.3.4.3 Transformational leadership theory

While the term ‘transformational leadership’ was originally coined by James Downton in a 1973 paper on rebel leadership, it was James MacGregor Burns who brought the term to wider parlance in his classic study of political leadership in the 1978 book simply entitled *Leadership*. Burns made an important distinction between ‘transactional leadership’, which he suggested was the way that most politicians led their followers on the basis of reciprocal exchange leading to the satisfaction of both the leader’s and the follower’s self-interests; and ‘transformational leadership’, which was practiced by those

political leaders who were able to engage their followers not only to achieve something of significance but also to ‘morally uplift’ them (Diaz-Saenz 2011: 299).

In transformational leadership theory, the primary source of leadership is the leader, and the object of leadership is the follower. When the leader directs influence to the followers, leadership happens. The end result of leadership is that followers buy into the leader's vision, feeling engaged in a common enterprise that will generate motivation and efficacy to produce desired results (Ospina 2017). The transformational leaders are often associated with charisma, even though these types of leaders have additional characteristics such as vision development and abilities to motivate the followers, both of which reside in the relationship between the leaders and followers (Juli & Atmadja 2005: 99).

Transformational leaders exert influence on their followers by communicating an idealistic vision of the future. Moreover, they recognize followers’ individual needs and abilities and stimulate their intellectual development (Bass 1985; cited in Hamstra *et al* 2013). Wilmore and Thomas (2001: 115) hold that “transformational leadership is about power sharing between the leader and the followers, rather than the leaders sole exercise of power over followers”. Leithwood (1992 cited in Singh & Lokotsch 2005: 280) proposes that “transformational leadership is a collective action generated by Transforming leadership, which empowers those who participate in the process. In essence, transformational leadership is a leadership style that facilitates the redefinition of a people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment, and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment”. Leonard and Leonard (1999, cited in Singh & Lokotsch 2005: 280) maintain that ‘the transformational leader should promote the articulation and sharing of a vision as well as fostering group goals’. Van Wart (2013) further contends that “at its core, transformational leadership is about managing organisational change. Transformational leaders succeed in instituting changes in structure, procedure, ethos, technology, and/or production”. Tichy and Devanna (1986

cited in Sadler 2003), revealed that the following are common characteristics of transformational leaders:

- They clearly see themselves as the change agents. They set out to make a difference and to transform the organisation for which they are responsible.
- They are courageous. They can deal with resistance, take a stand, take risks, and confront reality.
- They believe in people. They have well developed beliefs about motivation, trust and empowerment.
- They are driven by a strong set of values.
- They are life-long learners. They view mistakes – their own as well as other people - as learning opportunities.
- They can cope with complexity, uncertainty and ambiguity
- They are visionaries.

3.3.4.3.1 Transformational public leadership

This school of leadership has dominated the conversation in the public leadership research domain. Its scholarship is on par in its quality with leadership studies research, and the insight acquired has been quite valuable. Public leadership studies suggest that despite substantive organisational differences, transformational leaders can be as effective in public organisations as they are in private contexts. Transformational leaders infuse the most constraining environments with values that catapult their staff to produce mission-related results (Bellé 2014 cited in Ospina 2017). Ospina (2017) further argues that “transformational studies clarify how to create the right environment for engagement and participation, even in the hardest contexts. This is relevant in the public sector, where intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards may be a necessary motivational stimulus”.

3.3.4.4 Horizontal or Collaborative leadership theory

Visscher (2007: 35) notes that “a new era is dawning, characterized by participation rather than the command-and-control model so intrinsic to the institutions that dominated the 20th century: the military, corporations, centralized states. “Participation” is now the magic word. It is not about more stuff or more choice, but more say, more opportunities to contribute”. Cleveland (2002: 16) further notes that the shift is now more than obvious: from top down vertical relationships toward horizontal, consensual, collaborative modes of getting people together to make something different happen. Leadership has shifted from an individual source or from the hands of a few to a larger collective source, which includes the imagination and grasp of many (Freire 2000).

Horizontal leadership, also known as distributive leadership, had its research beginnings in the 1970s with the idea that effective leadership often reduces the need for formal leaders by facilitating the use of “substitutes,” such as providing or increasing levels of training, unambiguous tasks, clear protocols, effective frontline problem solving, and recruitment selections based on intrinsic satisfaction (Kerr & Jermier 1978 cited in Van Wart 2013). Distributed and shared leadership theories have moved toward a more systems-centered approach, incorporating context to understand the fluid nature of the relationship between leaders and others, called members. In this view, context is not an independent variable influencing what leaders do; it is “not external to leadership activity but ... it is constitutive of leadership practice” (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond 2004, cited in Ospina 2017).

In other words, the practice of leadership and context compensate and change each other. This form of leadership fully appreciates and acknowledges that power is greatest in a collective team. It encourages equal participation across all levels, and allows for solutions to be derived from the best ideas of the group and fosters a team approach to problem-solving.

3.3.4.4.1 Collaborative public leadership

A leadership research agenda of leadership in complex United Kingdom policy networks assessed the prospects of distributed leadership to implement policy change. It revealed competing bureaucratic and network logics operating simultaneously in environments with multiple goals, low managerial authority, and powerful stakeholders. These impede the emergence of alternative sources of leadership typical in network designs and force formal leaders to be more directive. Shared leadership, instead, ensued informally when team members convinced participants of the benefits of change, who in turn, influenced others through the network (Ospina 2017).

Collective leadership is a lens from which to explore the empirical reality of old and new forms of leadership. Collective leadership theories move the epicentre of leadership away from the visible leader, explicitly differentiating the leader from leadership, to focus on the processes and practices that make leadership work evident.

3.3.5 The South African planning dispensation

3.3.5.1 The Constitution

Cloete (1996: 14) tracks the constitutional transformation of South Africa. He records that ‘the republic of South Africa underwent fundamental constitutional transformation in terms of the provisions of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1993 (Act 200 of 1993), known as the Interim Constitution, which repealed the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983). Act 200 of 1993 came into effect on 10 May 1994, and was repealed by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which will come into effect on “a date set by the President by proclamation, which may not be a date later than 1 July 1997” subsection 243 (1) of the Constitution Act of 1996. Subsequently, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, (Act 108 of 1996)

(the Constitution) was approved by the Constitutional Court on 4 December 1996 and took effect on 4 February 1997”.

The adoption of the Constitution marked the transition from the oppressive and brutal Apartheid system to a constitutional democracy in South Africa. The Constitution is the supreme law of the land and constitute the unbendable backbone of a free and democratic South Africa. No other law or government action can supersede the provisions of the Constitution (South African Government 1997). The Constitution is hailed as one of the most progressive in the world and enjoys high acclaim internationally. Chapter Two of the Constitution elaborates on the Bill of Rights, these are essentially inalienable and are meant to affirm the democratic values of human dignity, freedom and equality. Chapter Three of the Constitution (determines the political and governance architecture of the democratic state. It asserts that ‘in the Republic, government is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres of government which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. Schedule 4 Part A of the Constitution list the Functional areas of concurrent National and Provincial Legislative compliance. These include: public transport, housing, regional planning and development and Industrial Development. On the other hand, Schedule 4 Part B lists matters for local government, these include: municipal public transport, municipal planning and municipal airports.

It worth noting that prior to the Constitution, the Development Facilitation Act, 1995 (Act No. 67 of 1995) was the primary piece of legislation that was applicable throughout the country meant to expedite land development. Its primary objects are, as the long title proclaims: to facilitate and expedite the implementation of the reconstruction and development programmes and projects by introducing extraordinary measures; to lay down general principles regulating all land developments, irrespective of whether the development is undertaken in terms of the Act or some other law;-and to establish, in all provinces, development tribunals with powers to determine land development applications (DFA 1995).

The adoption of the Constitution created tension between the provincial development tribunals and the municipalities who held that the Development Facilitation Act was, in fact, in conflict with the provision of the Constitution as enunciated in Schedule 4 Part B of the Constitution, which assigns municipal planning to be the exclusive domain of municipalities themselves. The conflict of interpretation led to a Constitutional Court challenge by the City of Johannesburg against the Gauteng Development Tribunal. The Constitutional Court (the Court) Judgment of 18 June 2010 represents a watershed moment in the planning dispensation in the country.

In *City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality vs. Gauteng Development Tribunal and Others* [2010] it was revealed that 'Section 40 of the Constitution defines the model of government contemplated in the Constitution. In terms of this section the government consists of three spheres: the national, provincial and local spheres of government. These spheres are distinct from one another and yet interdependent and interrelated. Each sphere is granted the autonomy to exercise its powers and perform its functions within the parameters of its defined space. Furthermore, each sphere must respect the status, powers and functions of government in the other spheres and "not assume any power or function except those conferred on [it] in terms of the Constitution' (para. 43). The Court goes further to declare invalid Chapter V and VI of the Development Facilitation Act to be unconstitutional. This simply put means that a municipality has executive authority in relation to planning in its own municipal boundaries.

The Court further instructed Parliament to correct the defects or enact new legislation. In meeting the injunction of the Court, Parliament enacted the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, 2013 (Act No.16 of 2013). The downside of the ruling by the Court is that spatial planning will be cascaded to local government level possibly resulting in: competing and/or conflicting planning orientations, poor coordination, and loss of scale benefit. For a province of the size and densities as Gauteng, this could be a significant drawback in assuming a more integrated regional planning scheme.

The Apartheid era planning dispensation was characterised by desperate planning arrangements. The four provinces in the pre-democracy era, namely: Cape, Free State, Natal and Transvaal; and the Homelands had separate planning legislation. The immediate aftermath of the ushering of a democratic era did little to change the land use and planning laws including the mechanisms in the country. The adoption of the White Paper on Local Government (1998) introduced a major shift in the local government planning space in the country. The White Paper introduced concepts such as Integrated Development Planning in the vocabulary of both planners and policy-makers in the country. The White Paper further envisaged the enactment of legislation to give concrete meaning to the many concepts it had introduced. The subsequent suite of legislation introduced in-line with the White Paper included the Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act No. 117 of 1998) and the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000). It should be noted that even with the enactment of the suite of local government legislation there was no legislation that provided for comprehensive planning and land use management in the country.

It was only in 2001, that the White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management advocated a more coherent planning regime in the post-Apartheid South Africa. The White Paper proposes elements of a new spatial planning and land use management system namely:

- *Principles.* The basis of the system will be principles and norms aimed at achieving sustainability, equality, efficiency, fairness and good governance in spatial planning and land use management, which all planning authorities should adhere to.
- *Land use regulators.* The most prevalent land use regulators will be municipalities.
- *IDP-based local spatial planning.* The inclusion of the SDF in the integrated development plan, with a direct legal link to the land use management scheme, is an essential step towards integrated and coordinated planning for sustainable and equitable growth and development.

- *A uniform set of procedures for land development approvals.* One set of such procedures for the whole country, and the alignment of the procedures for land development approval with those presently required in terms of the Environment Conservation Act (73 of 1989) for environmental impact assessments (White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management 2001 p. 2).

3.3.5.2 The National Development Plan

The President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr. Jacob Zuma, appointed the National Planning Commission (NPC) in May 2010 to help draft a vision and national development plan. The first product of the NPC was the Diagnostic Report, released in June 2011. The Diagnostic Report identified nine areas why South Africa found itself in a precarious position. These areas are:

- Too few people work;
- The quality of school education for black people is poor;
- Infrastructure is poorly located, inadequate and under-maintained;
- Spatial divide hobbles inclusive development;
- The economy is unsustainably resource intensive;
- The public healthcare system cannot meet demand or sustain quality;
- Public services are uneven and often of poor quality;
- Corruption levels are high; and
- South Africa remains a divided society.

Based on the findings, the NPC consulted widely to formulate a coherent and sustainable national plan that seeks to address the nine areas that impede the development of the country. This consultation process culminated in the adoption of National Development Plan (NDP) in 2013.

The NDP represents the most comprehensive and coherent articulation of the envisaged South Africa. The NDP determines the state of South Africa in 2030, hence the reference to “2030 Vision”. For the first time in the democratic order, government through extensive and robust consultation with many of the social actors in the country, arrived at a commonly shared picture of a future South Africa. The NDP revolutionised the South African long-range planning discipline; essentially serves as a planning blueprint for the country and outlines:

- Uniting all South Africans around a common programme to achieve prosperity and equity.
- Promoting active citizenry to strengthen development, democracy and accountability.
- Bringing about faster economic growth, higher investment and greater labour absorption.
- Focusing on key capabilities of people and the state.
- Building a capable developmental state.
- Encouraging strong leadership throughout society to work together to solve problems.

The NDP is essentially a roadmap for development. It is intended to guide government planning across all disciplines including serving as a call to action of all South Africans by: defining and committing to key socio-economic indices, providing broad guidelines on investment choices, dictating an institutional framework for delivery; combating and/or mitigating the adverse impacts of extreme climate occurrences, and proposing the strategic orientation of the State. The NDP endeavours to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030. South Africa can realise these goals by drawing on the energies of its people, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capacity of the state, and promoting leadership and partnerships throughout society. It posits a number of interventions that are required to achieve the South Africa of 2030. Amongst the interventions is the need to transform human settlement and space

economy of the country. The need for such intervention derives from the desire to undo the Apartheid planning logic, which located the poor at the periphery of economic opportunities and entrenched the ruling classes in close proximity to economic opportunities. One of the key objectives of the NDP is to respond systematically to entrenched spatial patterns across all geographic scales that exacerbates social inequality and economic inefficiency. It goes further to instruct that planning in South Africa will be guided by a set of normative principles to create spaces that are liveable, equitable, sustainable, resilient and efficient and support economic opportunities and social cohesion (NDP 2013).

The NDP (2013: 233) acknowledges that a great deal of progress has been made since 1994, but South Africa is far from achieving the goals set-out in the Reconstruction and development Programme of “breaking down Apartheid geography through land reform, compact cities, decent public transport and the development of industries and services that use local resources and/or meet local needs. For this reason, the NPC proposes a strategy to address the challenge of Apartheid geography and create the conditions for more humane – and environmentally sustainable – living working environments. The inefficiencies and inequalities in South Africa’s settlement patterns are deeply entrenched. Bold measures are needed to reshape them. By 2030, these measures will have changed the course of development, making it possible to achieve all of the country’s goals by 2050.

Embedded in this argument, is the assumption that the three spheres of government will act in unison and without any hindrance to deliver the spaces as envisaged. Planning coordination across the three spheres does not always follow, given the different planning priorities across the planning authorities, the asymmetrical planning cycles, funding gaps and political pressure-points. Therefore, the objective of creating new post-Apartheid spaces gets to be fatally undermined by the misalignment of planning across the three spheres of government.

The NDP (2013: 237) acknowledges that “towns and cities are connected in varying degrees into wider urban systems and their development reflects global and local forces. Economic activity is becoming consolidated in the largest cities. Other activities are decentralising, partly as a result of information and communication technology (ICT) and lower transport costs, which creates opportunities for smaller urban centres. A major trend is the development of city-regions that extend beyond individual municipalities. This offers opportunities but also complicates urban planning and management. The Gauteng city-region and embryonic city-regions around port cities are important, requiring new collaborative approaches”.

It is observed that the NDP, however, does not propose a set of actions that will foreground the Gauteng City-Region. The legislative and constitutional arrangements undermine the full realisation of the city-region. There is no expatiation on the kind of leadership that will be required to drive and realise the Gauteng City-Region. The only treatment of leadership in the NDP relates to the overall stewardship of the Vision itself. The planning tension and potential discord of the three planning authorities is more pronounced in a province that covers a mere 1.2% of the total land-mass of the country and is home to 25% of the population of the country. The rate of migration into the Gauteng province, its interconnectivity in terms of transport network and economic interdependence of the municipalities and province requires a province-wide planning dispensation that will allow it to maximise the positive aspects of its geography and provide an opportunity to better manage the elements that subtracts from the development patterns and its geography.

The South African Cities Network (SACN) notes that “*as a response to chapter 8 of the NDP, The Draft Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) (2014) vision is, “By 2030 South Africa should observe meaningful and measurable progress in reviving rural areas and in creating more functionally integrated, balanced and vibrant urban settlements. For this vision to be realised the country must clarify and relentlessly pursue a national vision for spatial development; sharpen the instruments for achieving*

this vision; [and] build the required capabilities in the state and among citizens. The policy focuses on seven levers, which are directly related to achieving spatial transformation. The levers are:

- Integrated transport and mobility
- Integrated sustainable human settlements
- Integrated infrastructure planning
- Inclusive economic development
- Efficient land governance and management
- Empowered active communities
- Effective urban governance”.

The above levers elevate the significance of integration. For integration to ensue at an optimal level, it will be best served by a rethink of the governance framework that informs the work of the three spheres of government, that is, the need for integration and efficient land governance and management; and effective urban space is more pronounced in the Gauteng Province. The Development Facilitation Act (67 of 1995) (DFA), which pre-date the 2001 White Paper, did attempt to deal with spatial development principles and a land use management mechanism. The SACN further notes that the “DFA was applied in parallel to existing provincial and Homeland planning legislation and mechanisms, and municipal Town Planning Schemes”.

As indicated earlier, Chapters 5 and 6 of the DFA dealing with land use management was declared unconstitutional. The DFA was repealed with the finalisation of the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA). SPLUMA is a national legislation that was passed by Parliament in 2013. SPLUMA dictates that the different elements of the municipal planning system such as Spatial Development Frameworks, sector plans and land use management must be aligned. It is essentially about the planning ecosystem.

SPLUMA advocates for normative principles to spatial planning and land use management. Furthermore, it articulates principles that must underpin all planning in the country. The principles include:

- *Spatial Justice* is largely about inclusion and redress.
- *Spatial sustainability* has to do with the combination of infrastructure design, human settlements and protection of the environment
- *Spatial efficiency* has to do with the maximisation of resources and spatial performance
- *Spatial Resiliency* is about the ability to withstand extreme occurrences and rebalancing to the original state.
- *Good administration* is about promoting transparency in decision-making, coordination across all three spheres of government and upholding good management values.

SPLUMA delegates the power to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) to pass Regulations in terms of SPLUMA to provide additional detail of how the law should be implemented. SPLUMA is one of the many pieces of legislation that advances the argument of the efficient utilisation of space and the realisation of spatial justice. This research argued that the Gauteng City-Region offers the best institutional design to deliver on its principles. To this extent, the focus of this research was to reveal the efforts by the leadership of the City of Tshwane in contributing towards the realisation of the Gauteng City-Region.

3.3.6 Urbanisation and globalisation as drivers of city-regions

Salm and Falola (2005: xi) observe that 'Africa has a long and rich history of urbanisation dating back thousands of years. Cities in ancient Egypt, the Western Sudan, Nigeria, Ethiopia, the East African City States, and Southern Africa appeared long before the arrival of Europeans to Africa's coasts. Since the Second World War, however, the pace of urban growth has increased rapidly, ensuring that studies of the political, social, economic, and cultural systems of the urban environments would follow close behind. To this day, the rapid urbanisation has continued unabated fuelled by poor living conditions in the rural areas and the apparent better life opportunities offered by the urban areas'.

The developing countries are almost exclusively responsible for the current wave of urbanisation experienced in the globe. In the past decade, the urban population in the developing world grew an average 1.2 million people per week, or slightly less than one full year's demographic growth in Europe's urban areas. Asia dominated the picture, adding 0.88 million new urban dwellers every week. Africa was the second largest contributor with an additional 0.23 million per week, dwarfing Latin America and the Caribbean's 0.15 million weekly increment (United Nations Human Settlements Programme [UN Habitat] 2013: 29). Rapid urbanisation, if well-managed, has the potential to spur economic well-being of those located in the urban spaces. According to Jakobson and Prakash (Eds. 1971: 39) the positive association of urbanisation with industrialisation and economic growth are well-known. Cities provide concentrations of population from which industrial labour may be drawn; they also contain a greater variety of skills and resources than do rural areas. Even more important perhaps, urbanisation promotes values favourable to entrepreneurship and industrial growth, in particular, cities typically tend to favour a propensity to analyse traditional institutions and to innovate and accept change since, in a relatively impersonal and fragmented setting of urban life, the all-embracing bonds of traditional community systems are difficult to maintain.

The major shortcoming of the argument by Jakobson and Prakash is the assumption that urbanisation in Africa is associated with industrialisation. The primary drivers of urbanisation in Africa is rural poverty and scarcity of opportunities in areas outside the tradition urban spaces. Migration to the urban centres is largely as a result of hope for a better life. The majority of those who migrate to the urban spaces do not possess the requisite skills to be absorbed into opportunities that present themselves in the urban spaces. The unabated urban economic momentum in Africa is a result of a number of the typical factors of prosperity at work in other regions of the world, such as economies of agglomeration, locational advantages, and diversification of the economic base albeit all in nascent form (UN Habitat 2013: 29). It is these typical factors that makes the continent attractive to major global industries. The quantum leaps in the technological field, improving infrastructure provision, low cost of labour, concentration of skills and labour; and policy incentives are resulting in global multinational companies finding major African cities to be attractive locations.

Herrmann (2013) notes that “globalisation has broken down geographical barriers and brought people, businesses and cities closer than ever. The ease of transport and communications, the hallmark of the globalised world, presents economies with increased opportunities and wider options. However, the competitive pressures are also rising for businesses and governments alike. With greater flexibility in the global supply chain, and a wealth of information easily accessible to anyone, today’s business powerhouse can come from any part of the world. New and emerging channels, such as social media and mobile devices, are also challenging established processes of market incumbents. Cities are also losing their top talents and investors, who are lured to move to locations that can offer them seamless connectivity, modern infrastructure as well as better safety and security”.

The Gauteng Province and its cities have positioned themselves ahead of their peers on the continent to benefit from a rapidly globalising economy. The concentration of both research and post-secondary institutions of learning in the in the City of Tshwane makes it an ideal location for commerce that is predisposed to innovation through research. Strong and credible financial institutions in the City of Johannesburg have led to Johannesburg being the financial hub of the African continent. This has further led to the agglomeration of skills in the respective municipalities and the emergence of a multicultural environment to accommodate new economic participants. Clearly, the full benefits of the advantages that the Gauteng cities have over their peers can be fully realised if they are coordinated and geared to work in a mutually reinforcing manner. It is at this stage that the idea of a Gauteng City-Region should be explored.

3.3.7 The emergence of city-regions

Globalisation has certainly been the single most important contributor to the current form of global economic organisation. The globalisation phenomenon has been largely driven by substantial advances in transport technology and communications. Kumar (2012) identifies the primary features of globalisation as:

- *Liberalisation*: the freedom of the industrialist/businessman to establish industry, trade or commerce either in his country or abroad; free exchange of capital, goods, service and technologies between countries.
- *Free Trade*: free trade between countries; absence of excessive governmental control over trade.
- *Globalisation of Economic Activities*: control of economic activities by domestic market and international market; coordination of national economy and world economy.

- *Connectivity*: localities being connected with the world by breaking national boundaries; forging of links between one society and another, and between one country and another through international transmission of knowledge, literature, technology, culture and information.
- *Borderless Globe*: breaking of national barriers and creation of inter- connectedness; the ideal of 'borderless globe' articulated by Kenichi Ohmae.
- *A Composite Process*: integration of nation-states across the world by common economic, commercial, political, cultural and technological ties; creation of a new world order with no national boundaries.
- *A multi-dimensional Process*: economically, it means opening up of national market, free trade and commerce among nations, and integration of national economies with the world economy. Politically, it means limited powers and functions of state, more rights and freedoms granted to the individual and empowerment of private sector; culturally, it means exchange of cultural values between societies and between nations; and ideologically, it means the spread of liberalism and capitalism.
- *A Top-Down process*: globalisation originates from developed countries and the MNCs (multinational corporations) based in them. Technologies, capital, products and services come from them to developing countries. In the face of aggression of globalisation, the people, in protest against the failure of the national government to defend them, develop or strengthen their allegiance to their community, locality, region or ethnic group. In this process, local identity, regional identity and ethnic identity take root and get strengthened. Globalisation goes hand in hand with localisation, regionalisation and multiculturalism.

- *Global State vs. Global Civil Society*: in protest against the harmful effects of globalisation on the vast multitude of people all over the world, particularly in developing countries, protest marches, demonstrations and meetings have been organized in different countries.

It is evident from the above features of globalisation that location competitiveness is not about the sovereign but largely about city spaces. Cities that stand to benefit the most from globalisation are those that have a critical mass of skills; advanced and reliable connectivity in relations to transport and internet; and are able to cater for a multicultural society. It is these cities that are likely to lift the economic performance of their respective countries. Pillay (2004) argues that the propensity for certain types of economic activity to gather together in dense locational clusters appears to have been intensifying in recent decades. This quest for mutual proximity on the part of all manner of economic agents at the present time is in significant degree a strategic response to heightened economic competition. Clustering enables firms to respond to these challenges by allowing them greater levels of operational flexibility and by enhancing their innovative capacities. Large city regions are thus functioning as territorial platforms from which concentrated groups or networks of firms contest global markets. It follows that to maximise the economic benefit, city-region coverage should encourage spatial coalitions across municipal and provincial boundaries.

Scott (2001) reinforces the point of coalitions by asserting that from a geographic point of view, global city-regions constitute dense polarized masses of capital, labour, and social life that are bound up in intricate ways in intensifying and far-flung extra-national relationships. As such, they represent an outgrowth of large metropolitan areas or contiguous sets of metropolitan areas together with surrounding hinterlands of variable extent which may themselves be sites of scattered urban settlements. In parallel with these developments, embryonic consolidation of global city-regions into definite political entities is also occurring in many cases, as contiguous local government areas (counties, metropolitan areas, municipalities, etc.) club together to form spatial

coalitions in search of effective bases from which to deal with both the threats and the opportunities of globalisation. So far from being dissolved away as geographic entities by processes of globalisation, city-regions are by and large actually thriving at the present time, and they are, if anything, becoming increasingly central to the conduct and coordination of modern life. There is likely to be great contestation on what constitute the boundaries of a city-region. City-Regions are in the main functional definitions of the economic connectedness but also of the social reach of cities. It is important to define them in order to determine the boundaries of those areas in which a majority of the population see the core city as their place – in which school, work or visit for entertainment.

The establishment of the city-region helps in dealing with major policy issues, as Yates (1977:167-168) argues that “in dealing with large-scale policy problems such as the externalities caused by population, job and industry movements as well as problems of school financing, welfare payments, environmental protection, and urban growth, the cities are too small as governmental units to provide solutions within the city limits. This is a point that has been made by generations of urban analysts, and it remains no less true today for having been repeated so often in the past. This failing of urban governance, which is not really the city’s failing at all, means there should be far greater centralised planning and financing of a number of urban functions by states and by the federal government”. Although Yates arrived at the above argument assessing a city in America, a completely different environment from the South African context, his argument remains relevant to examine the limitations of cities in the Gauteng Province. As argued earlier, there are a number of exogenous factors to cities that directly impact on their ability to deliver on service level promise. The rapid urbanisation, environmental degradation from toxic emissions, unfunded mandates, spatial inefficiencies and an unfavourable economic climate are some of the factors that undermine the ability of cities to deliver. These city constraints could be better addressed through coordinated planning and financing by the city-region.

Yates (1977: 6) also asserts that in saying that the city is ungovernable it implies:

- It is too dependent on higher-level governments to take strong, independent policy initiatives; and
- It is too dependent of higher-level government to ensure competence, control and fairness in the implementation of national programs’.

Viewed in another light, the city can be said to be ungovernable because the principal actors in it have limited control over its governance.

The realisation of a city-region in Gauteng should be able to remedy Yate’s observation.

3.4 Summary

This chapter established that the globalisation and urbanisation would make the GCR an inevitable reality. The chapter highlighted the major contributions of both globalisation and urbanisation to the structure and functioning of economies around the globe, in particular major urban centres such as Gauteng. These developments confirm Henry’s (2004) assertion that “the future of government will be significantly altered as a result of the developments. The vertical and horizontal linkages are key to the success of modern governments”. There is some degree of scope to work within the parameters of existing legislation to achieve some of the GCR elements. The success of the GCR will also be, in part, about the extent to which private and non-profit sectors are drawn into this project. Therefore, the realm of what constitutes public has been significantly redefined; it now includes multiple actors with varying and at times conflicting interests. The chapter determined that leadership is indispensable in steering the GCR agenda. As we enter the dawn of the ‘new public management’ where the managerial aspects are more dominant, it is the transformational leadership style is more suited to direct the journey to the GCR.

CHAPTER four: CITY OF TSHWANE'S PROJECTS IN SUPPORT OF THE EMERGENCE OF CITY REGIONS

4.1 Case 1: Tshwane public free WiFi

4.1.1 Introduction

The internet has gradually become an indispensable feature of economic growth in the current era of rampant globalisation, and the rapid expansion of knowledge horizons. The rate of accumulation, dispersion and exploitation of knowledge has become a major hallmark of leading economies in the world. Knott-Craig Jnr and Silber (2015: 6) observe that “the World Bank estimates that for every 10% of broadband penetration there is a 1, 28% growth in GDP. Universal internet access is the single most powerful lever to deal with inequality. Internet access should be a public good alongside water, electricity, public transport and roads”. For a City that harbours the ambitions of being a major driver of the economy of South Africa and looking to elevate its prominence in the Gauteng economic landscape, access and the utilisation of the internet would have to be perceived in a different light. If the claims made by Knott-Craig Jnr and Silber above hold to be true, then internet access should constitute the centre-piece of the efforts by the City to improve the economic wellbeing of its citizens and accelerate its economic growth.

4.1.2 Introduction Tshwane public free WiFi: Rationale

There is general consensus that the production and accumulation of knowledge has been at the centre of economic growth throughout the globe. The maturity of the internet ecosystems has fuelled the speed with which knowledge is created and accumulated and, most probably, will depreciate. Countries and firms that are at the cutting edge of knowledge production have proven to be the leaders in driving and influencing the pace and direction of growth in the world.

David and Foray (2002: 9) argue that “knowledge has been at the heart of economic growth and the gradual rise in levels of social well-being since immemorial. The ability to invent and innovate, that is to create new knowledge and new ideas that are then embodied in products, processes, and organisations has always served to fuel development. In addition, there have always been organisations and institutions capable of efficiently creating and disseminating knowledge; from medieval guilds through to the large companies of the early Twentieth Century, from the Cistercian abbeys to the royal academies of science that began to emerge in the Seventeenth Century”. The amount of information embedded in the internet suggests that access will significantly bolster the ability of its users to information with ease and on the go (using internet-enabled mobile phones). If the correlation of between knowledge production and development is accurate, then internet access is indispensable to development. It is this argument that persuaded the City to introduce public free WiFi in its municipal space.

4.1.3 Internet as the driver of knowledge discovery and economic growth

The modern day big multinational firms such as Google, Apple, Facebook; Uber etc. have redefined how people engage; produce and share information; access public transport; research and discover new vaccines, and build social networks. Others have chosen to use these platforms to perpetrate nefarious activities such as launching cyber-attacks, and abetting and executing acts of terror. The discovery and exploitation of new knowledge is unlikely to abate. The evidence suggests that it will accelerate at unprecedented levels and assume greater levels of sophistication. Clearly, the resolution of many of the challenges facing modern cities will partly be answered by the rate at which new knowledge is produced and subsequently exploited through innovative practices and/or inventions. The rate of exploitation of new knowledge will also foster economic growth and aid development. It is, however, important to note that the rate of knowledge production is largely predicated on the levels of internet penetration.

Zhang (2013, cited in Salahuddin & Gow: 2) contends that the penetration of the Internet usage as a part of the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) revolution is believed to be a significant contributor towards social and economic development. Quite expectedly, there has been spectacular growth in Internet usage especially in the past two decades in most of the developed and developing countries. Such phenomenal growth in Internet usage is attributed to the increasing investment in the rolling out of fixed and wireless Internet infrastructures expanding the bandwidth available for all types of communication services. All these services of the internet are believed to have been transforming economies with regards to productivity, growth and other macroeconomic effects. The argument for the penetration of Internet goes further in that at a micro level, it has been able to enhance labor productivity and has led to major revenue increases and cost savings in developed countries. By reducing information asymmetry in the market, identifying customers and production standards, the Internet has also helped to boost exports at the firm level (Litan & Rivlin, 2001 cited in Salahuddin & Gow: 3). Studies reveal the correlation between internet diffusion and macro-economic variables. In an effort to establish the relationship between income, the Gini index and the pattern of the internet diffusion curve, Zhang (2013, cited in Salahuddin & Gow: 5) revealed that “the developed countries had steeper Internet diffusion curves and shorter time lags than developing countries. The Gross Domestic Product per capita had positive correlation with the slope of the Internet diffusion curve while the Gini index had negative correlation”.

Holt and Jamison (2009 cited in Salahuddin & Gow: 4) analysed the association between ICT and economic growth as well as the connection between broadband Internet and economic growth. The study supported the positive impact of broadband deployment and adoption on economic growth in the USA. Choi (2010) estimated the effect of the Internet on service trade and found a significant positive relationship between the number of the Internet users and total service trade. It was concluded that a 10% increase in the number of Internet users prompted an increase in service trade of between 0.23% and 0.42%. The studies cited above only serve to confirm the utility of

the internet as a modern day instrument of addressing inequality, driving GDP and improving trade.

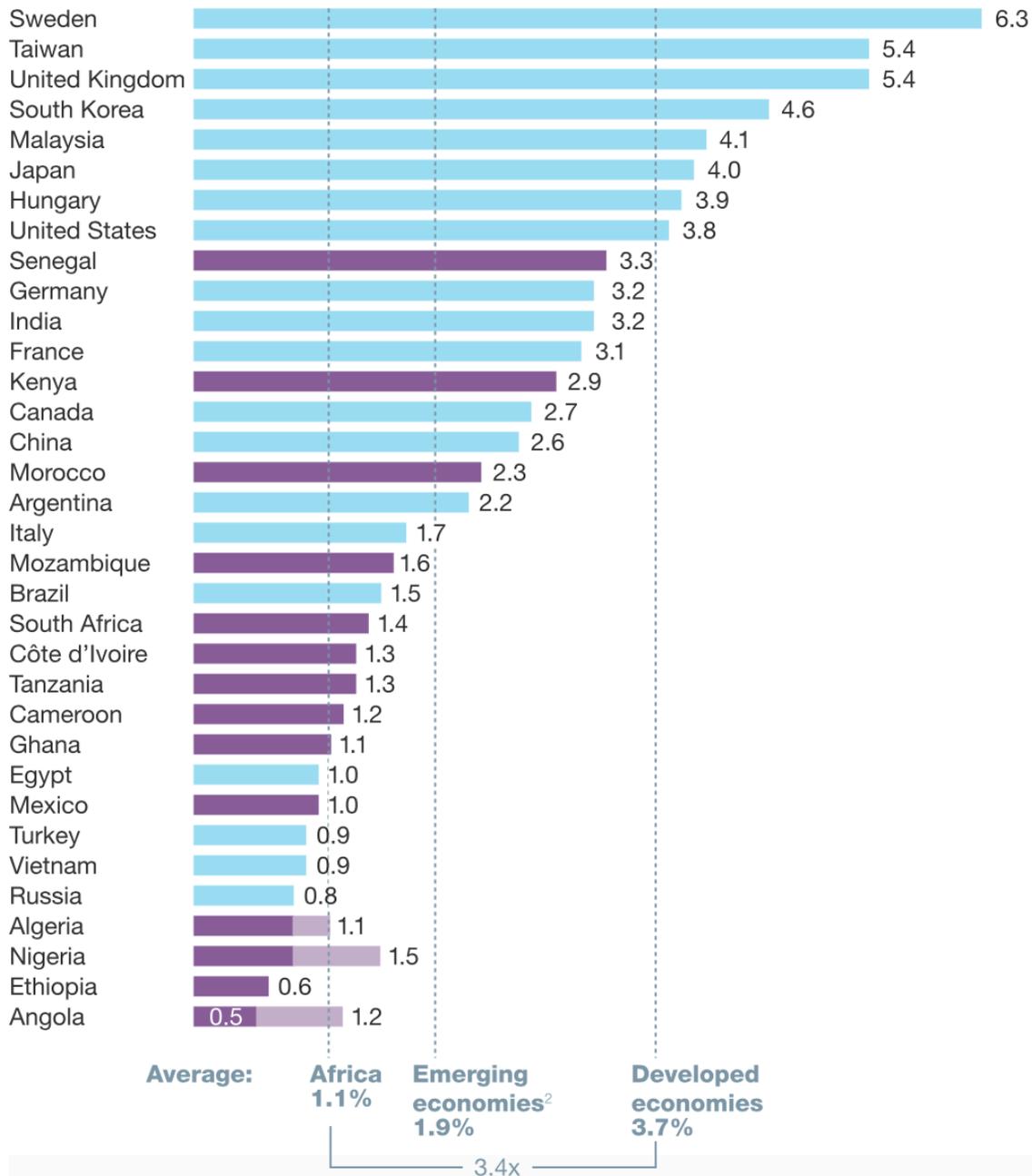
4.1.4 Internet use on the African Continent

The City was not in a position to enjoy the transformative benefits of investing in the internet services because of the combination of limited resources; major backlogs in the delivery of basic services; and the dominance of telecommunications players in the internet service provision in the country. This situation is replicated across the African continent, in that the contribution of internet to GDP is extremely muted. Internet service provision is largely considered as a luxury to be offered by private sector to those who can afford it. McKinsey Global Institute (2013) asserts that “today, Africa’s iGDP (which measures the Internet’s contribution to overall GDP) remains low, at 1.1 percent just over half the levels seen in other emerging economies. However, there is significant variation among individual countries. Senegal and Kenya, though not the continent’s largest economies, have Africa’s highest iGDPs, and governments in both countries have made concerted efforts to stimulate Internet demand”.

By 2025, Africa’s iGDP should grow to at least 5 to 6 percent, matching that of leading economies such as Sweden, Taiwan, and the United Kingdom. However, if the Internet achieves the same kind of scale and impact as the spread of mobile phones in Africa, iGDP could account for as much as 10 percent, or \$300 billion, of total GDP while producing a leap forward in economic and social development. Under this scenario, increased internet penetration and use could propel private consumption 13 times higher than current levels. Demographic trends including urbanisation, rising incomes, and a huge generation of young, tech-savvy Africans will drive this growth. McKinsey Global Institute (2013) reveals that the internet’s percentage share to GDP in South Africa is at 1.4%, which is better than the Africa average at 1.1% but lower than both the emerging and developed economies, which is at 1.9% and 3.7% respectively.

iGDP (Internet's contribution to GDP) by country, 2012, % of GDP¹

■ iGDP adjusted for oil revenues



¹GDP assessed by expenditure method, with a share of each category attributed to the Internet.

²Data are from 2010.

Figure 8: Internet's percentage contribution to GDP by country.

Figure 8 above further confirms that the emerging economies in general and the African continent in particular, are missing out on the potential of internet contribution to GDP due to limited access. Given the age demography of Africa and the poverty of internet access, the continent could significantly bolster its GDP growth by ensuring universal, free and reliable internet access.

4.1.5 Characteristic features of South Africa's Internet usage

Having noted the benefits of widening internet penetration, the City leadership took what at the time was considered a decision ahead of its time, namely, to designate the provision of; and access to, internet as a basic municipal service along the lines of the provision of decent shelter, clean portable water; water-borne sanitation, surfaced roads, and electricity. The City leadership also noted that there was a phenomenal increase in the ownership of mobile phones in the township and the country at large. As a result, South Africa has one of the largest telecommunications markets on the African continent. Mobile phones are in-fact taking the place of computer internet access and, recent reports have revealed that more than 60 percent of South Africans use cell phones regularly to access the internet (The reality of Mobile Usage and Social Media Growth in South Africa 2017).

The reality of Mobile Usage and Social Media Growth in South Africa further observes that 'although half the 50 million people in South Africa live below the poverty line, more than 75% among those in low-income groups who are 15 years or older own a mobile phone. Mobile ownership at the base of pyramid (BoP) – households with an income of less than R432 per month per household member – is relatively high compared to other African countries. This leads to the obvious conclusion that; "Social media is a key driver of mobile internet adoption, particularly in developing countries such as South Africa". Table 7 below illustrates the maturity of mobile phone penetration in South Africa. Furthermore, a significant share of the mobile phones in use are internet compliant.

Table 7: Characteristic features of mobile phones in South Africa

Indicator	Number/Percentage
South African population	51.8 million
Total unique subscribers (people)	40.7 million
Mobile penetration (active connections to population)	128%
Estimated active smartphones in South Africa	11 million
Estimated mobile data penetration (data mobile connections)	39%
Weighted blended Average Revenue Per User per month (ARPU)	R119
Prepaid subscriber base	83%
Post-paid (contract) subscriber base	17

Source: The reality of Mobile Usage and Social Media Growth in South Africa, 2017.

Internet penetration in South Africa has grown markedly at a rate greater than the population. Internet penetration has grown from 6.7% in 2002 to over 50% in 2016. Table 8 below tracks the annual growth in internet penetration over the period 2002 to 2016 including related changes in population.

Table 8: South Africa's Internet Users

Year	Internet Users	Penetration (% of Pop)	Total Population	Non-Users (Internet-less)	1Y User Change	1Y User Change	Population Change
2016*	28,580,290	52 %	54,978,907	26,398,617	3.9 %	1,078,982	0.9 %
2015*	27,501,308	50.5 %	54,490,406	26,989,098	4 %	1,056,471	0.97 %
2014	26,444,836	49 %	53,969,054	27,524,218	6.5 %	1,606,113	1.03 %
2013	24,838,723	46.5 %	53,416,609	28,577,886	14.7 %	3,175,441	1.1 %
2012	21,663,282	41 %	52,837,274	31,173,992	22.1 %	3,918,281	1.15 %
2011	17,745,001	34 %	52,237,272	34,492,271	43.2 %	5,355,819	1.19 %
2010	12,389,183	24 %	51,621,594	39,232,411	143 %	7,289,979	1.23 %
2009	5,099,203	10 %	50,992,034	45,892,831	20.1 %	854,799	1.28 %
2008	4,244,405	8.4 %	50,348,811	46,104,406	5.9 %	236,431	1.32 %
2007	4,007,974	8.1 %	49,693,580	45,685,606	7.5 %	278,360	1.36 %
2006	3,729,614	7.6 %	49,027,805	45,298,191	3 %	108,682	1.4 %
2005	3,620,931	7.5 %	48,352,951	44,732,020	-9.8 %	-395,083	1.44 %
2004	4,016,014	8.4 %	47,667,150	43,651,136	22 %	724,414	1.48 %
2003	3,291,600	7 %	46,971,250	43,679,650	6 %	186,585	1.51 %
2002	3,105,015	6.7 %	46,272,223	43,167,208	7.3 %	212,280	1.52 %
2001	2,892,736	6.3 %	45,579,161	42,686,425	20.5 %	491,401	1.52 %
2000	2,401,335	5.3 %	44,896,856	42,495,521	31.9 %	580,564	1.5 %

Source: The reality of Mobile Usage and Social Media Growth in South Africa 2017

4.1.6 The demographics of internet penetration in South Africa

The City leadership concluded that internet access and usage was largely a reflection of income distribution in the country. The wealthy could afford access whilst the poor were confronted with the daily struggles of survival, while access to internet being the least of their concerns. This trend, if it continues unabated, will imply that the digital divide will continue to grow which could severely weaken any efforts to lift the poor from conditions of abject poverty; and stifle the overall economic growth of the country and the City. Effective Measure (2015 cited in Internet Live Stats 2016) revealed that 23% of South African internet users are unemployed, which conforms to South Africa's official unemployment numbers. The results further revealed that a growing number of low-income earners are going online. Table 9 below reveals that there is a greater disposition by the youth to use the internet. The table also reveals that those 39 years and younger account for over 60% of the internet penetration in the country. With the advent of time, the share of internet penetration amongst the youth is likely to increase faster than among the older age groups because of a higher rate of absorption amongst the youth. The youth perceive the internet as the way of life, not a privilege.

Table 9: Percentage of internet penetration per age bracket

Age Bracket	Internet Penetration (%)
15-17	0.88
18-19	7.64
20-24	14.56
25-29	15.73
30-34	13.81
35-39	10.86
40-44	9.52
45-49	8.08
50-54	7.04
55-59	5.66
60+	6.22

Source: Effective Measure 2015

The percentage of internet users whose household income is less than R3 000 per month nearly doubled from 8.76% in January 2014 to the current 16%. This statistics demonstrate that the poor are using the internet increasingly for various purposes. Even those considered the poorest-of-the-poor (earning less than R499) have an internet penetration rate of 3.13%. They consider the utilisation of the internet as an important tool in their daily struggles. Table 10 below provides an indication of the Internet penetration rates across monthly household income brackets before tax. The general conclusion is that the rate of internet penetration is distributed fairly amongst the household income categories.

Table 10: Percentage of internet penetration by monthly household income bracket before tax

Monthly household income bracket before tax	Internet Penetration (%)
Up to R499	3.13
R500 - R799	2.92
R800 - R1099	3.07
R1100 - R1599	3.11
R1600 – R2999	4.01
R3000 – R5999	7.53
R6000 – R8999	5.95
R9000 – R11999	4.86
R12000 – R15999	5.90
R16000 – R19999	4.47
R20000 – R24999	4.64
R25000 – R29999	3.61
R30000 – R39999	4.31
R40000 – R49999	3.24
R50000 – R69999	3.41
R70000+	4.54
Dependent/ no income/ don't work	17.02
Prefer not to say	14.27

Source: Effective Measure 2015.

Understandably, the major urban centres account for the highest share of internet penetration in the country. This can be explained by higher per capita income levels, higher average levels of education, concentration of economic activity and the cost of delivery of internet services (due to higher densities) in the urban areas. The urban

centres of Johannesburg, Cape Town and Pretoria account for approximately 49% of South Africa's total internet penetration. Table 11 below provides more details.

Table 11: Percentage of internet penetration by stated place of residence

Where do you normally reside?	Internet Penetration
Johannesburg	25.61
Cape Town	12.40
Pretoria	10.91
Durban	8.97
Mpumalanga	5.94
Limpopo	5.83
Other Gauteng	5.05
Other Kwazulu-Natal	4.45
Northwest	3.99
Other Western Cape	3.29
Port Elizabeth	2.70
Other Eastern Cape	2.27
Other Free State	2.17
Bloemfontein	1.70
Pietermaritzburg	1.57
East London	1.57
Northern Cape	1.57

Source: Effective Measure 2015

4.1.7 Objectives of the Tshwane public free WiFi

The studies above confirm that internet penetration is a powerful instrument in effecting social change and improving the lives of the poor. The internet has a proven ability to help drive growth and position a city to be at the cutting edge of knowledge production and innovation. Therefore, in determining the objectives of this programme, the City leaders considered the totality of the benefits associated with free internet access. The objectives of the programme were as follows:

- *Enhance universal free internet access.* If one were to consider the price of data, it is obvious that the poor find it increasingly difficult to access the internet. Data has revealed that people have mobile phones but the cost of data is prohibitive for the poor. It is for this reason that in 2013 the leadership of the City committed to the provision of public free WiFi commencing in the poor areas, specifically schools in the predominantly Black townships. The ultimate aim of the project was to ensure that every person in the City is within walking distance of a public free WiFi site.
- *Exploit free internet access to help achieve social justice.* The City's leadership held that access to the internet had become a major issue of social justice. Dewan and Riggins (2005 cited in Scholtz 2011: 5) note that "it is therefore important to identify the individuals and geographical regions where digital access is lower than the norm in order to provide special attention to those groups and areas. This group of individuals is referred to as the risk group because these individuals have limited digital access. It is widely assumed that access to digital technologies would result in higher standards of living and improved social welfare through interaction, commerce and learning in a global community and individuals without digital access will be excluded from this community". It was for these reasons that the leadership of the City found it appropriate rollout public free WiFi in the economically distressed areas of Tshwane.

- *Position free internet access for educational purposes.* There is greater acceptance that the internet serves as the biggest virtual library in the world. The ability to discover and accumulate knowledge is now a function of one's appetite to use the internet and less about proximity to a physical library. As indicated in the preceding sections, the poor have internet enabled cell phones; and therefore, availability of free internet access enhances their chances of accessing and acquiring new knowledge. Therefore, free internet access for the poor could result in equitable access.
- *Make free internet access an economic enabler.* The introduction of free internet access would help lower the cost of communication, especially for small and micro businesses; and facilitate the participation of those on the margins to access economic opportunities. Free internet access would help improve communication and business competitiveness.
- *Enhance transparency and democratisation of in decision-making processes in the City.* There is an admission amongst legislators that the current methods of community engagement and consultation are not as effective as desired. There are many instances of malicious compliance on the part of the elected representatives related to public consultation on key matters of City administration. The penetration of the internet and its free access presents new opportunities and introduce more innovative and effective methods of consultation, in addition to the traditional forms of Izimbizo and Town Hall meetings. Public commentary on significant matters of City governance can be canvassed through modern electronic means.

4.1.8 The implementation of Tshwane public free WiFi

The project to rollout public free WiFi in the City was called the Tshwane Public Free WiFi (TshWiFi). The City planned to finance the rollout of TshWiFi over the Medium Term Revenue and Expenditure Framework (MTREF) as defined in the Municipal Finance Management Act. The budget allocations would be drawn directly from the City's fiscus through a process of reprioritisation of projects. The reprioritisation processes were designed to ensure that the City does not incur additional capital costs but works within the resource envelope to accommodate new capital requirements. This was achieved through a combination of realising additional savings and move certain projects to be funded in the outer years of the budget cycle. The budget allocations were stretched over a period of three years. Table 12 below provides the details of the financial allocations and the number of the TshWiFi sites to be yielded.

Table 12: Multi-year budget allocation for Tshwane public free WiFi

Financial Year	Budget allocation (R'm)	Number of sites to be rollout
2013/2014	120	280
2014/2015	100	280
2015/2016	70	300
2016/2017	70	300

Source: City of Tshwane 2016.

Having noted the inordinate costs charged by major telecommunication players in rolling-out a service of this nature, the leadership of the City opted to partner with a non-profit organisation (NPO) called Project Isizwe (Isizwe). The rationale to partner with Isizwe goes beyond the fact that it is an NPO. Isizwe was selected because it had set its sights on providing affordable, efficient, and reliable internet access across the entire African continent, as well as prioritising its poor and marginalised communities. Secondly, Isizwe was founded and led by one of South Africa's most successful and respected social media pioneers, Mr. Alan Knott-Craig Jnr. Mr. Knott-Craig Jnr was central in establishing some of the most innovative companies in the country, such as the social media network, MixIt. The City considered his experience invaluable in implementing TshWiFi and make it a successful innovation. The networks created by Mr. Knott-Craig Jnr in the industry were considered important to the success of an initiative that hitherto was not associated with public sector offerings. In essence, the City saw Mr. Knott-Craig Jnr's involvement as significantly de-risking the programme.

The City required Isizwe to recruit and deploy young local or aspiring graduates to help with the technical rollout of the project. The purpose of this requirement was to transfer the City's youth skills and take keen interest in the development of the ICT space. The City leadership held that TshWiFi should not be another public free WiFi project, but distinguish itself by offering service levels that either match or surpasses that of the private sector. It is for this reason that the technical specifications of TshWiFi has no peer in the public free WiFi space, be it public or private. Below are the general specifications of TshWiFi which were agreed on with Isizwe:

- A single "click to connect" page.
- No registration process (MAC address of device is recorded); this is to reduce challenges for new internet users, thereby maximising adoption. Neither a username nor password would be required to login.
- Minimum 50MB per device per day for general internet access (e.g. Google, YouTube, etc.).

- Minimum 1mbps average speed per WiFi user as measured over a 30-day period. Unlimited access to a local content portal that opens automatically upon clicking “connect”.
- Capacity for 5,000 users per site, catering for 500 concurrent user connections per site.
- 97% uptime as measured over a 30-day period (excluding downtime due to electricity grid outages. No service during load-shedding or electric outages.)
- Coverage area is limited by end user devices that have a 100m distance based on internal antenna power; the latest end user devices can connect at up to 150m.
- Costs to include all equipment, installation, maintenance, insurance, bandwidth, labour and operations.
- The Free WiFi zones are provided as a service and treated as operating expenditure. The network should not be owned by the municipality, thereby removing it from the ambit of capital budget or SITA involvement.
- Free WiFi must be for spaces that are available to the public 24/7; i.e.: not libraries after hours.
- Email support for WiFi users.
- Adult content blocked.

In terms of the agreed governance model of the TshWiFi, Isizwe would report to the Group Chief Information Officer (GCIO) of the City and the GCIO would provide bi-monthly project progress reports to the Mayoral Committee of the City.

4.1.9 Summary

The City leadership demonstrated a bold and assertive approach in implementing TshWiFi. It is not common in South Africa for the local government sector to be associated with the delivery of programmes that fall outside its mandate as stipulated in the Constitution. Many critics had referred to TshWiFi as a vanity programmes that has little to do with the toil and suffering of the people of the City. However, the City leadership considered the provision of public free WiFi has central to its goal to improve the quality of life of its citizens and stimulate economic development across the City.

The demographic profile of the City, and the economic spinoffs associated with the provision of TshWiFi provided a compelling case for its roll-out. Experiences in other parts of the world, especially the developed countries, served as empirical evidence of the immense benefits associated with the rollout. The significant contribution of the internet to the GDP of leading countries such as Sweden and the United Kingdom provided a compelling basis to experiment with the provision of free public WiFi in the City. The levels of mobile phone penetration in the City and internet usage suggest that there is an already existing enthusiasm for the introduction of TshWiFi. The costs associated with internet usage have proven to be prohibitive to many communities in the City, especially poor households. One of the benefits associated with the successful introduction of TshWiFi is the potential to significantly close the digital gap in the City. TshWiFi would further offer a platform for the poor and marginalised to access information and opportunities with relative ease.

The TshWiFi delivery model is a unique feature of the programme. The interest of a credible non-profit organisation, Project Isizwe, led by a reputable social media entrepreneur provided greater legitimacy to the programme. The expertise of the delivery partner helped to significantly de-risk the programme. The determination of crisp and clear programme specifications would help to track and monitor the performance of the programme. The inclusion of empowerment by the delivery partner,

would result in the creation and utilisation of local skills which would in turn improve the lives of the beneficiaries. This requirement could potentially bolster the creation of a new generation of entrepreneurs in the City. The decision to phase-in the programme over a period of three financial-years would help ease the financial obligations of the City, and provide room to improve the life of the roll-out of the programme. The decision of the City to designate the GCIO as the project sponsor would help in the smooth management of the programme, and further eliminate any forms of delays in decision-making.

4.2 CASE 2: Tshwane Bus Rapid Transport: A Re Yeng

4.2.1 Introduction

One of the principal questions facing the policy makers and planners in rapidly urbanising cities is the exploitation of the space economy. SACN (2013) defines the space economy as 'comprising of spatial regions as contiguous spaces that share common or related flows and markets for economic activities such as labour and land markets and infrastructure platforms. It is the spatial manifestation of hundreds of individual economic decisions, actions and connections that together influence space and are in turn influenced by space'.

The poor management of space economy could result in the continued marginalisation of sections of the community, especially the poor, resulting in greater inequality; could exacerbate historical, racial and income divisions and/or generate new forms of spatial inequality (Sinclair-Smith & Turok 2012 cited in Harrison *et al.* 2014: 117). Therefore, the monopoly of cities to articulate spatial policy is an effective tool at the disposal of the democratic state to be used in undermining the Apartheid spatial logic. Taxis, buses and trains are the principal modes of transport for the many in South Africa, therefore, it is only logical to target the transformation of these modes as a priority in reshaping the space economy.

4.2.2 Rationale for introducing A Re Yeng

Transport planning is one such policy instrument that can help increase mobility and accessibility. Penalosa (2008 cited in Harrison *et al.* 2014: 195) asserts that "the primary goal of transport planning 'should be to concurrently improve mobility and accessibility at the lowest possible cost to society. To achieve this goal, planners need to make trade-offs that balance location proximity and cost of land, private and public interest, short and long-term interests, and even the conflicting desires of the wealthier and poor members of society. In fact, a well-planned city should be measured in terms of the

extent to which the poorer and wealthier members of society are able to mix in urban space, the goal being to maximise mix”.

Improving urban public transport networks and systems continues to be critically important, given the spatial marginalisation of the urban poor who live in state-subsidised housing and informal settlements on the periphery of large cities. Because of their location, poor people have to travel long distances and pay high transport costs: more than 50% of the poor urban residents spend more than 20% of their declared household income on transport (Kane 2006 cited in South African Cities Network [SACN] 2016). Large cities such as Johannesburg and Cape Town, have introduced bus rapid transit (BRT) systems, as a drive to improve and integrate public transport (SACN 2016). The introduction of A Re Yeng is considered a major game-changer in the City as it provides an opportunity to lead and direct spatial reconfiguration in its municipal space. A Re Yeng was introduced to give meaningful impetus to a comprehensive redefinition of the space economy of the City. In short, A Re Yeng will be a means to an end, not an end in itself.

4.2.3 Public transport in South Africa

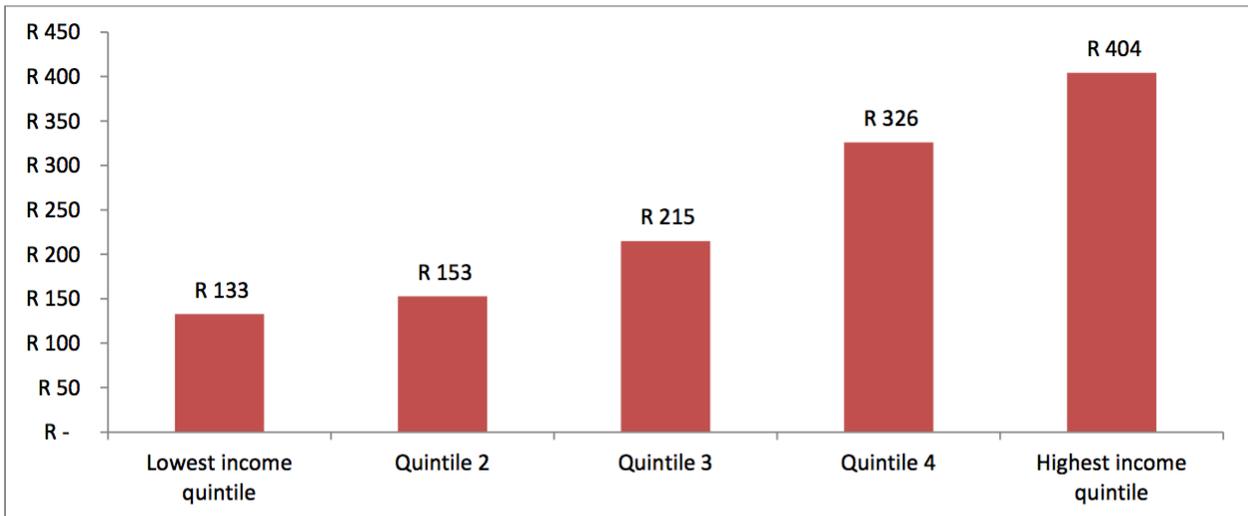
The quality of public transport provision in South Africa has resulted in the more affluent resorting to utilising private vehicles to meet their commuting and travel needs, whilst the poor rely on public transport. Taxis are the commonly used mode of public transport in South Africa with approximately 51, 0% of the households use public transport (76, 7%) followed by busses (18, 1%) and trains (7, 6%) (NHTS 2013). Table 13 below confirms a rational apprehension that the poor are more reliant on public transport. The unscheduled form of public transport and taxis, remain the dominant form of public transport provision in the country.

Table 13: Primary mode of transport used per income quintile

Household income quintile	Statistics ('000)	Main mode							Total
		Public transport			Private transport		Walking all the way	Other	
		Train	Bus	Taxi	Car driver	Car passenger			
Lowest income quintile	Number	161	673	1 770	40	92	101	14	2 851
	Per cent	5,6	23,6	62,1	1,4	3,2	3,5	0,5	100,0
Quintile 2	Number	198	637	1 711	51	142	63	13	2 816
	Per cent	7,0	22,6	60,8	1,8	5,0	2,2	0,5	100,0
Quintile 3	Number	261	538	1 658	110	206	56	13	2 843
	Per cent	9,2	18,9	58,3	3,9	7,2	2,0	0,5	100,0
Quintile 4	Number	316	493	1 386	281	331	30	9	2 845
	Per cent	11,1	17,3	48,7	9,9	11,6	1,1	0,3	100,0
Highest income quintile	Number	136	243	708	947	782	13	8	2 838
	Per cent	4,8	8,6	24,9	33,4	27,6	0,5	0,3	100,0
Total	Number	1 073	2 585	7 234	1 428	1 554	264	58	14 195
	Per cent	7,6	18,2	51,0	10,1	10,9	1,9	0,4	100,0

Source: NHTS 2013
Other includes: Scooter, animal transport, etc.

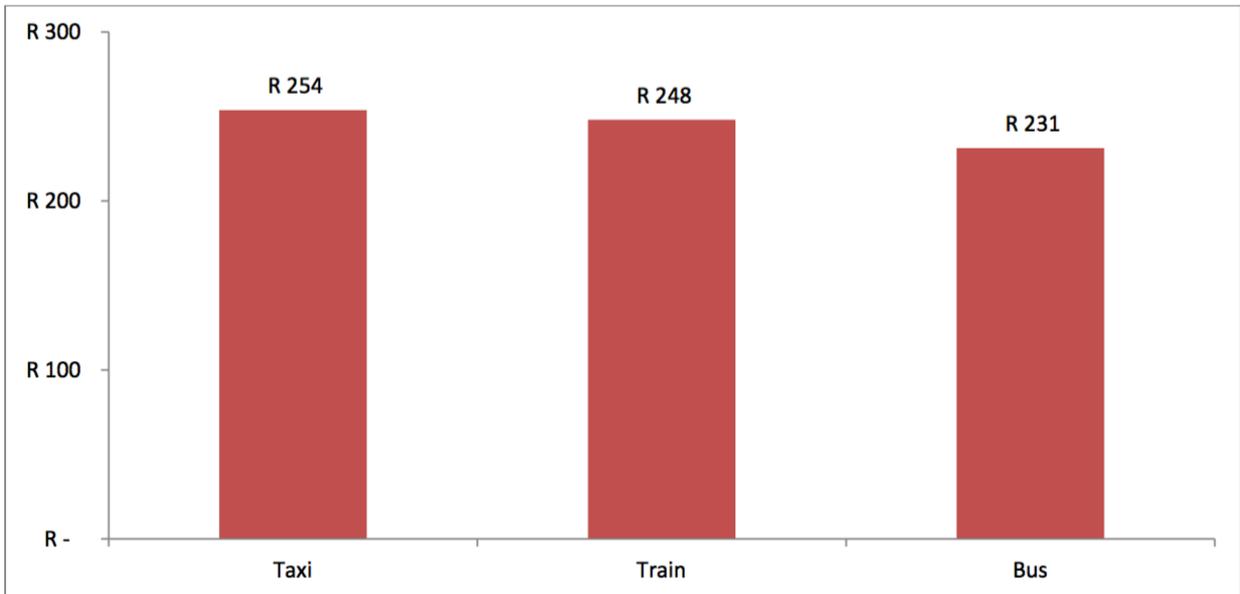
Figure 9 reveals that the average per capita monthly household travel cost is higher for households from the highest income quintile (R404) compared to households from the lowest income quintile (R136) (NHTS 2013). This notwithstanding, the households from lower income quintiles still spend a disproportionately higher percentage of their income (refer to Figure 11) on travel. This results in less disposable income in the hands of the poor resulting in continued poverty and marginalisation. The public transport costs, do perpetuate the acute income inequality levels in the country.



Source: NHTS 2013

Figure 9: Average per capita monthly household travel cost of households who use public transport per income quintile.

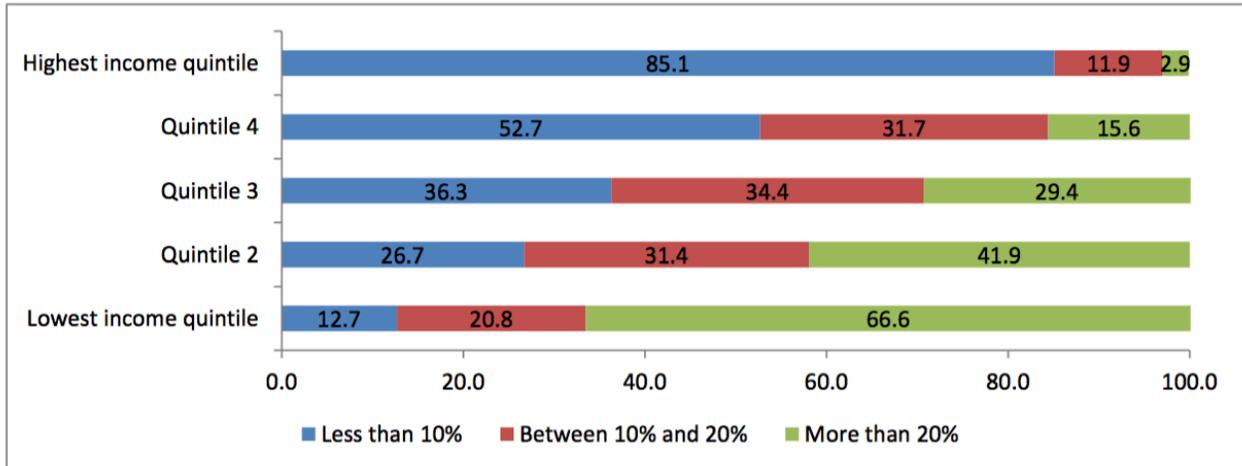
Figure 10 reveals that taxis were reported to be the most expensive mode of travel with an average per capita monthly cost of R254, followed by trains (R248) and buses (R231) (NHTS 2013). The choice of taxis, albeit relatively expensive, has largely to do with their accessibility. Taxis are willing to access the most remote and inhospitable areas such as informal settlements. The provision of taxi services is not reliant on proper infrastructure such as roads or loading facilities. Wherever there is a settlement, taxi services are guaranteed. The taxi service is relatively more expensive because it is not subsidised, therefore, the operators seek to recover all costs from the user. There is every reason to believe that a more detailed study on the cost of each mode could reveal taxis to be cheaper to the taxpayer in that they are not subsidised compared to other public transport modes.



Source: NHTS 2013

Figure 10: Average per capita monthly household travel cost of households which used public transport per type of public transport mode.

Households from the lowest income quintile spent a higher proportion of their income on public transport compared to households from the highest income quintile. More than two-thirds of households which fall in the lowest income quintile spent more than 20% of their monthly household income per capita on public transport (66, 6%). Less than 3% of the households from the highest income quintile spent more than 20 per cent of their monthly household income per capita (2, 9%) on transport (NHTS 2013, figure 11). Figure 11 confirms that the introduction of an affordable, reliable and safe A Re Yeng will be more beneficial to the poor and could significantly improve their living experiences.



Source: NHTS 2013

Figure 11: Percentage of monthly household income per capita spent on public transport per quintile.

Table 14 below reveals that approximately 11, 1 million households in South Africa use public transport as their mode of travel. The majority of those households reside in metropolitan areas (4, 4 million), followed by rural areas (3, 9 million) and 2, 8 million from urban areas. Across all geographic locations, taxis constituted the largest proportion as their mode of travel, followed by buses and trains (Stats SA 2015).

Table 14: Households which use public transport per geographic location

Mode of travel	Statistics ('000)	Geographic location			
		Metro	Urban	Rural	RSA
Train	Number	910	116	77	1 103
	Per cent	20,8	4,1	2,0	9,9
Bus	Number	879	384	1 353	2 616
	Per cent	20,1	13,6	34,7	23,6
Taxi	Number	2 581	2 329	2 467	7 377
	Per cent	59,0	82,3	63,3	66,5
Total	Number	4 371	2 829	3 896	11 095
	Per cent	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: NHTS 2013

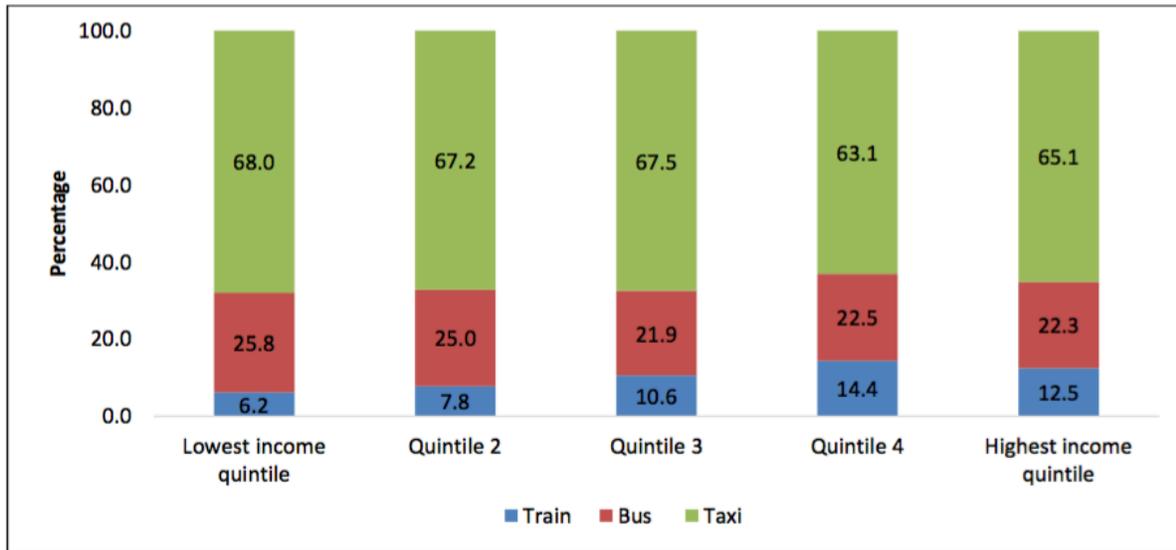
Of the 5,3 million households which use public transport and provided their household income and travel expenses, approximately 2,2 million spent less than 10 per cent of their monthly income per capita on public transport. Interestingly, an equal number was observed for both households which spent more than 20% and between 10% and 20% (1,5 million) respectively. Approximately more than 60 per cent of households which earn R500 or less spend more than 20% of their monthly income per capita on public transport, whereas approximately 90% which earn more than R6 000 revealed that they spend less than 10 per cent of their monthly household income per capita on public transport (Stats SA 2015).

Table 15 below illustrates that Gauteng has the highest percentage (32.3%) of households which spent more than 20% of their per capita income on public transport. This is despite the fact that the province is the most densely populated and is expected to have fewer travel distances compared to rural provinces. The most plausible explanation for this anomaly is that there is greater demand for public transport in the province compared to sparsely populated, poor and rural provinces. Therefore, the advent of the BRT systems will most likely have a major impact in the dense province of Gauteng.

Table 15: Distribution of monthly household income per capita spent on public transport

Province	Statistics (numbers in thousands)	Monthly household income per capita spent on PT			Total
		Less than 10%	Between 10% and 20%	More than 20%	
Western Cape	Number	328	133	117	579
	Per cent	56,7	23,0	20,3	100,0
Eastern Cape	Number	176	142	127	445
	Per cent	39,6	31,9	28,5	100,0
Northern Cape	Number	31	12	9	52
	Per cent	59,2	22,6	18,1	100,0
Free State	Number	110	68	77	255
	Per cent	43,2	26,8	30,1	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	Number	400	287	322	1 010
	Per cent	39,6	28,4	31,9	100,0
North West	Number	149	111	93	354
	Per cent	42,3	31,4	26,3	100,0
Gauteng	Number	671	513	568	1 752
	Per cent	38,3	29,3	32,4	100,0
Mpumalanga	Number	171	131	96	399
	Per cent	42,9	32,9	24,1	100,0
Limpopo	Number	188	96	130	414
	Per cent	45,5	23,1	31,4	100,0
RSA	Number	2 225	1 494	1 540	5 259
	Per cent	42,3	28,4	29,3	100,0
Monthly per capita household income					
Up to R500	Number	136	209	574	919
	Per cent	14,8	22,8	62,5	100,0
R501-R1 000	Number	357	373	433	1 164
	Per cent	30,7	32,1	37,2	100,0
R1 001-R3 000	Number	870	689	472	2 030
	Per cent	42,8	33,9	23,2	100,0
R3 001-R6 000	Number	534	193	54	781
	Per cent	68,4	24,7	6,9	100,0
>R6 000	Number	328	29	8	365
	Per cent	90,0	8,0	2,1	100,0

Source: NHTS 2013
Note: PT = public transport



Source: NHTS 2013

Figure 12: Percentage of households which used public transport per income quintiles.

Figure 12 highlights that across all income quintiles, taxis were the most commonly used mode of travel (NHTS 2013). This conforms to Fobosi (2013) who revealed that the minibus taxi industry provides a vital service to millions of South Africans, and is thus considered a servant of the urban poor. It does not only serve the poor in terms of transporting them, but also creates employment for the majority of the urban poor who remain marginalised from accessing employment opportunities. Buses were the second most used mode of travel, followed by trains. On the other hand, households from the upper quintiles of the income distribution (quintile 3 to highest income quintile) were more likely to use trains as the mode of travel compared to households from the lowest income quintile and quintile 2 (Stats SA 2015). What is apparent from the Stats SA study is that the meaningful improvement of the lives of the poor will be greatly enhanced through the provision of a reliable, safe, affordable and efficient public transport. The realisation of the delivery of such level of transport service could potentially attract private car users into the public transport domain.

4.2.4 Municipalities legal obligations related to provision of public transport

The Constitution provides for the powers of various spheres of government in South Africa. Section 156 of the Constitution provides for the powers and functions of municipalities and stipulates that ‘a municipality has executive authority in respect of, and has the right to administer –

- (a) The local government matters listed in Part B of Schedule 4 and part B of Schedule 5; and
- (b) Any other matter assigned to it by the national or provincial legislation.

Part B of Schedule 4 lists the following local government matters to the extent set out in section 155 (6) (a) and (7):

- Air pollution
- Building regulations
- Child care facilities
- Electricity and gas reticulation
- Fire-fighting services
- Local tourism
- Municipal airports
- Municipal planning
- Municipal health services
- Municipal public transport
- Municipal public works only in respect of the needs of municipalities in the discharge of their responsibilities to administer functions specifically assigned to them under this Constitution or any other law
- Pontoons, ferries, jetties, piers and harbours, excluding the regulation of international; and national shipping and matters related thereto
- Storm water management systems in built-up areas

- Trading regulations
- Water and sanitation services limited to potable water supply systems and domestic waste-water and sewage disposal systems

Part B of Schedule 5 includes, *inter alia*, municipal roads.

It is not surprising that the 1996 White Paper on the National Transport Policy had as its strategic thrust to ensure that the South African transport system is adequate to meet the basic accessibility needs in the rural and urban areas. The aforementioned White Paper identified several strategic objectives:

- Affordable public transport, with commuters spending less than about 10 per cent of disposable income on transport.
- Passenger transport services that address user needs, including those of commuters, pensioners, the aged, scholars, the disabled, tourists, and long distance passengers.
- Improve accessibility and mobility, limiting walking distances to less than about one kilometre in urban areas.
- Provide an appropriate and affordable standard of accessibility to work, commercial and social services in rural areas.
- Promote safe and secure, reliable and sustainable passenger transport.

Pursuant to the strategic objectives as outlined in the White Paper on the National Transport Policy, the National Land Transport Act No. 5 of 2009 (NLTA) was consented to on 08 April 2009. The NLTA was meant to further transform and restructure the national transport system initiated by the National Land Transport Transition Act 2000 (Act No. 22 of 200) as well as provide for matters connected therewith. Section 11 (1) (c) of the NLTA stipulates the responsibilities of the municipal sphere of government, which include:

- Developing land transport policy and strategy within its area based on national and provincial guidelines, which includes its vision for the area and incorporates spatial

development policies on matters such as densification and infilling, as well as development corridors.

- Ensuring co-ordination between departments and agencies in the municipal sphere with responsibilities that impact on transport and land use planning issues, and bringing together relevant officials.
- The planning, implementation and management of modally integrated public transport networks and travel corridors for transport within the municipal area and liaising in that regard with neighbouring municipalities.

4.2.5 The implementation of A Re Yeng

To fulfil the wide-ranging legal obligations, the City developed an Integrated Public Transport Network (IRPTN) that intended to transform the public transport system. The NLTA also outlined the responsibilities of a municipality in respect of an overall land transport system. This required the City to consider its current business structure, and determine whether it is geared towards achieving its role as identified in the NLTA including its objectives for effective implementation of a BRT system (Madlala 2012: 2). Therefore, the City acknowledged the potential of the BRT to substantially reconfigure the spatial orientation of its space. The City identified and prioritised the first phase BRT corridors as the northern corridor from the CBD towards Mabopane and an eastern corridor to Mamelodi via Hatfield and Menlyn. The BRT Line 1 (Northern Corridor) route originally followed a route from Paul Kruger Street to DF Malan and the R80 terminating in Mabopane. This route was subsequently amended to run from Paul Kruger Street to Rachel De Beer, Akasia, Doreen and stop in Soshanguve.

The BRT Line 2 Route followed a route south-west from Mamelodi towards Lynnwood, Hatfield, Brooklyn and the CBD. This route was finalised in the BRT Line 2 Review Report and approved by Council in April 2012. The Map below illustrates the route alignment and Phasing for the BRT Operations Plan Phase 1 (BRT operational Plan for the City of Tshwane 2012: 14).

4.2.6 The A Re Yeng Operational Plan

The Operational Plan for the City of Tshwane's Bus Rapid Transport System (the BRT Ops Plan) which articulates the various stages in the implementation of the BRT was finalised in June of 2012. The BRT Ops Plan (2012) identified the following as the key steps for implementation:

- *Network Planning.* The planning of the Phase 1 BRT system as part of the IRPTN focused on the detailed development to align BRT Lines 1 and 2 as discussed above. The development of the lines was influenced and informed by a several factors listed below:
 - The overall passenger demand (public and private) in the primary movement corridors;
 - The need to not only service the primary corridor movements (i.e. longer trips) but also the residential and employment suburbs along the main corridors (i.e. shorter trips);
 - The integration of the existing and new modes making up the IRPT network;
 - The suitability of the road infrastructure along the corridors to provide the exclusive trunk bus lanes, stations and passing lanes at stations;
 - The current and future land use proposals along the corridors; and
 - The comments and concerns of the Departments of Transport (DoT) and National Treasury in regard the original BRT system designed in 2009 and 2010.

- *Demand Modeling.* The planning tool to assist in the development of the IRPT and the BRT system in particular is the City's EMME/3 transportation planning model. This model was developed in 2010 and 2011, and simulates all passenger and car trips across the city in the weekday morning peak hour. The model is generalised-cost based, and therefore requires the quantification of modal trip utilities, which are in turn used to estimate mode choice using Logit-based mode choice models.
- *Operational Scheduling.* An Operational Cost Model (OCM) was developed to refine the output (fleet requirement) from the EMME model by applying operational principles to optimally schedule the vehicle fleet meet the EMME demand.
- *Financial Modeling.* Financial modelling is performed by means of two separate models, each with its own characteristics and aimed at specific purposes.
 - FINMOD. The first model FINMOD was created for and owned by City. . This model processes extensive series of all expenditure and revenues of the BRT system and provides results in the form of corporate financial statements that will indicate whether there is a viable business proposition for the project.
 - Logit-Based-Bus-Operator-Operating-Model. The second financial model was a supportive one for the comprehensive FINMOD and aimed at providing a user friendly and transparent tool to test various operational scenarios and sensitivity tests.
- *Infrastructure Design.* The City BRT system was developed in accordance with current National and CiTy Local Design Standards. The designs incorporate "Lessons Learnt" from the construction of other BRT systems in South Africa, including the Rea Vaya (Johannesburg) and the MyCiTi (Cape Town).
- *ITS: BRT Control Centre, Fare System, UTC.* The Intelligent Transport System (ITS), Control Centre and Urban Traffic Control (UTC) systems allows for active management of the BRT system and the surrounding road networks to maximise its

efficiency.

- *BRT Stations*. Two types of Stations were utilised for the City BRT, namely:
 - The Memory Box concept; and
 - Retro Tram Concept.

The Memory Box concept was located on Paul Kruger Street. This concept included imagery and information relating to the historic buildings surrounding it. The Retro-Tram concept was selected for the Stations outside the CBD. This concept evokes the imagery of the old tramlines realised in a modern style. Its distinctive design and allegory to trams suggests a timeless quality that is rooted in the past but also reflects a modernity of the future.

4.2.7 Project Funding and Implementation timelines

The BRT project was to be funded primarily from Public Transport Infrastructure and Systems (PTIS) Grants, with a relatively small percentage of funding sourced externally. The City further resolved to raise 70% of the funding for the initial acquisition of the 254 buses through the debt capital market. Approximately R2.5 billion would be required to fund the first three years of the BRT rollout. The budget breakdown for the three financial years was as follows: R748 702 000 for 2012/13; R773 761 000 for 2013/14; and R995 571 000 for 2014/15. The phasing of the project as illustrated in the Table 16 below, was designed to be appropriate for the three-year budget cycle.

Table 16: Phasing the A Re Yeng project

Item No.	Infrastructure Construction Phasing	Construction Area Description	BRT Line	Construction Start Date	Construction Completion Date	'Go Live' Date
1	Phase 1A	CBD (Paul Kruger Street) to Hatfield	BRT Line 2A	August 2012	October 2013	January 2014 BRT Inception Phase
2	Phase 1B	Hatfield (University Road) to Menlyn	BRT Line 2B	January 2013	February 2015	April 2015 BRT Operational Phase 1
3	Phase 1C	CBD (Boom Street) to Rainbow Junction	BRT Line 1A	June 2013	January 2015	April 2015 BRT Operational Phase 1
4	Phase 1C	Rainbow Junction to Akasia	BRT Line 1B	June 2013	January 2015	April 2015 BRT Operational Phase 1
5	Phase 1C	Menlyn to Denneboom Station	BRT Line 2C	June 2013	January 2016	April 2016 BRT Operational Phase 2
6	Phase 1D	Akasia to Kopanong	BRT Line 1C	June 2014	January 2016	April 2016 BRT Operational Phase 2
7	Phase 1E	Rachel de Beer Street	BRT Line 1B	January 2015	January 2016	February 2016 BRT Operational Phase 2

Source: City of Tshwane (2012)

4.2.8 Governance Model

The BRT project sponsors acknowledged that its transformational nature meant that a number of transport actors were affected by the project. To minimise any friction and resistance to the project, the governance model allowed for the inclusion of key parties affected by the project, namely, the bus and taxi operators. This approach gave effect to the legal requirements in terms of the National Land Transport Act (NLTA). The management of the BRT would be the overarching institutional structure undertaken by the City, whilst the Bus Operating Company(s) (BOC) is privately owned. The ultimate shareholders of the BOC would thus be the affected operators, comprising primarily of bus and mini-taxi owners (City of Tshwane 2012, Figure 13).

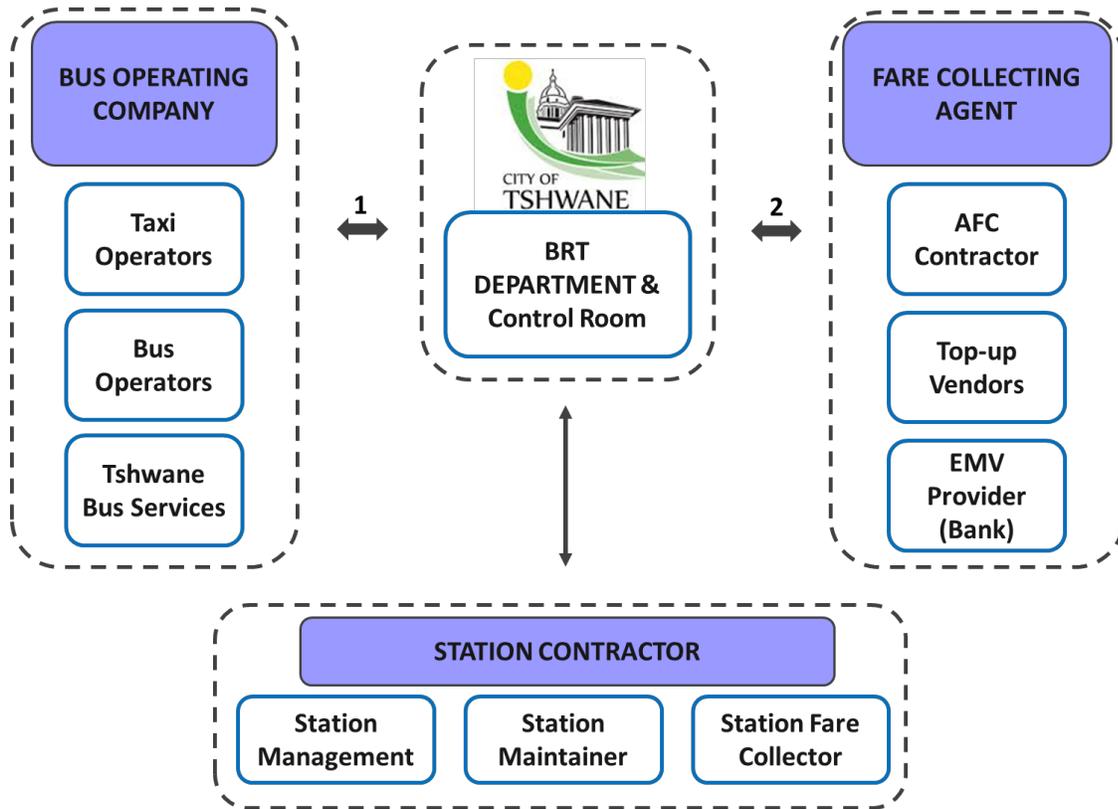


Figure 13: A Re Yeng business model

4.2.9 Summary

Public transport remains the principal mode of choice for many people in the country. The poor are particularly reliant on public transport to meet their daily commuting needs. The taxis are the most popular mode of transport compared to busses and trains. The popularity of taxis is despite being the most expensive of the three principal modes of public transport in the City. Over 66% of the lowest income quintile spent more than 20% of their monthly household income on public transport compared to only 2.9% of the highest income quintile.

The provision of efficient, affordable, reliable, safe and integrated public transport is central to any efforts to reconfigure the Apartheid space. The introduction of the BRT systems provides the most attractive opportunity to realise the objective of eradicating the Apartheid ideology. The introduction of the BRT system is such that it does not compete with other forms of subsidised public transport, but operates in an integrated manner with such services. Spatial transformation, with the introduction of the BRT system is led and anchored by an integrated spatial framework that defines, amongst others, densities and zoning. The integrated spatial framework informs the formulation of the IRPTN, which models the ridership of the BRT. This ridership is a function of densities, and public transport biased planning. IRPTN informs and guides the choice of route alignment, which is a crucial factor in the success of the BRT system.

The participation of all public transport industry players is indispensable to the successful introduction and operations of the BRT system in the City. The BRT should be in the position to achieve transformational goals such as the reconfiguration of the City space, and the creation of new ownership patterns in the industry. The establishment of a Bus Operating Company, comprised of affected operators gives concrete meaning to the goal of altering the public transport ownership patterns. The relationship of the City and the BOC is managed through a comprehensive agreement that stipulates the obligations of each party, and the service levels. The City remains the principal custodian of the interests of the commuters. The delivery of the BRT system is both an expensive and time-consuming process. The system is unlikely to recover its full operating costs in the initial stages of its operations.

4.3 Case 3: Tshepo 10 000 (Tshepo-10k)

4.3.1 Introduction

The NDP is considered the most authoritative blueprint that comprehensively maps the development agenda of the democratic South Africa. Some of the key areas of attention that the NDP advocates includes the economy and employment. The NDP sets targets to be pursued over a period ending 2030. Among the targets associated with the economy and employment are the following:

- The employment rate should fall from 27 percent in 2011 to 14 percent by 2020 and to 6 percent by 2030. This requires an additional 11 million jobs. Total employment should rise from 13 million to 24 million;
- The proportion of adults working should increase from 41 percent to 61 percent; and
- The labour participation rate should rise from 54 percent to 65 percent.

Children and youth make up 67 percent of the country's population. However, it is difficult to capitalise on this demographic advantage, because high unemployment is preventing a large proportion of the working-age population from contributing productively towards the economy. Proposals in the NDP to ensure that by 2030 the country can benefit from the economic potential of its population includes sound education and skills training (Gauteng Government 2016: 3). Unemployment figures in Tshwane in the past 10 years reveal that unemployment peaked in 2002, reaching 321 478 and eventually dropped to the lowest figures in 2008. For a number of reasons including the 2008/2009 recession, the unemployed rate increased from 212 671 in 2008 to 272 450 in 2010, representing a 28.1% surge over that period. However, the City recorded the lowest unemployment rate of 14% in 2010 compared to other municipalities in the Province. Census 2011 data placed the unemployment rate in the City of Tshwane at 24%, while youth unemployment stood at 32.6% – a decrease from 40.5% in 2001 (Tshwane Vision 2055). It is apparent that the City should forge bold and

innovative interventions to meet the policy statements of the three spheres of government. The youth should be placed front-and-centre of the interventions. Consequently, the “Tshepo 10 000” programme was conceived.

4.3.2 Explanation: “Tshepo-10k”

Tshepo is a popular name given to children in Sepedi, Sesotho and in Setswana. In both Sepedi and Sesotho, it implies hope and in Setswana, trust. The use of the name Tshepo in this instance is in the Sepedi context to refer to hope given to the young people of Tshwane that despite the difficulties encountered, the future holds promise. The number 10 000 (ten thousand) refers to the target beneficiaries of the programme, i.e. it is aimed at reaching 10 000 young people in the City. The programme has since been referred to as Tshepo-10k.

4.3.3 Rationale for the introduction of Tshepo-10k

A large number of South Africans are between the ages of 15 and 29. Although the country has not reached the 30 percent mark, perceived as the dangerous “youth bulge” in developing economies, this cohort will comprise more than a quarter of the total population until 2030. From 29 percent of the total population in 2010, the percentage of youth will decline steadily to 25 percent in 2030. A “youth bulge” has the potential to destabilise countries, especially if rampant unemployment is looming (NDP 2013: 78). The City’s population distribution per age reveals that it has a relatively young population of approximately 677 110 people below the age of 14 and a further 1 185 605 between 15 and 34 years of age. Combined, it represents approximately 64% of the City’s population. The extent to which the City can take advantage of its large youthful population will depend on whether it is able to prioritise customised youth programmes to allow them to participate meaningfully in the economy.

The aggregate result of urbanisation, migration, and globalisation is the unabated growth of the City’s population. The global economic crisis leading to contraction of the economy, major governance failures; and the diminishing economic outlook of the country pushes the realisation of the NDP targets further from the projected date – 2030. The totality of these variables is the increasing unemployment, especially amongst the youth because employment entry barriers become more stringent in a sluggish economy. Figure 14 below illustrates that Tshwane has the highest net migration of all the metropolitan municipalities in the country. This phenomenon has both advantages and disadvantages. The extent to which the negative aspect of the trend is mitigated and the positives are maximised is a function of a number of variables, including quality of leadership, the management of the City’s economy, and the degree of private sector participation in seeking solutions (City of Tshwane Vision 2055 2013).

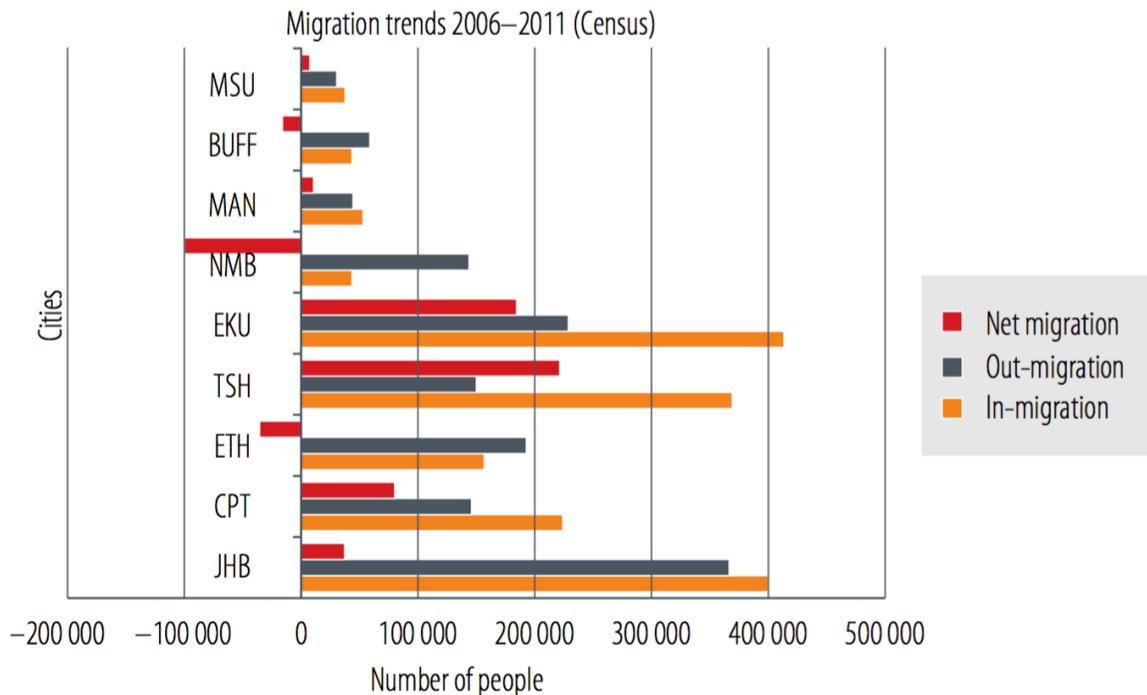
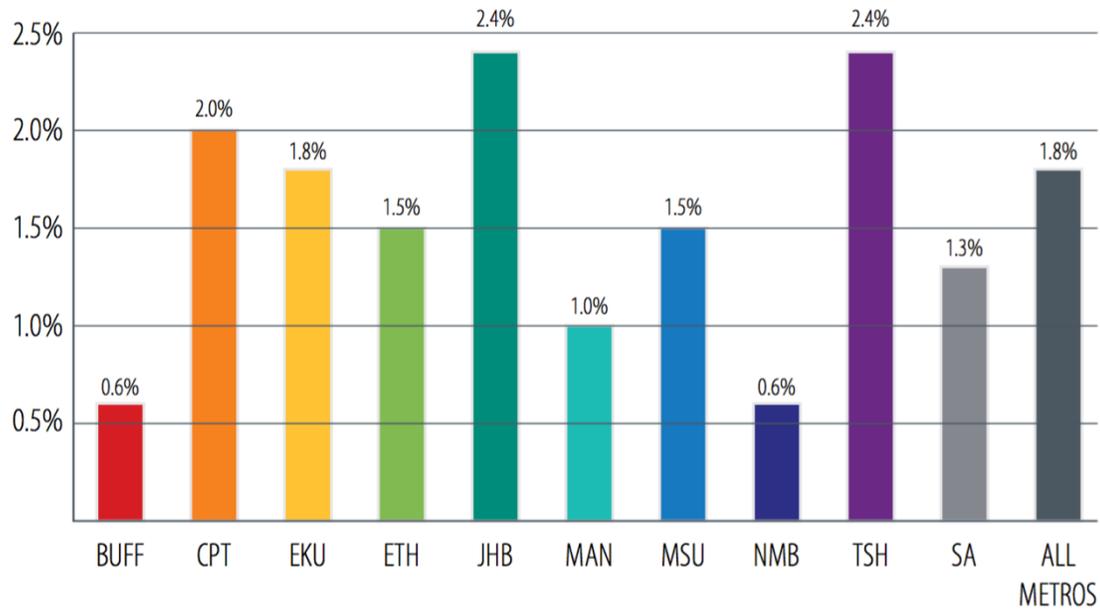


Figure 14: Net migration figures per metropolitan municipality.

Figure 15 below reveals that Tshwane and Johannesburg have the highest annual growth in city population compared to peer metros. Consequently, this growth will place considerable strain on the city’s economy and infrastructure if not managed properly (Quantec 2015, Figure 15).



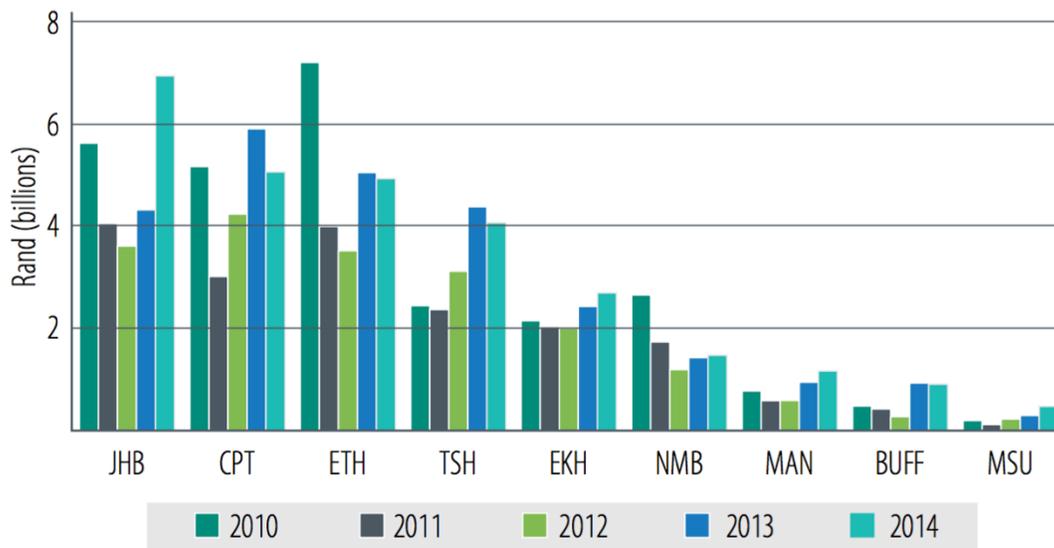
Source: Quantec (2015)

Figure 15: Annual growth in city population

In the context of the complex economic calculus of the City, the City’s leadership took a conscious and deliberate decision to invest in the youth of the City with a view of yielding the best results for its economy and posterity.

4.3.4 Exploit the City’s fiscus to drive transformation

The City had a budget of over R25billion in the 2013/2014 financial year. It spent a substantial amount of over R4billion in capital investments (SACN 2015, Figure 16). The trend in capital investments has been growing over a period as illustrated in the Figure 16 below.



Source: SACN (2015)

Figure 16: Summary of capital expenditure by city.

The City spent over R18billion in operating expenditure as illustrated in the table below. The expenditure figures serve to confirm that the City is one of the biggest spenders within its jurisdiction (SACN 2015, Figure 17). It is this observation that called for a detailed examination of the patterns of the expenditure. The result was a complete rethink of how the City’s budget can be exploited to drive much needed economic transformation, with a significant bias for the youth.

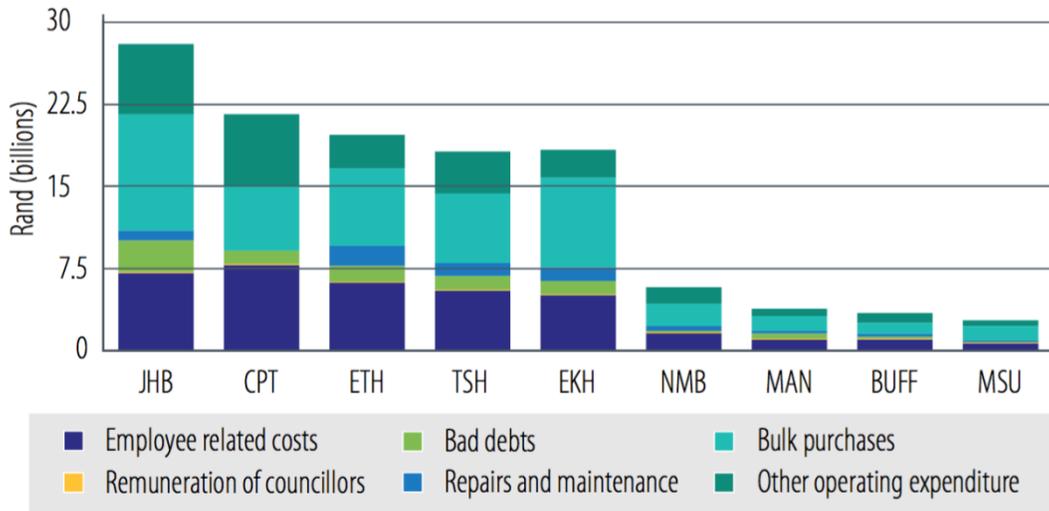


Figure 17: Summary of operating expenditure per category and city

4.3.5 Objectives and scope of Tshepo-10k

Tshepo 10k was targeted at youth within the age cohort of 21-35 years of age living within the jurisdictional area of the City. No minimum education level was required of the beneficiaries was required. It included the following elements as its objectives (City of Tshwane 2013):

- *Facilitate skills development and training.* There are four components to skills development which should be incorporated in the programme (described below). Not all components will be offered on an equal basis; rather this will be determined by the needs of the participants and workplace, and whether the participant is an employee or is self-employed.
- *Some participants who do not have an NQF 1 / grade 9 certificate or who may have achieved it a number of years ago may require Adult Basic Education (ABE). Programmes will largely be pitched at NQF levels 2 to 5 so as to accommodate the range of target group needs. The curriculum components include:*

- Technical skills which will largely be determined by the requirements and opportunities of the workplace and sector;
 - Employability / fundamental skills comprised of English language, numeracy and ICT - these are named as such because they enable “other” learning. In some cases, this may need to be pitched at an ABE level;
 - Life skills include preparing CVs, job interviews, workplace ethos and so on; and
 - Business / entrepreneurship skills to establish and maintain a business with provision customised for participant: employees, or participant: enterprise-establishment, as is appropriate.
- *Promote entrepreneurship.* The beneficiaries will be trained on basic financial management, expose them to available opportunities in the City and provide basic training on completing a tender document. Once the training is completed, the beneficiaries will be assisted to register Cooperatives, which will serve as vehicles to access opportunities.
 - *Ring-fence 1% of the City’s annual budget for the benefit of youth owned cooperatives.* The City will use its fiscus to trigger youth participation in meaningful economic activity by creating a policy dispensation that will facilitate for not less than 1% of the City’s budget to be directed at youth owned cooperatives that came through the Tshepo 10k programme.

4.3.6 Implementation of Tshepo-10k

The City acknowledged that there are a number of actors in the youth skills development, training and job creation space. As a result, the City deemed it appropriate to coordinate its efforts with the already existing initiatives in the youth development arena. The City’s Department of Economic Development serves as the

secretariat and overseer of the entire programme of Tshepo-10k. Through partnership with other stakeholders the department manages entrepreneurial training, financial management training, co-operative registration and co-ordinates implementation of the roll-out plan.

The department is responsible for recruiting youth beneficiaries and select persons to participate in the programme. The department is also responsible for the facilitation of co-operative registration including assisting with the completion of registration forms and acquire registration certificates from Companies and intellectual property Commission (CIPC). The department facilitates compliance to ensure that co-operatives obtain SARS Tax Clearance certificate, BBBEE, bank account, vendor number, acquire certification from CIPC and other relevant documents. Furthermore, the department compiles a list of registered co-operatives and submits to the Supply Chain Management for registration on the CoT database (City of Tshwane 2013).

Below is a list of partners and their agreed role who joined the City in rolling-out Tshepo-10k.

- *University of Pretoria.* The university provides training on Entrepreneurial management (co-operatives philosophy). Once the co-operatives are operational, the University provides advanced entrepreneurship training.
- *CoT Supply Chain Management.* Supply Chain Management is responsible for registering co-operatives on the CoT database and issues vendor numbers. Prior to the registration of vendors, the Supply Chain Management conducts workshops of how to complete the vendor application forms and supporting documents. The Supply Chain also maintains a list of registered and fully compliant co-operatives, as well as provide the list of co-operatives to CoT departments and regional offices for procurement and project opportunities.

- *CoT Departments, regional offices and entities.* The departments create opportunities and engage through meetings with the Department of Economic Development of how best they can utilise co-operatives for Tshepo 10 000. The department's request co-operative lists for specific sectors, contact and invite co-operatives to render services. The departments, therefore, provide opportunities, which range from Supply, general and technical work to Tshepo 10 000 co-operatives.
- *Gauteng Enterprise Propeller.* Gauteng Enterprise Propeller provides financial, non-financial and mentorship support to co-operatives awarded work opportunities.
- *ABSA.* ABSA provides training on financial management and group dynamics as well as assist the co-operatives to open business accounts.
- *Department of Trade and industry (CIPC).* The DTI through Companies and Intellectual Registration Commission issue registration certificate and receive co-operatives annual return reports.
- *Softstart Business and Technology Incubator.* Softstart BTI provides an integrated package of work space, shared office services, access to specialised equipment and value added services such as management assistance, access to finance, marketing and networking support. Softstart BTI has full support and sponsorship from the SEDA Technology Programme (STP) a programme under the Small Enterprise Development Agency of the DTI. STP sponsors the Business Incubation initiative from its inception to fast track the links between the government, private sector and academia of South Africa. In building an optimal, sustainable business, Softstart BTI assists by providing the following business development areas:
 - Business - The development of business plans and strategies.
 - Technology - The design and development of the actual products and services that will be delivered to the customer.

- Market - The understanding of the market in all its aspects and the design and delivery of strategies that will fully exploit the product's and service's potential.
 - Operational - The design, documentation and operation of the business' activities as a professional legal entity.
- *National Development Agency (NDA)*. National Development Agency is a public entity tasked with the responsibility of contributing towards poverty eradication and its causes within communities. NDA provides capacity building programmes to various community based organisation including youth owned co-operatives.
 - *Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA)*. SEDA was established in December 2004 as an agency under the Department of Trade and Industry, the dti. Seda offers entrepreneurs a helping hand through business consulting, training and referrals to specialist service providers. The business advisors help entrepreneurs identify what they need to succeed, whether it be skills, contacts or funding, as well as how to gain access.

4.3.7 Selection and recruitment

The selection and recruitment process was divided into two phases as explained below (City of Tshwane 2013):

- *Phase 1 Advertisement and applications:*

The Phase 1 target was to recruit participants in areas of huge spending, such as infrastructure construction and maintenance services. Electricity and water provision, sanitation, roads, housing, and waste management would be focused upon. Tshepo 10 000 'Call centre' was set up at OuRaadsaal Church Square with 7 Telephone lines and

10 Administrators. 60 648 forms were distributed in all seven regions. The call for applications had the following requirements:

- Applicants should within the age group of 21 to 35 years;
- Must be a Tshwane resident and supply proof of residence or an affidavit;
- Must be able to read and write;
- Must have a valid identity document;
- Must be unemployed; and
- Must be prepared to undergo specific training and establish certain basic systems to enable them to benefit, for example, bank account, register youth co-operative.

Youth throughout Tshwane who wished to participate in the programme were advised to collect and submit forms from any of the identified venues, on the specified days as per table below.

Table 17: Dates and venues to collect of application forms: Tshepo-10k by region

Region	Dates	Venues
1	29 and 30 July 2013	Mabopane Indoor Sports Centre and Ga-Rankuwa Hall
2	29 and 30 July 2013	Mandela Hall (Hammanskraal Community Centre)
3	31 July and 1 August 2013	Atteridgeville Community Hall and Pilditch Stadium
4	31 July and 1 August 2013	Olievenhoutbosch Community Hall
5	2 and 3 August 2013	Rayton Community Hall
6	2 and 3 August 2013	Mamelodi West Community Hall and Ikageng Hall
7	4 and 5 August 2013	Bronkhorstspruit Sports Centre

Source: City of Tshwane 2013

- *Phase 2: Capturing and selection*

Tshepo 10 000 Operational Centre was set up at Pieter Delpont for Capturing and selection process. During this process, 70 computers, 60 data captures, 10 volunteers and 10 administrators were appointed for a period of one month. A total of 51 499 applications were captured and scanned to the City of Tshwane server and 10 000 candidates were selected (City of Tshwane 2013).

4.3.8 Targeted training intake: Tshepo-10k beneficiaries

Given the limited number of seats available for training, the City deemed it necessary to phase-in the participants over a period of twelve months, spread in four quarters. Two thousand five hundred participants would be accommodated in each quarter.

Table 18: Tshepo-10k participant's intake per quarter

Financial Year 2013/14		Intake	Participants
Quarter One	July	500	500
	August	1 000	1 500
	September	1 000	2 500
Quarter Two	October	1 000	3 500
	November	1 000	4 500
	December	500	5 000
Quarter Three	January	1 000	6 000
	February	1 000	7 000
	March	500	7 500
Quarter Four	April	2 000	9 500
	May	250	9 750
	June	250	10 000

Source: City of Tshwane 2013

4.3.9 Tshepo 10k reporting framework and funding

- *Reporting framework*

The Department of Economic Development (DED) was designated as the project Champion of Tshepo 10k. DED would help both departments and regions of the City to set Tshepo 10k targets and further monitor their performance against the agreed targets. Before targets were agreed upon, they had to be signed-off by the City's Mayoral Committee.

DED was expected to submit monthly reports to the administrative executive of the City as well as bi-monthly reports to the Mayoral Committee. The reports should include remedial action in instances of poor performance against agreed targets.

- *Funding*

A total annual amount of R2.5 million was set aside for the implementation of Tshepo 10k. The funding was primarily to finance new posts in DED. The posts included:

- Programme manager
- Ten front office staff
- Fifteen back office staff
- Four admin personnel
- Three trainers
- Three mentors and coaches
- Three business advisors

4.3.10 Summary

Tshepo-10k is a decisive initiative by the City to confront the challenges associated with unemployment amongst the City's youth. Tshepo-10k sought to exploit the spending power of the City and open economic participation opportunities to youth-owned cooperatives in the City. The programmes were aimed at youth aged between 21 and 35 of all levels of education and its ultimate target was to reach 10 000 young people in the City in its inception phase. The success of the programme was predicated on the participation of the private sector partners who share the same vision as the City in relation to youth empowerment. The University of Pretoria, ABSA Bank, Department of Trade and Industry and the NYDA were some of the partners who agreed to participate in this programme.

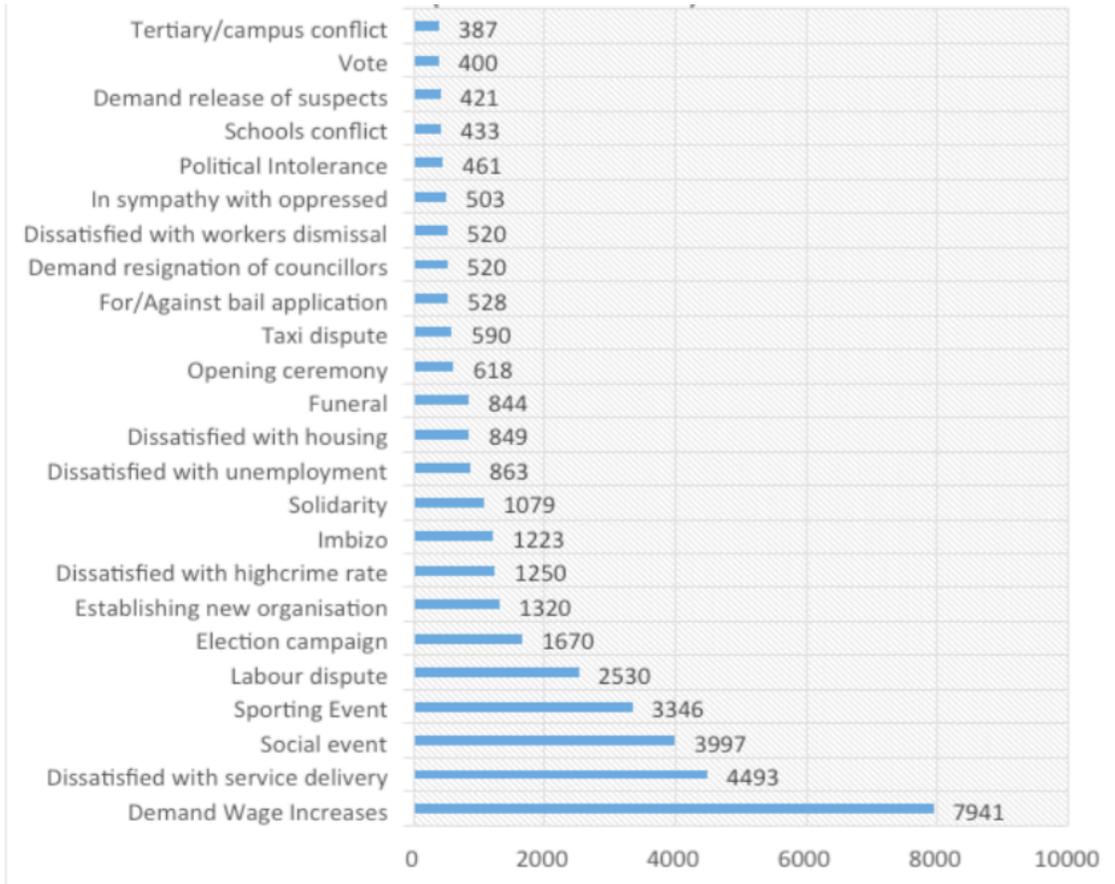
The partner's terms of participation was defined in a service level agreement with the City. The successful programme beneficiaries would receive intense training over a period of three to six months in the various fields of opportunity in the City. The City aimed to ring-fence 1% of its total budget, in the inception year, for the benefit of Tshepo-10k beneficiaries. It was envisaged that the target for the percentage share of the City's annual budget would be revised upwards from year-to-year. This upward

revision would be accompanied by the additional intake of the programme participants. The initial recruitment would be at quarterly intervals spread over a period of one financial year. The projects that would target the programme would extend across the seven administrative regions of the City involving all service delivery areas, cleaning, road maintenance, and ICT.

4.4 Case 4: City of Tshwane War Room (Kuka Maoto)

4.4.1 Introduction

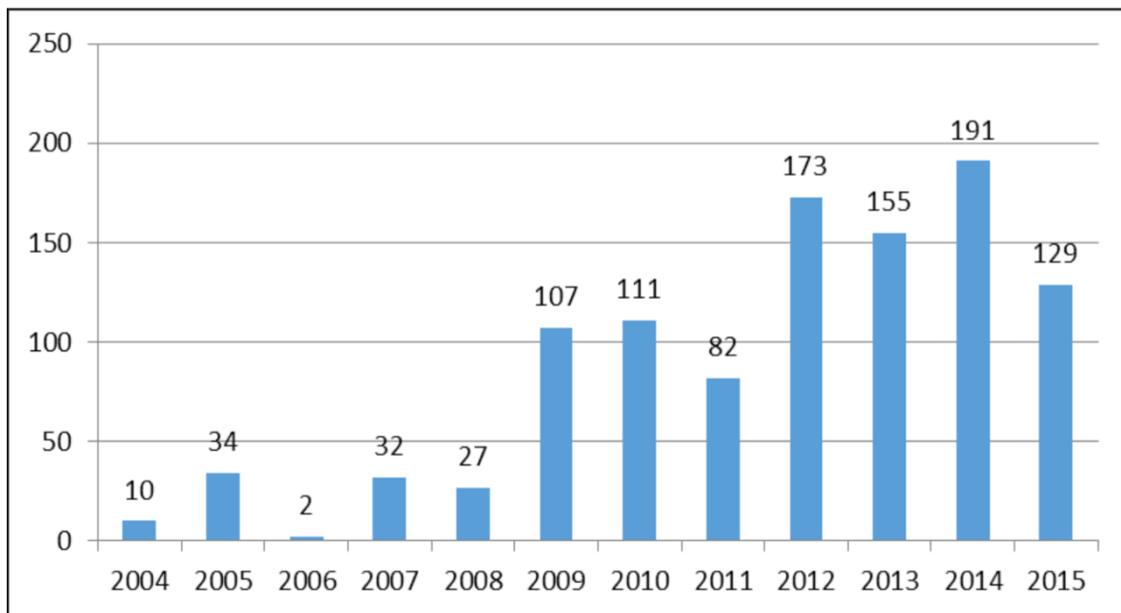
South Africa is experiencing a major spike in protest actions across a variety of concerns. Approximately 24 major issues result to register a crowd incident. Figure 18 below illustrates the frequency for motivation (Alexander, Runciman and Maruping developed Form IRIS 2015, Figure 18). Wage and labour incidents dominate the motives for protest. Dissatisfaction with service delivery, one of the major issues registered 4493 incidents in the 2009 to 2013 period (SALGA 2015: 22).



Source: Alexander, Runciman and Maruping derived from IRIS (2015)

Figure 18: Frequency of motivations for public gatherings (2009 to 2013).

Significant aggregations of protests at the local level reveal a definite pattern for the protest. It is possible to identify that protests are concentrated around metropolitan areas, significant secondary cities and major towns and in mining areas. In the Western Cape and Eastern Cape, the protests are rural in nature but differ in source, namely, combination of poverty and service delivery-related concerns (Plaas cited in SALGA 2015).

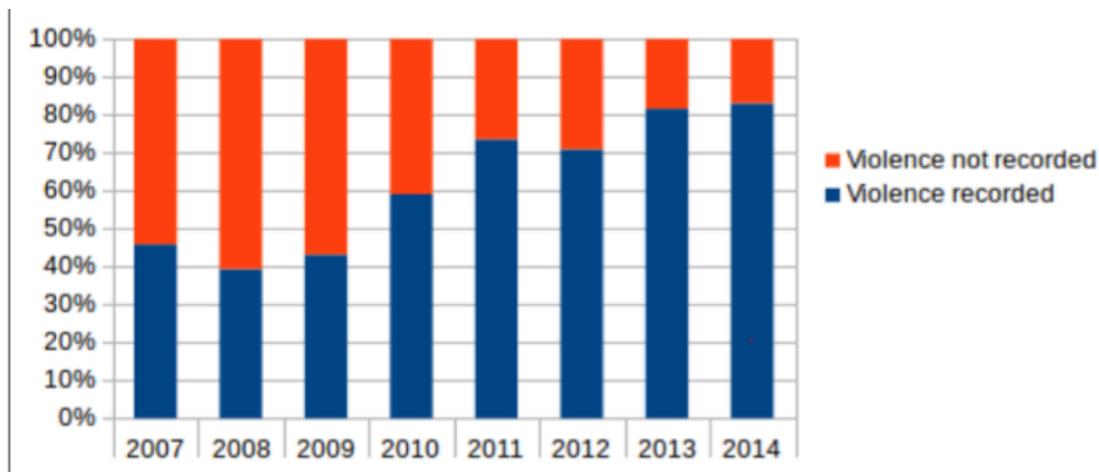


Source: Municipal IQ (2015)

Figure 19: Local level protest frequency for all municipalities (January 2004 to September 2015).

At the local level, evidence revealed that incidences of violence often ensue from protest action, that is, protests are turning increasingly violent. While there may be certain dispute around what is a violent act, the Municipal IQ and the MLGI data suggests that any definition of violence includes the destruction of property and the injury or threat thereof to citizens (Municipal IQ 2015, Figure 19). The distribution of protest might not capture the geographical relationship between violence and protest in the PLAAS hotspot monitor. Afrobarometer data (South Africa Round 5) describes those

who are willing to use violence as being more likely to be from rural areas. This is problematic as most violent protests apparently occur in urban contexts and may be linked to migratory patterns. However, according to studies from the MLGI, it is clear that violence is a growth sector. If this trend is confirmed, it might prove one of the theories advanced by Alexander *et al.* that communities are increasingly relating to state institutions through violent actions in the belief that this would result in them being heard by senior decision-makers (SALGA 2015).



Source: de Visser (2015)

Figure 20: Proportions of protests involving violence.

The reasons for service delivery protests at a local government level are varied, ranging from housing to “ignored grievances”. Figure 21 captures the motivations of the service delivery protests over a period of six years (MLGI 2013).

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
1	Poor Service Delivery	Land and Housing	Land and Housing	Land and Housing	Electricity	Land and Housing
2	Land and Housing	Electricity	Poor Service Delivery	Poor Service Delivery	Party Political	Water/Poor Service Delivery
3	Water	Poor Service Delivery	Corruption/Nepotism	Water	Land and Housing	Electricity
4	Electricity	Water	Electricity	Electricity	Water	Ignored Grievances
5	Party Political	Sanitation/Waste	Sanitation/ Waste	Sanitation / Waste	Sanitation / Waste	Infrastructure

Source: MLGI 2013

Figure 21: Top five motivations for local service delivery protests (2007 to 2012).

4.4.2 Introduction of Kuka Maoto: Rationale

Despite achievements in the first twenty years of democracy and objective improvements in the quality of life of Gauteng residents, too many impoverished and marginalised individuals, households and communities remain trapped in a cycle of poverty, hunger, inequality and unemployment. Furthermore, against the ideals of a people-centred democracy, there is a growing distance between government and the people and a sense of alienation, lack of trust and partnership between government and communities (Makhura 2014). Kevin Allan and Karen Heese (2012) note that “urbanisation, essentially the influx of poor migrants to cities, is prompted by the search for jobs, and therefore is most pronounced in areas of economic growth. But this results in an irony – although service delivery protests are commonly perceived as an indication of a failure of local government, Municipal IQ has found a strong link between municipal productivity (a measure of local government success) and service delivery protests – those in search of jobs move to successful cities where they perceive there to be economic opportunity. Unfortunately, most migrants find themselves unemployed, living

in one of the many hundreds of informal settlements on the periphery of these large metros, effectively marginalised from both access to economic opportunity, as well as housing and services”.

The rapid growth of informal settlements as well as metros’ (until recently) unwillingness to accept them as a permanent reality in their midst has meant a slow response to the service delivery needs of communities in these areas. In these instances, a large part of the problem sparking protests has been very poor communication between representatives of metros and communities, essentially the task of ward councillors and local officials. The reason is partially pragmatic – informal settlements contain neither the number of registered voters nor the local branch lobbying strength of more formalised areas. Furthermore, the fluidity of informal settlements is such that they do not necessarily present themselves as organised communities with representative leaders. In truth, including communities from informal settlements in local governance and planning processes requires more work than in other more formal areas in the metros.

KM is designed to provide a platform for the elected representatives across all three spheres of government to engage meaningfully with communities from across all sectors of society, especially those located in the poor areas of the City. KM is designed to empower communities with the knowledge of developments, current or future, and extend opportunities for communities to raise their views and proposals on their own development. The advent of KM will most likely minimise tensions between the City and its residents which could ultimately result in the decrease in service delivery protests; improvement of accountability; and result in democratic and transparent decision-making.

4.4.3 Kuka Maoto goals

The scope of the programme Kuka Maoto (KM) extends beyond the mere delivery of basic services. It is intended to deepen the democratic space in the city through regular and meaningful interaction between the City's political leadership and the citizens. It is meant to further engender active participation by the citizens in their collective affairs. In essence the programmes goals are summarised in five broad goals (City of Tshwane 2014):

- *Development goal.* Gauteng has experienced significant developmental gains such as an increase in the Human Development Index from 0.68 in 1996 to 0.74 in 2012, reflecting improvements in education, life expectancy and per capita incomes and a decline in poverty from 32,4% in 2001 to 22% in 2011. However, this masks the persistence of deprivation, hunger, unemployment, poverty and inequality, which continues to be largely determined by race, class and gender.
- *Service delivery goal.* Despite numerous initiatives to improve service delivery and some gains at an aggregated provincial level, there are growing and continued concerns at a lack of responsiveness by the public service to the needs of individuals, households and communities. The quality of services and the outcomes of such services is often sub-optimal. Basic compliance with minimum requirements is low.
- *Governance and resource goal.* In its efforts to improve access to public services, especially in deprived areas, the City has established multiple decentralised service delivery sites and systems which aim to improve integration and coordination. However, coordination across departments, sectors and spheres of government remain weak and incoherent, with high levels of fragmentation and duplication and a lack of sustained improvement interventions. This also expresses itself at a household level, where different departments (in theory and in practice) visit and profile poor households separately and in an uncoordinated manner. National,

provincial and City departments have community-based workers or field workers which are poorly coordinated. This situation results in a wastage of scarce human and financial resources aimed at improving the lives of residents.

- *Participatory goal.* While South Africa's democracy was founded on a vision of a people-centred society and participatory systems of governance participatory approaches and more radical concepts such as 'organs of people's power' and 'people's democracy' have tended to recede over time and have been replaced by more conventional formal electoral participatory systems.
- *Dependency/ coproduction goal.* Related to the above, but distinct from it, there has been a tendency for some communities to see themselves as passive recipients of grants, public services and facilities, perpetually disempowered and dependent on government for their development. The antithesis of dependency and passivity is active citizenship and coproduction, that is, service users and providers jointly deliver services to improve the people and communities quality of life.

4.4.4 Kuka Maoto delivery model

KM model does not aim to entirely replace existing service delivery mechanisms but rather to serve as an organising framework, which changes the way the City, national, and provincial departments respond to and service the residents' needs. This would be achieved by building a cohesive, integrated and collaborative network of service delivery structures from ward level to local, district and provincial level. This will aim to ensure the following (City of Tshwane 2014):

- Servicing people closest to where they live, including at a household and street level;
- Reducing duplication and inefficiencies in the allocation of resources, including in relation to household profiling and responses;

- More effective utilisation of existing resources;
- A reorientation of public service community workers, field workers and other public servants at a local level through improved deployment, direct accountability, coordination and management;
- Clear role definitions;
- Faster turnaround times where possible, particularly in response to the immediate needs of the most vulnerable; and
- A reorientation of the public service at all levels towards a more activist and solution-oriented approach to improve people's quality of life.

4.4.5 Anchors of Kuka Maoto

KM would be anchored on the following three pillars (City of Tshwane 2014):

- *Central War Room and Central Information Centre.* The Central War Room including a Central Information Centre would be responsible for overall coordination, management, planning and monitoring of the system as a whole and its performance, including knowledge and information management systems (KIMA) and the development of ICT systems to service the model as a whole. The CIC would draw from a range of data sources, including the local command centres; statistical data; programme performance information and expenditure and other service delivery data; the Hotline; CDW reports and the media, including social media. The analysis would include early warning systems and emerging issues for analysis to inform responses. A province-wide dashboard would be developed together with an integrated provincial Geographical Information System (GIS), provincial monitoring systems and key data sets from provincial to ward level. This would include poverty mapping and household profiling data and monitoring systems. The CIC would assist in providing ward-level data to the Ward Service Teams and the development of ward-based planning and monitoring systems.

- *A Public Hotline and Integrated Rapid Response System.* Existing rapid response structures and systems would be streamlined, with designated MMCs in each municipality playing a central role in ensuring rapid responses to pressing service delivery issues and crises, including community protests. To enhance existing capacity, a more comprehensive and integrated provincial case management system with location capabilities would be built, incorporating cases from a variety of sources and with response tracking systems and linkages across all institutions
- *War Room Machinery.* The War Room network comprise of Service Task Teams and Command Centres at ward, local and district/metro and provincial level as illustrated in Figure 3 below. The Service Teams would be the people and organisational structures to drive service delivery responses while the Command Centres serve as the physical facilities around which the activities are centred. The primary War Room facility at a provincial level is the Central Service Delivery War Room, with service command centres at metro/district level, at local/ regional level and at a ward level.

4.4.6 Kuka-Maoto: Implementation Plan

The Service Delivery War Room model would be based on the stages of a typical programme lifecycle, as illustrated in the figure below, including (i) a diagnostic of the problem which is to be addressed; (ii) the conceptualisation and design of the programme, including an assessment of its plausibility, and development of programme theory and monitoring frameworks; (iii) the implementation of the programme; (iv) the monitoring of the programme; (v) analysis of results and adaptation on the basis of findings; and (vi) programme evaluation. These stages would not necessarily be sequential and may in certain circumstances operate in reverse before proceeding to the next stage and furthermore, may operate simultaneously.

The diagnostic and design phase of the Service Delivery War Room was described a Phase 0 and entailed an initial diagnostic of the problem followed by an initial design. Phase 1 was the implementation phase, with an initial 25 priority wards identified for the establishment of Local Command Centres and Ward Service Task Teams by the end of the 2014/15 financial year (City of Tshwane 2014, Figure 22).



Figure 22: Stages of a typical programme lifecycle.

Phase 1: Preparatory Phase (August-September 2014)

The preparatory phase would entail the development of detailed implementation plans focusing on the following key aspects:

- Consultation and decision-making. This would include consultation across the spheres of government and with organised civil society as well as decision-making by the Executive Council and other relevant inter-governmental structures.
- Research and diagnosis: Detailed research on the poorest wards, hotspots and existing facilities would be initiated in the preparatory phase to identify the Wards that would be prioritised for initial implementation. An audit of existing systems and facilities would be executed.
- War Room network: Based on research and consultation, an initial 50 priority wards and sites would be identified for the first phase of implementation. These would be prioritised for the establishment of Service Task Teams and Service Command Centres.
- Mapping and poverty profiling: The mapping of the priority wards would be undertaken and a common tool for household profiling adopted.
- Conceptualisation and planning: Linked to the consultation process, more detailed conceptualisation and programme design was required prior to the implementation phase, including taking into consideration specific conditions prevailing in Gauteng as well as inputs from the consultation process. More detailed planning and design relating to specific projects such as the Information Systems and GIS would take place parallel to the implementation of the War Room network.
- Integration of the Public Hotline and Rapid Response System: An integrated Rapid Response system would be established based on existing and new components of

the system. In addition to the critical role played by political office bearers, including designated MMCs in each municipality, each Department and municipality would be requested to identify a manager responsible for rapid response activities.

- Branding, marketing and communications: Communications would play a critical role in the success of the initiative. This included the development of a brand for the programme which gives it a distinct identity linked to overall provincial branding as well as a communication strategy and social marketing plan aimed at different audiences, including civil servants who would be implementing the model as well as the residents.
- Activation: Workshops would be held with key role-players, including Ward Councillors as well as community development workers and other field workers. Implementation guidelines would be developed and planning undertaken for training.
- Monitoring: A monitoring framework would be developed.
- Resourcing: Based on the approved plans, a human resource plan and budget would be developed.

Phase 2: Implementation (October 2014-March 2015)

The first Implementation Phase would comprise of the following primary steps:

- War Room network: Establishment of Ward Service Task Teams (WSTT) and launch of Service Command Centres in 50 priority wards. Ward-based launch activities should include public activities lead by Ward Councillors. The Provincial War Room Service Task Team as well as Metro/ District and regional structures should also be established and developed as functional structures in this period.

- Central War Room and information: Facilities for the Central War Room and information centre would be concluded.
- Research and profiling: Further research would be undertaken to develop Ward Profiles and maps for utilisation by WSTTs and other structures.
- Roadshow: A roadshow aimed at Departments, municipalities, civil society organisations and other key stakeholders would be undertaken.
- Planning, monitoring and evaluation: Further detailed planning and target setting would be undertaken in consultation with municipalities and departments. This would also entail further planning in relation to technology, human resources and budgeting as well as the setting of targets for 2015/16 and for the period to 2018/19. Municipalities and Departments will be required to re-orientate their human and other resources towards ward-based service delivery needs. Each municipality and Department would be requested to develop monitoring systems to track rapid response and other day to day service delivery needs.

4.4.7 Budget and resources

The City assigned a budget of R3.5 million for the implementation of KM. This budget was primarily for the recruitment of the executive management team that would be in charge to coordinate KM. The total number of the executive management team comprised of five (5) individuals. It should be borne in mind that the KM was about restructuring existing resources to enable the City to derive maximum benefit.

4.4.8 Summary

Democratic local government experienced a number of major service delivery challenges over a period of time. These challenges ranged from significant deficits in the provision of basic services such as decent housing, clean portable water and proper sanitation. This scenario led to many aggrieved communities across the country leading to service delivery protests, some of which have been very violent. The City has not been spared of the spate of service delivery protests in the country, some of which led to significant damage to property and major disruptions to City life. The service delivery protests led to major escalation in tensions between the residents and the municipality, a situation that severely undermined the legitimacy of the City. To address this untenable situation, the City intended to introduce a dispensation that would allow for greater and meaningful engagement with its constituencies. This dispensation was Kuka Maoto. KM was not necessarily the answer to the developmental challenges facing the City but a platform to deepen the democratic space therein. KM sought to give a voice to the previously marginalised communities of the City, enhance both accountability and transparency, and help to improve the management of the public affairs.

KM was also utilised to buttress other legislated planning processes such as the Integrated Development Plan and the budget formulation. KM helped in providing a sounding board to challenges faced by communities and mounting responses to such encounters before they flared into conflict. Direct contact with communities through traditional channels such as mass meetings would help the City to better understand the community demands, and provide an opportunity to expand the developmental plans for the townships. KM was not only designed for poor areas but as a community engagement model to be employed in all localities in the City. The approach would be nuanced depending on the service delivery challenges experienced in specific communities, the level of community organisation, and demographic of the community.

KM had a defined life cycle. The life cycle was meant to ensure that the City does not ignore a community and help to shape the City's responses to community grievances ahead of extensive engagement. The success of KM was predicated on the extent to which all three spheres of government was able to coordinate their affairs; synchronise planning; and develop an approach to monitoring delivery against commitments that had been made in public. KM required dedicated resources for its success. These included budget allocation and human resources. The City institutionalised KM to ensure that its targets are incorporated in the performance agreements with senior management.

CHAPTER Five: DATA AND INFORMATION ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter provided both the rationale and key features of each of the cases studied. The intention of this chapter is to examine whether each of the cases were able to achieve their stated goals, how best have they contributed to the realisation of the GCR, and what are the lessons and experiences that can be drawn from each case to better model and refine future GCR interventions.

5.2 Tools of analysis

The analysis of the four programmes assumed multiple analytical lenses. The accumulated analytical data will serve to inform the net conclusion in relation to the research question. The adopted analytical lenses is elaborated upon below:

- *The central proposition, and potential impact of each programme on the analysis of GCR.* The choice of the individual programme is deliberate; each programme lends itself to be examined within the context of the aspired GCR. The intention is to establish whether respective programmes exhibit any or a combination of the following features:
 - Can a programme under examination be replicated and/or expanded across the entire GCR? Any response to this question will invariably be analysed to determine whether there is a legal prohibition to the future expansion (this does not necessarily imply that there is enabling legislation for this envisaged future expansion) of the programme.
 - Does the programme under examination in one way or the other, attempt to respond to the current and future issues and trends relating to the growth of cities, and the emergence of city-regions? These issues and trends include globalisation, urbanisation, “new public sector leadership” and space

economy.

- *Performance against pre-determined objectives analysis.* The objectives of each programme were elaborated upon in the preceding chapter. It would be beneficial that even before the impact of each programme is examined for the realisation of the GCR, a thorough analysis is undertaken to investigate whether the programmes met the objectives at the City level.
- *Context analysis.* The context of each programme is significant to fully appreciate the variable(s) in the conceptualisation and implementation of the programmes and the related impact on each. This analysis will inform future efforts to replicate and/or expand the programmes across the GCR. The context analysis would be in the form of: Strength; Weaknesses; Opportunities; and Threats (SWOT) analysis.
- *Perspective Analysis.* The study examines each programme through a number of perspectives, namely:
 - *Political perspective.* The ability of political actors to ascend to and/or hold on to state power is largely a function of their ability to deliver on their promise and the credibility they enjoy amongst the electorate. In this perspective, an examination would be conducted to determine the extent to which each of the programmes had advanced the objectives of the incumbent political party at the City level, the ANC.
 - *Development perspective.* Interrogate the extent to which each programmes is or has contributed towards the attainment of the relevant goals of the pre-determined development path in the country, province and the City.
 - *Public leadership perspective.* The orientation and conduct of the leadership of the City would be closely scrutinised to determine its complicity in delivering a successful or flawed programme.
- *Programme adoption by the GCR analysis.* Finally, the replicability and/or expandability of each programme beyond City boundaries would be examined. Actions by the Gauteng Province to adapt or elevate the programme to the provincial level, if any, will be established.

5.2.1 Central proposition and potential impact of each programme: GCR

Each programme is underpinned by a major claim herein referred to as a central proposition. The intention was not necessarily to test the validity of the claim, but rather, to determine the potential impact thereof on the GCR if it were true. The true test of the claim would require a thorough longitudinal study, which is beyond the scope of this study.

Table 19: Programme central proposition and potential impact on the GCR

Programme	Central proposition of the Programme	Potential impact of the programme to the realisation of the GCR
Tshwane free public WiFi	Free public internet access will propel economic growth in the City.	Enhances competitiveness of the GCR. Expands the R&D credentials of the GCR and foster innovation. Help achieve universal access and lower the ICT gap in the GCR.
A Re Yeng	Effective, efficient, reliable, safe, affordable, and integrated public transport is an indispensable tool in reconfiguring the apartheid space.	Ensure that the GCR functions as a single urban conurbation by enhancing intra and inter municipal mobility. Help create economic corridors across cities. Facilitate the poor's participation in the mainstream economy of the GCR.
Tshepo 10k	Deliberate and focused investment	Maximise opportunities

	in youth bolsters the demographic dividend.	associated with the GCR demographic profile. Lower the social-ills by increasing labor-absorption rate in the GCR. Create a new generation of entrepreneurs in the GCR.
Kuka Maoto	Inscription of new voices will deepen the democratic space and enhance the legitimacy of the state.	Broaden and promote the participation and inclusion of new actors in the policy-making space. Re-orientate the relationship of the state and the social actors in the GCR space. Encourage transparency and accountability in the GCR.

5.2.1.1 Key observations

Table 19 above illustrates that the combined nature of the four programmes could contribute immensely towards the realisation of certain key objectives of the GCR. Spatial equity, facilitation of access to economic participation by the poor, increase in R&D, and democratisation of the policy-making and implementation space are some of the potential outcomes for the successful implementation of the four programmes across the GCR. The central propositions of the programmes are particularly significant in that if fully realised, could propel the GCR into a new socio-economic trajectory necessary to meet the objectives of the NDP and favourably position it amongst its peers. The central propositions reflect the outcome of an envisaged future under the

GCR. It is in the very nature of such propositions that success is realised over a long period of sustained and consistent implementation.

It should be noted that the absence of an enabling legislative framework could potentially derail or delay the obvious benefits that can be derived from the horizontal expansion of the programmes to other municipalities and/or elevation of the programmes to be championed at a provincial level.

5.2.2 Performance against pre-determined objectives (PDOs) analysis

The City set objectives at the inception of each programme. The extent to which certain of the objectives are met can only be measured once there is full implementation. Typical examples include: the economic impact of free public WiFi, impact of public engagement in improving active public citizenry, nature and size of economic activity along public transport corridors, and the degree of youth assimilation into the mainstream economy. Below is an examination of each programme performance against certain respective pre-determined objectives.

5.2.2.1 TshWiFi performance against PDOs

The TshWiFi succeeded in attracting an unprecedented number of users to its network. TshWiFi was able to record over 3 million unique device lock-ins by end of May 2017 and Two Hundred and Fourteen million (214 000 000) sessions. The average unique monthly usage was six hundred thousand (600 000) and a daily use of over three hundred thousand (300 000). These connections were recorded at 1050 sites located primarily near educational sites. Mobile devices constitute the primary platform to access free public WiFi in the City. Mobile devices constitute 78% of access platforms compared to 13% and 9% for tablets and desktops respectively. This simply implies that the users can exploit free public WiFi on the-go. The data download since the inception of the service was at a staggering 4532TB. This number of downloads confirm that the

service has met a modern day desire to access information and communicate in real-time. Figure 23 below provides a high level summary of public free WiFi in the City (City of Tshwane 2017).

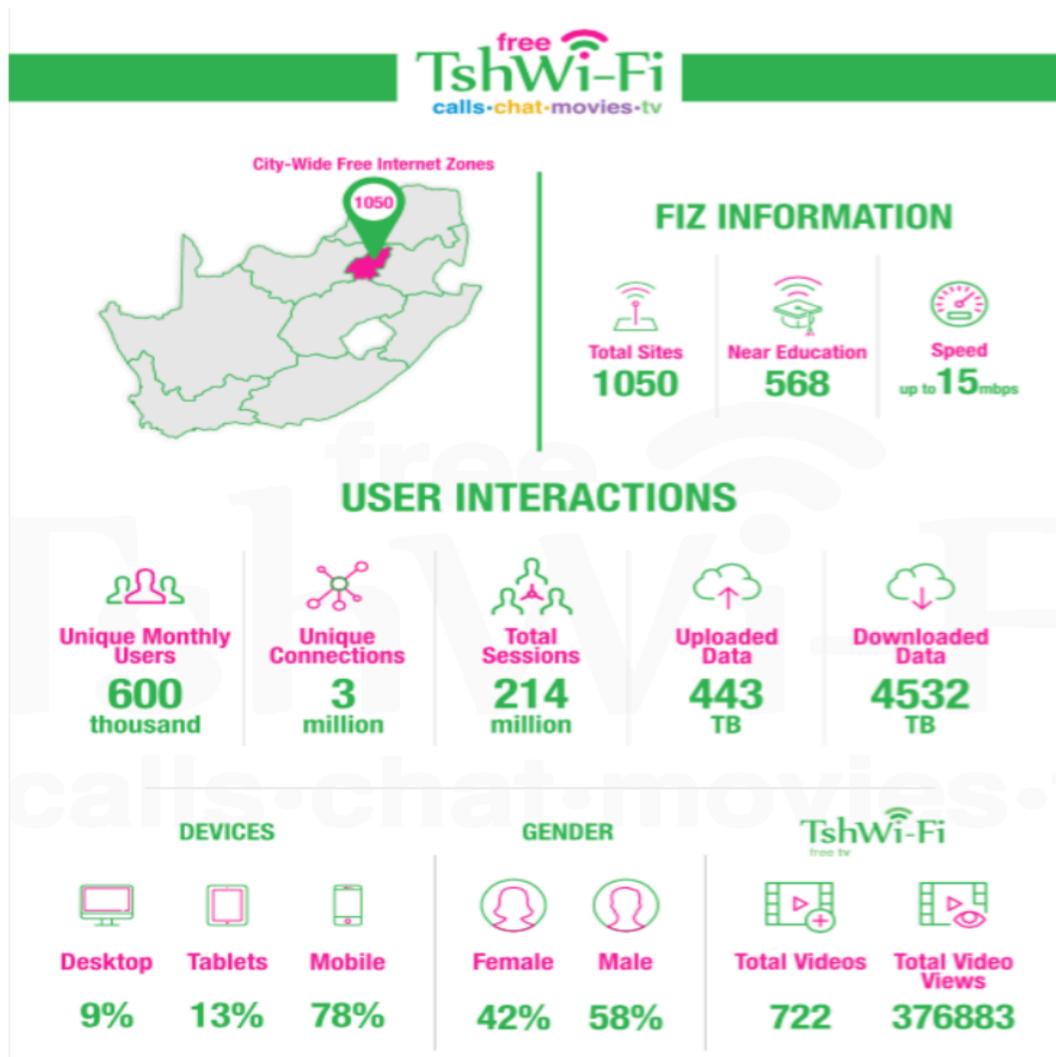


Figure 23: Tshwane public free WiFi factsheet

The additional benefits of TshWiFi include:

- *Introduction of Tobetsa.* Tobetsa is a specialised content portal partner which enables unlimited access content for users of public Free WiFi services. Tobetsa aims to curate and whitelist some of the best content that the internet has to offer,

and provide Free WiFi users the opportunity to extend their online experience even after the daily 500MB cap is reached. The content is evaluated and curated for relevancy to the user's demographic and focus on providing educational information and opportunities for skills development geared towards enabling employment. Also available via Tobetsa are key government and city-related resources.

- *TshWiFi TV launch.* This offering is a hyper-local, video-on-demand, and low production cost service available free, and unlimited streaming via Tobetsa. The Project Isizwe initiative together with CO4ZA provides informative, engaging and entertaining video content to audiences who would otherwise not have access to content that is actively produced for them, in their communities by young, local citizen journalists. At the heart of TshWiFi TV is a training model which not only provides high quality local content, but also formally facilitates learning and skills development for the young media producers who secured employment and empowered. TshWiFi TV has produced more than 700 original videos with the increasing viewership consistently above 20 000 video views per month.
- *Skills training.* Project Isizwe has designed and delivered various training and development pilot programmes which impacted directly on over 11 000 beneficiaries. These training programmes span various industries and sectors and have, at their core, the intent to build capacity and develop skills in the young populations of South Africa enabling job creation, employment and facilitating entrepreneurship; contributing to helping young people become citizens who can viably contribute towards the country's economy. TshWiFi has attracted people from diverse economic backgrounds with the LSM 6 accounting for 37% of the total users and women constituting 58% of the users (City of Tshwane 2017, Figure 24).



Figure 24: Tshwane public free WiFi usage by LSM and mobile service provider

Project Isizwe has granted direct financial benefits to the users. It costs the City of Tshwane 19 cents per gigabyte for WiFi data capacity. Compare that to the typical Vodacom prepaid rate of R2 per megabyte. A gigabyte is 1000x bigger than a megabyte, which implies that Vodacom is more than 10,000x more expensive than Tshwane Free WiFi (Zahir Khan cited in Knott-Craig and Silber).

5.2.2.2 Key observations

The following are certain significant observations related to the pre-determined objectives of TshWiFi:

- *Exceeding targets.* The programme has surpassed its usage targets by registering over three million unique log-ins in less than 36 months. The trends suggest that with its exponential increase in popularity and an ever-expanding footprint, TshWiFi will set unprecedented records.
- *Expanding the economic floor.* The programme has succeeded in broadening the economic opportunities for residents of the City, particularly the ones residing in the township. It has triggered a new generation of township entrepreneurs seeking to exploit free internet usage to meet commercial interests. The emergence of TshWiFi TV is an example of what can be achieved by providing the medium free and accessible.
- *Information access revolution.* TshWiFi has literally placed information in the hands of every user. The occasional expensive trip to the library is no longer necessary, because access to information on job opportunities no longer requires one to buy a daily newspaper. Furthermore, government programmes are announced and accessed through this medium.
- *Lowering the cost of data.* The aggregate result of TshWiFi is to compel the more established telecommunications providers to reconsider the unit price of the data given the generous threshold of TshWiFi.
- *Broadening of the scope of basic municipal services.* The spectacular success of TshWiFi has resulted in the call for the provision of public free WiFi to be designated a basic municipal service. The call has received support especially amongst young people who constitute the majority of the citizens in the urban spaces.

5.2.2.3 A Re Yeng performance against PDOs

Operations of A Re Yeng

The CBD to Hatfield a Re Yeng route was the first to be inaugurated by the City on 1 December 2014 referred to as the Inception Phase. This phase is 7, 2 km in length and runs via Sunnyside from the Pretoria CBD (corner of Nana Sita and Paul Kruger Streets) in the west to Hatfield in the east. It also connects to the Gautrain Station in Hatfield. The phase comprises of seven stations along the route: two in the CBD, three in Sunnyside, and one at Loftus Versfeld Stadium and one in Hatfield.

The BRT buses run from 06:00 in the morning until 20:00 at night during the week and 23:30 on Saturday evenings. There is a two to four minute interval during peak periods, and seven to ten minutes during off-peak. The BRT buses use a cashless smart card, called the Connector that is sold at the kiosks inside all seven A Re Yeng bus stations, situated along the inception phase route and at the Sammy Marks Customer Care Centre (Tshwane Rapid Transit 2015). A Re Yeng has two types of services, namely:

- Trunk services - Buses runs on dedicated lanes, with stations located in the central median of the road from CBD to Hatfield.
- Feeder Services - Buses runs on mixed-traffic lanes bringing passengers to the trunk route.

Technical aspects of A Re Yeng

A Re Yeng has two types of stations: memory box and retro tram. The memory box stations are located in the CBD along Paul Kruger and Nana Sita Street. The retro tram station was selected for the stations outside the CBD. This concept evokes the imagery of the old tram lines realised in a modern style. Its distinctive design and allegory of trams suggest a timeless quality rooted in the past but extends to the future. The closed ticketing system of the trunk service requires an enclosed station that allows passenger transfer between routes and reduces fare evasion (Tshwane Rapid Transit 2015).

A typical A Re Yeng station comprises of the following features:

- An access ramp with a maximum 1:15 gradient to take care of people with mobility impairment and other disabilities;
- Kiosks for ticket sales and information;
- Gates to validate tickets at entry and exit;
- Multiple automated doors on both sides of a station to ease access to the buses;
- Real-time passenger information; and
- Facilities for staff.

A Re Yeng opted for two vehicle types, namely:

- 18 meter articulated bus that can carry between 90 and 120 passengers; and
- 12-meter standard bus that can carry between 65 and 75 passengers.

A Re Yeng complies with the latest European Standards for emissions and a portion of the fleet is operated on Compressed Natural Gas (CNG), which is a more environmentally friendly fuel than diesel (Tshwane Rapid Transit 2015).

Governance of A Re Yeng

The City succeeded in introducing a transformative model to deliver public transport within its jurisdiction. This was achieved through the incorporation of the Tshwane Rapid Transit (Pty) Ltd (TRT) in 2012 as a private company with limited liability in terms of the Companies Act, 71 of 2008. The company is wholly owned by Tshwane Bus Operating Company Trust, which was created to hold the shares of the taxi and bus operators along the Bus Rapid Transit (“BRT”) corridor in Tshwane known as Affected Operators. This shareholding would be transferred to the Affected Operators as-and-when each phase of implementation becomes fully operational. The shareholding on each phase of the implementation would be informed by current market share of each

Affected Operator and the compensation model. TRT is managed as an independent private entity (Tshwane Rapid Transit 2015).

In November 2014 TRT was contracted by the City to operate the A Re Yeng BRT services within the metropolitan municipal area of the City. TRT and the City concluded a concession agreement known as the Bus Operating Company Agreement (“BOCA”) which governs the relationship between the City and TRT (Tshwane Rapid Transit 2015). In terms of the agreement, the City is responsible for:

- monitoring of the service;
- fee collection; and
- tracking TRT’s performance based on the agreed service level standards.

Performance against PDOs

The following constitutes certain significant observations made against the pre-determined objectives of A Re Yeng:

- *Missing delivery deadlines.* The City was not in a position to meet its publicly stated goal of A Re Yeng “go live” date of March 2014. This was as a result of a combination of poor planning and failure to conclude complex negotiations with the affected operators timeously. The City had severely underestimated the complexity of the stakeholder engagements, and the technical details required in delivering a project of this size.
- *Poorly (local) integrated public transport services.* The Gautrain feeder and distribution services were in certain instances operating the same routes as A Re Yeng. This was a duplication of subsidised public transport services in the City. The misalignment of A Re Yeng and Gautrain schedules, and separate ticketing systems would make the full integration of the two services almost impossible.

- *Poor choice of Inception Phase.* The Inception Phase did not have the most travel demand. Due to its length and the provision of sound non-motorised infrastructure, the inception phase competed with non-motorised forms such as cycling and walking. This resulted in critical underutilisation of the service resulting in the inception phase financially unsustainable.
- *Meeting universal access.* A Re Yeng succeeded in meeting the requirement of universal access given its choice of station design and vehicles.
- *Fulfilling the transformation agenda.* A Re Yeng had in many ways acknowledged the historic and pioneering role by the industry by ensuring from inception, that the taxi owners head the programme. The bold decision by the City to allow affected taxi operators to operate the company implied that the industry's players had finally entered the formal and mainstream economy allowing for future expansion through acquiring the public transport value-chain.

5.2.2.4 Kuka-Maoto performance against PDOs

Within sixteen (16) months in the life of KM, the political executive of the City under the stewardship of the Executive Mayor was able to hold over twenty-four (24) community interactions across all the seven administrative regions of the City. Of these interactions six were held jointly with the GPG under the provincial Intirhisano Programme. The average attendance at the KM public meetings was 1200, way above the attendance during the pre-KM period. The City was able to address a range of urban management concerns.

The following issues were addressed (City of Tshwane 2015):

- **Electricity:**



- 2305 street lights were repaired
- 42 high mast lights were repaired
- 406 illegal connections were disconnected

- **Water and Sanitation:**
 - 851 water meters were installed
 - 497 water leaks were attended and fixed
 - 85 manholes were attended
 - 31 illegal fire hydrant were locked
 - 34 water tanks were repaired

- **Urban management**
 - 857 000 m² of grass cutting were achieved
 - 256 trees were pruned
 - 107 illegal dumping sites were cleared
 - 155 trees were planted
 - 12 cemeteries were cleaned

- **Roads and Storm water**
 - 4045 m² of potholes were patched
 - 408 road intersections were painted
 - 196 road signs and poles were re-erected
 - 12.7 km of roads were resurfaced/ resealed
 - 115 catch pits were unblocked
 - 27 025 m² storm water channels were cleaned

Table 20 below serves as a typical example of the Kuka Maoto programme. The programme features community engagement from clustered wards located in the same

geographic precinct. The clustering was informed by the similarity of the service delivery challenges, income levels and common issues of social strife.

A typical KM programme was designed such that the political leadership of the City accompanied by the executive management and leaders of affected communities commence site visits in the morning followed by meetings with pre-identified stakeholders to address matters of sectorial interest. The political leadership visit would culminate with a community meeting at a central venue to allow the political executive, led by the Executive Mayor, to listen to the views of ordinary members of the community and further provide feedback on matters that could have been raised before. The meeting is considered both a commitment by the City to deliver on its undertakings and as a basis for the community to hold the City leadership accountable.

Table 20: Typical Kuka Maoto operational programme

KUKA MAOTO FOR MAY					
Region	Dates	Targeted Wards	Activities	Targeted people	Responsible Person
2	9-13 May 16	73, 74, 75, 76, 95	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		
6	16-20 May 16	23, 28, 18, 86, 40, 67, 38	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		
1	23-27 May 16	4, 88, 84, 34, 35, 36, 37, 90, 89, 20, 22, 76, 28, 26, 27	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		
3:00 AM	30 May - 03 June 16	3, 7, 51,	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		
1	06-10 June 16	9, 19, 24, 31,32	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		



KUKA MAOTO FOR JUNE					
Region	Dates	Targeted Wards	Activities	Targeted people	Responsible Person
3B	13 - 17 June 16	58, 59, 60,91, 56, 80, 81	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		
7	20 - 24 June 16	All wards	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		
4	27 - 30 June 16	61, 77, 107	Visiting Operational sites	All Communities in the targeted Wards	War-room
			Inspection in loco		
			Multi-sectorial service		

Source: City of Tshwane 2015

Given the popularity of the engagements, the City introduced “virtual” Izimbizo sessions every fortnight. These sessions were conducted over two consecutive hour sessions every second Wednesday on the official Facebook page of the Executive Mayor of Tshwane. The sessions proved to be extremely popular, with an average reach of over three hundred thousand (300 000) per session.

Performance against PDOs

The following constitutes certain significant observations made against the pre-determined objectives of Kuka Maoto:

- *Ward clustering improves focus.* Service delivery pressure-points vary across the City. The wards are clustered according to similarities in service delivery pressures helps the City to take targeted, nuanced, speedy and decisive interventions to eliminate service delivery deficits. It helps in reducing the service delivery bucket list and intervention(s) are effective.
- *Inverse relationship between community engagement and service delivery protests.* The City experienced noticeable reduction in service delivery protests in areas of increased contact between the City's executive leadership and communities. The interactions also empowered the communities with the knowledge of the City's delivery programme and provide a perfect opportunity for the leadership to fully appreciate the needs of specific communities and respond accordingly thereby averting violent tension.
- *Communities relate to government as one political unit.* Communities consider the distinction of the spheres of government artificial. All that communities are interested in, is the delivery of efficient and reliable services to all. Whether the functions are a concern of either local, provincial or national government, the communities insist on answers. Therefore, KM is best positioned to benefit government and communities by ensuring coordinated intervention. A perfectly executed KM ensures that government acts as a coherent and indivisible political unit not as sum of the individual parts.
- *Infuse social media as a means of communication.* The experiences of KM suggest that going-forward, social media will be play a major role in the channels of communication between communities and government. The traditional forms of physical contact as a primary mode of interaction are rapidly. Municipalities will be

compelled to draw protocols of how to address matters raised through these channels.

5.2.2.5 Tshepo-10K performance against PDOs

The City invited applicants to the Tshepo-10k programme through public media and respective ward councillors. A total of 51 499 (five times over-subscribed) applications were received from aspirant young people wanting to participate in the Tshepo-10k programme. The number of applicants confirmed the lack of available opportunities for young people to participate in the mainstream economy. Certain applicants wanted to access what appeared as better opportunities compared to current situation. The applicants ranged from young people with no-formal-schooling to ones with post-secondary qualifications. Table 21 below is a summary of the profile of the final 10 000 selected from the total number of applicants.

Table 21: Educational profile per region of selected Tshepo-10k participants

Region	Degree	Diploma	Post Grad	Matric	High School	No Schooling	Total
1	28	871	307	997	956	151	3310
2	8	202	82	365	402	66	1125
3	27	609	146	839	462	65	2148
4	7	132	75	251	275	25	765
5	1	57	22	101	204	9	394
6	26	441	152	727	406	39	1791
7	1	85	45	124	186	26	467
Total	98	2397	829	3404	2891	381	10 000

Source: City of Tshwane 2013.

The successful applicants were required to undergo training that ranged from financial literacy to elementary construction skills. Once the training was completed, the City was able to register 272 youth owned Co-operatives. The focus areas of the youth-owned Co-operatives range from environmental services to information technology. As at March 2016, the programme had not met its target of ring-fencing 1% of the City's total annual budget for the benefit of Tshepo-10k beneficiaries. The programme had achieved a paltry R19 223 989.08, as opposed to the targeted R280 000 000.00. Table 22 below illustrates that the procurement category contributes towards the biggest share of the R19 223 989.08 was that of goods and services below the R30 000.00 threshold.

Table 22: Budget commitments per procurement category

Procurement Category	Budget
Quotations <R30 000	R13 080 112.00
Quotations [R30 000 to R200 000]	R 1 200 000.00
Sub- Contract	R 1 280 731.41
Tender CB 86/2014	R 3 660 145.67
Total	R19 223 989.08

Source: City of Tshwane 2014.

The failure to meet procurement targets can be explained as follows:

- Officials being averse to “risk” significant procurement to untested companies.
- The fear on the part of youth-owned Co-operatives to bid for large budget tenders.
- The Co-operatives not meeting the legal requirements to participate in large budget tenders.

- The lack of a legal dispensation to favour the youth-owned Co-operatives to benefit from City's procurement.
- The lack of technical expertise on the part of Co-operatives in the City's procurement processes.

Performance against PDOs

The following constitutes certain significant observations made against the pre-determined objectives of Tshepo 10k:

- *Acute unemployment situation.* The fact that the programme was five times over-subscribed and included young people with post-secondary qualifications confirmed the acute nature of unemployment in the City.
- *Inclination to entrepreneurship.* It could be alternatively argued that young people, even those with stable employment are keen on establishing businesses and contribute towards personal wealth accumulation and employment creation.
- *Discordant legislative framework.* The prevailing legislative framework militates against the underpinnings of the programme. The law does not provide for set-asides or ring-fencing of projects for predetermined beneficiaries. The current legislative framework makes competitive bidding compulsory and underscores price and prior experience. Tshepo-10k's success is on set-asides and relaxing the experience requirement.
- *Less than progressive or developmental funding regime.* Many of the beneficiaries have no financial backing to invest in the working capital of their businesses even with contracts. The City is not in a position to advance any payment without work done, and the funding institutions are averse to forward funding to "risky" clients without any prior banking record and/or experience.

- *Private sector reluctance.* Apart from the programme partners, there was limited private sector players willing to accommodate or replicate the Tshepo-10k programme in their respective institutions. The private sector appeared to be of the view that it is the primary responsibility of the public sector to drive programmes of this nature. Hopefully the ultimate success of Tshepo-10k would trigger meaningful private sector participation.

5.2.3 Context analysis

Situational analysis is indispensable in any effort to formulate and mount a coherent and persuasive strategy for any organisation. The study utilised the SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis to help reveal opportunities that are well-placed for exploitation. By understanding ones weaknesses of one's business, one can manage and eliminate threats that would otherwise catch one unaware. Moreover, by looking at oneself and ones competitors using the SWOT framework, one can construct a strategy that helps one distinguish oneself from ones competitors, so that one can compete successfully in one's market. SWOT was developed by Albert S. Humphrey in the 1960s and the tool is as useful now as it was then. One can utilise it in two ways – as a simple icebreaker helping people get together to "kick off" strategy formulation, or in a more sophisticated way as a serious strategy tool (Mind Tools editorial team 2015).

It is significant to note that SWOT was primarily designed for private sector organisations to help anticipate, avoid and defeat competition; exploit opportunities in order to position itself favourably, and predict and influence future markets. The situation has now changed with the public and non-profit organisations employing this tool of analysis to diagnose the problems, imagine a future and carve their place in that new future.

The object of SWOT is to answer, amongst others, the following questions:

- Which of the organisations' strengths can be used to maximise the opportunities identified?
- How can the organisation use its strengths to minimise the threats identified?
- What actions can the organisation take to minimise its weaknesses using the opportunities identified?
- How can we minimise the organisation's weaknesses to avoid the threats identified?

Table 23: Tshwane public free WiFi SWOT analysis

<p>Strengths (<i>internal, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bold, visionary and committed City executive leadership. - Strong City ICT technical team. - City/Isizwe (delivery partner) being on the same wavelength. - A knowledgeable delivery partner, Isizwe. - A not-for-profit project; unlikely to spring funding surprises. 	<p>Weaknesses (<i>internal, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Competing funding needs in the City. - No prior knowledge of drafting a legal contract to deliver a project of this nature. - City has no bandwidth of its own.
<p>Opportunities (<i>external, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High rates of internet-enabled-cell phone penetration in the City. - Converted citizens (convinced about internet being the future). - Highly learned citizens (above average levels of education) have a greater disposition to use the internet. - First-mover advantages, likely to find early traction. - Institutions of learning transitioning to internet-based platforms. - Potential internet revenue generating opportunities for the City. - Growth of internet-based business ventures. - Increased internet usage can spur greater private sector investments. - Close the communication gap between 	<p>Threats (<i>external, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Access to internet viewed as a luxury by many sections of the community resulting in opposition to the City funding the programme. - Opposition and possible litigation against the City by existing private sector internet service providers. - First-mover disadvantages; likely to commit mistakes as there is no ready-made template. - The emergence of a new ICT disruptor rendering the City's programme obsolete. - Asymmetry in the funding priorities of other spheres of government thereby negating the potential scale benefits. - Popularity could lead to greater demands on increasing the daily cap making the programme financially

<p>the city leaders and communities; and making communication more real-time</p>	<p>unsustainable.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increase in sophisticated cyber-attacks disrupting the “new” way of life. - Legislation not designating cities as internet service providers. - Substitute traditional ways of communications, making leader-community interaction more impersonal.
--	---

Table 24: A Re Yeng SWOT analysis

<p>Strengths (<i>internal, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strong delivery institutional design. - Highly experienced technical team. - Solid and predictable national legal framework. - Guaranteed national funding through grants. - Greater coordination with existing operators. 	<p>Weaknesses (<i>internal, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not self-funding, relies on government grants. - Choice of route alignment requires national approval (The City is not in total control). - Route designs reinforcing the Apartheid spatial histology.
<p>Opportunities (<i>external, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fare structure matches rivals. - Last-mover advantages (after Johannesburg and Cape Town) - Increased public transport policy bias by national government. - With increased passenger volumes the unit costs become cheaper. - The growing climate change movement influencing commuter choices. - Multiplicity of funding avenues by multinational funding institutions. 	<p>Threats (<i>external, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Multiple actors (taxis, buses, trail and passenger organisations) pursuing conflicting agendas. - Rejection of the programme by the actors. - Poor intergovernmental coordination of public transport resulting in duplication of services. - Disinclination of the South African

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improve productivity through reduction in travel times. - Improve the effort to reduce emissions. 	<p>commuter to use public transport as a mode of first choice.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discord in intergovernmental planning on the basis of differing political considerations. - Economic stagnation resulting in programme funding reductions. - Absence of a single ticketing system across all modes in the GCR making the BRT less attractive. - Varying service levels across the GCR.
--	--

Table 25: Kuka Maoto SWOT analysis

<p>Strengths (<i>internal, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Absolute and resolute commitment by the City leadership (led by the Executive Mayor) to the programme. - An already existing culture of community engagement in the City. 	<p>Weaknesses (<i>internal, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - City machinery not geared to support the agility and robustness required by KM. - Unsynchronised budget planning across the spheres of government.
<p>Opportunities (<i>external, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Engendering a spirit of active citizenry. - Proliferation of not-for-profit organisations that gives voice to the marginalised. - Democratisation of the policymaking space. - Increased accountability and transparency in decision-making. - Improve a rights culture in the City, GCR and the country. 	<p>Threats (<i>external, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - First-mover disadvantages, likely to commit mistakes - Unreasonably heightened levels of service delivery expectations, beyond the resource envelope. - Disconnect in the City leadership commitment and actual delivery as a result of over-bureaucratisation. - Could undermine highly regimented budget process as a result of political pressures brought to bear by the

	community on the political leadership.
--	--

Table 26: Tshepo-10k SWOT analysis

<p>Strengths (<i>internal, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bold, visionary and committed City executive leadership - Use of own fiscus to drive the programme. - Good relationships that the City has fostered with private sector over a passage of time. 	<p>Weaknesses (<i>internal, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Absence of an enabling legal framework. - Reluctant executive management to execute the programme. - The City's institutional design not geared to support such an initiative.
<p>Opportunities (<i>external, positive</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transforming the interface of youth and the state (youth seeing themselves as partners in the delivery of services as opposed to just being passive recipients of services). - Stimulating youth innovation and entrepreneurship. - Better streamlining of public and private sector youth initiatives/programmes. - Youth in the City are most likely to take to the programme given their above average levels of education. - Huge number of possible private sector players in the City. - The NDP identifies youth as a sector that requires special attention. 	<p>Threats (<i>external, negative</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Over subscription to the programme given that the youth in the City constitutes more than 50% of the population and have the highest unemployment rate. - Competing youth initiative across both the private and public sectors. - First-mover disadvantages, likely to commit mistakes. - Opposition by established business. - Poor performance by beneficiaries which resulting in the programme being discredited. - The programme hijacked for political expediency.

The SWOT analysis confirms that the absence of an enabling legislation could interfere and inhibit the spread of these programmes to other parts of the GCR and the country. Moreover, the success and the lessons drawn from the implementation of the four programmes could inform the orientation and the content of envisaged legislation. The analysis revealed that there are both first and last mover advantages. The first mover advantages to set the agenda but exposes the programme to hitherto unknown challenges. The last-mover advantages include learning and unlearning from the experiences of others and pursue perfection.

A bold, strong and committed leadership is a minimum yet insufficient requirement for the consideration and successful implementation of the innovative programmes. What is apparent is that the public sector domain is evolving rapidly, expanding in both form and content, and requires unorthodox tools of engagement. The expectations of communities are fuelled by their living conditions. The emergence of new voices should not be seen as a threat to the political incumbents but as the broadening of the democratic space that can only serve to enhance the transformation project. The public sector cannot continue to rely on traditional revenue generating initiatives if it is to qualitatively transform the urban spaces in the most thoroughgoing fashion. Greater coordination with private sector and non-profit organisations should be pursued to maximise the latent potential of the urban spaces.

5.2.4 Perspective Analysis

5.2.4.1 Political perspective

Political perspective is about appreciating that decisions are neither made nor in a politically neutral or vacuum, but from the viewpoint of the political actors, an intention of accumulating political currency. These political actors are primarily organised in the form of political parties. Access and or proximity to state power is a significant factor in organisations due to its disproportionate influence on distribution of power and decision-making processes. Therefore, it is in the nature of political actors to strive to access state power to assert their vision on a country, province or city.

The actions of the political actors is not naïve but borne from their appreciation of the balance of forces at play in the political terrain and whether such actions bolster their electoral ambitions and/or enhances their standing in society. The actions of the political actors are geared at tilting the political calculus in their favour, and to undermine or harm the electoral prospects and/or credibility of their political opponents. In a democratic dispensation, a fair and transparent election serves as a passage to state power. The political actors make their intentions known of how they will exercise state power if elected through a social contract with the electorate, a manifesto. The manifesto is a codification of the policy aims and objectives of a political party.

Programme analysis against the ANC manifesto

The ANC (the party), has been the governing party in South Africa since the inception of democracy in 1994. At national and provincial levels, the party has won five (5) successive terms of five (5) years each since the dawn of democracy. At City of Tshwane local government level the party has won three (3) successive terms of five (5) years each after the Interim Period which ended with the holding of the 2000 Local Government Elections (LGE). The party was displaced from the seat of power in the 2016 LGE by a coalition government. In all of its election campaigns, be it national, provincial or local government; the party has produced a manifesto that serves to articulate its agenda if elected into office and further serves as a social contract with the electorate. Since the City administration was led by the party, it is advisable to identify its manifesto objectives that could be met through the successful delivery of each programme (see Table 9 below). The logical assumption drawn is that successful delivery of the manifesto enhances both the credibility and electability of the ANC in future elections.

Table 27: Matching of ANC manifesto commitments and programmes

Programme	ANC LGE Manifesto 2011	ANC Manifesto 2014	ANC LGE Manifesto 2016
<p>Tshwane public free WiFi</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extend the distribution of community libraries, including upgrading of existing libraries with new materials, information and communication (ICT) infrastructure and internet access. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We will invest in science and technology. - We will invest in a comprehensive plan to expand broadband access throughout the country and substantially reduce the cost of communication. - Government will support and develop free-WiFi areas in cities, towns and rural areas. - We aim to connect all schools, public health and other government facilities through broadband by 2020, and at least 90% of our communities should have substantial and superfast broadband capacity by 2020. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expanding broadband access in local government, including through free Wi-Fi areas.



<p>A Re Yeng</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - See that municipalities play their part in a national climate change strategy, including promoting local energy saving campaigns. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We will invest in improved passenger transport systems through the development of bus-rapid transit systems to more cities such as Nelspruit, Bloemfontein, East London, Polokwane, Msunduzi, Ekurhuleni and George. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ensuring that municipalities work with national and provincial government in the implementation of climate change mitigation and adaptation measures - Build spatially integrated communities.
<p>Tshepo 10k</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Massively increase the number of youth participating in job creation, skills development and national youth service programmes organised by the National Youth Development Agency. - Municipalities will put aside a percentage of their procurement targets for local co-operatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Address the needs of the youth for empowerment, education and job creation through a multi-pronged approach that creates job placements and internship schemes, set aside 60% of employment and empowerment in infrastructure and other projects for youth, and promote youth employment and training incentives schemes. - Consolidate the public works programme, creating 6 million work opportunities by 2019. Many of which will be of a long duration. - Empower and promote education and employment for the youth. - Build an extensive support network for small businesses and co-operatives. - Build on the commitments in social accords to bring black-owned small businesses and co-operatives into the supply chains of larger companies and the public sector. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Upscaling cooperatives to mainstream economic development. - Ensuring that all municipalities develop special programmes targeting youth cooperatives and enterprises. - Developing the productive and creative skills of young people for economic projects and activities in municipalities.



			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Encouraging local businesses to target young people and to take advantage of programmes to promote youth employment.
--	--	--	--

Kuka Maoto	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Further, strengthen the voice of communities and ensure that adequate support is provided for empowerment of communities on decision-making processes affecting their lives. - Ensure that all national and provincial programmes, which are to be implemented locally, are clearly communicated and reported to communities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strengthen existing forums of people's participation and enable our people to play a greater role in development through partnerships with a range of community and social organisations. - Strengthen the bonds of trust and solidarity with our people where these have been broken and continue to listen to and effectively communicate with our people. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strengthening public participation to ensure that all communities participate in municipal programmes and activities. - Further, improve accessibility and accountability of ANC councillors through regular report back and feedback meetings in communities. - Strengthening partnerships with community organisations and other forums of people's participation.
-------------------	--	---	--

It is interesting to note that the 2016 LGE manifesto refers to the expansion of the provision of free WiFi, because the ruling party fully appreciates the success story, TshWiFi. The call for free public WiFi has been extended beyond public facilities. All three Manifestos acknowledge the value of young people in the economy of the country. They

seek to place youth front-centre of the policy initiatives at all three spheres of government. The manifestos appreciate the dangers of a trust deficit between the people and their elected representatives. The manifestos commit, in one form or the other, to strengthen the social contract with the people, make more transparent the processes of selecting public representatives, and enhance the contact with the people. The provision of safe, reliable, affordable and efficient public transport is not seen just as a mobility solution but one that enhances the country's contribution to the lessening of the degradation of the environment and protecting the rights of the poor and marginalised.

The four programmes have contributed in the re-articulation of the role of the local government in the realisation of the development imperative. Although the City has been a leader in the initiation of innovative solutions aimed at resolution of the problems of communities; the ruling party was successful in retaining power in the City during the 2016 LGE. The failure to win the City was a manifestation of the broader leadership failures, policy-implementation-deficits, and moral challenges confronting the party.

5.2.4.2 Development perspective

As indicated previously, South Africa adopted a blue print for development in the form of the NDP, which serves as an apex and authoritative roadmap for growth and development in the country. It puts forward a set of actions that need to be triggered to address the challenges of poverty, unemployment and inequality. It is envisaged that provinces, cities; departments; State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) will develop their own plans to realise the NDP goals. Each of the four programmes is matched with the NDP objectives and/or actions that they are likely to enhance.

The Gauteng Provincial Government (GPG) and the City developed their own long-term visions in support of the broad goals of the NDP, and further articulated the unique goals of the political and space economies in their individual jurisdictions. Gauteng has witnessed remarkable improved change over the past two decades of democracy as a result of government working in partnership with the people of the province. In preparation for the next part of the journey to build a prosperous and socially inclusive Gauteng City

Region, the provincial government has developed Gauteng Vision 2055 after extensive consultation with stakeholders and members of the public. This is a long-term plan for Gauteng and charts the way forward to address the continuous challenges of poverty and inequality. 'I know as a province we will achieve our goals' (Mokonyane cited in Baloyi 2014). With the election of the fifth Gauteng Administration under the stewardship of Premier Makhura in 2014, the Transformation, Modernisation and Reindustrialisation (TMR) programme was introduced. The practicalisation of the NDP: Vision 2030 in the GCR must be executed through the TMR programme based on the Ten Pillars and the Game Changing Interventions (Makhura 2015). The extent to which each of the four programmes contributes towards the provincial development aspiration is measured against the TMR programme. Tshwane Vision 2055 articulates our response to the issues of governance, economic development, poverty alleviation, job creation, health, urbanisation, climate change, education, safety, social cohesion, and resource sustainability among others (Ngobeni cited in Vision 2055). The programmes are matched with the Vision 2055 Strategic Actions that they are likely to advance.

Table 28: Matching development plans objectives or actions with programmes

Programme	Contribution to NDP Objectives and Actions	Gauteng Ten Pillar Programme Objectives	Contribution to Vision 2055 Strategic Actions
<p>Tshwane public free WiFi</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Make high-speed broadband internet universally available at competitive prices. - Stimulating sector growth and innovation by driving public and private ICT investment, especially in network upgrades and expansion (particularly in broadband) and development of applications and local content. - Focusing on stimulating demand by promoting e-literacy, instituting ICT rebates and incentives and developing ICT applications in sectors such as health and education as well as on the supply-side infrastructure and institutions. - Extend broadband penetration. Ensure 100 percent broadband penetration by 2020. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Implementing e-Governance and harness ICT. - Smart Economy - Build a Digital city region: This includes Broadband infrastructure rollout to promote economic efficiency, increase economic diversity, support good governance, improve productivity, and enhance sustainability. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increase ICT infrastructure to support economic development. - Create and enabling environment to support R&D and commercialization of innovation to sustain growth and productivity. - Use technology to effectively communicate with the public and for timely dissemination of information in all languages. - Promote smart governance.



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High-speed broadband should be readily available and incorporated into the design of schools. This will enable greater use of technology in education and enhance the classroom experience for both teachers and students. 		
<p>A Re Yeng</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better quality public transport. - Substantial investment to ensure safe, reliable and affordable public transport. - Environmental sustainability through efforts to reduce pollution and mitigate the effects of climate change. - Public transport investment should be used for the spatial transformation of towns and cities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Planned and integrated urban development. - Strategic Transport Infrastructure. - Planned urbanisation and urban development: Radically improve on better urban planning, public transport and arrest urban decay. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Revitalise and develop new economic nodes that support transit-oriented development and public transport systems. - Co-ordinate land public transport service. - Co-ordinated development of new urban nodes where these are on the edge of municipal boundaries or where these are based on joint and local infrastructure investments. - Increase mobility and connectivity through provision of an integrated, affordable, efficient and safe public transport and alternative mobility options.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The unemployment 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support access to



<p>Tshepo 10k</p>	<p>rate should fall from 24.9 percent in June 20 12 to 14 percent by 2020 and to 6 percent by 2030. This requires an additional 11 million jobs. Total employment should rise from 13 million to 24 million.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The proportion of adults working should increase from 41% to 61%. - The labour force participation rate should rise from 54% to 65%. - Provide income support to the unemployed through various active labour market initiatives such as public works programmes, training and skills development, and other labour market related incentives. - Breaking the disincentive to hire young, unskilled work seekers by incentivising the employment of young, unskilled work seekers. 		<p>economic opportunities in youth sector as our contribution to transforming ownership in the country.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strengthen skills development programmes to support youth development. - Provide Cooperative support and access to markets.
<p>Kuka Maoto</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improving trust between the public and private sectors. The government must treat private 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Build an activist, responsive and clean government. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strengthening dialogue networks with civil society, community organisations and



	<p>actors as partners in policy design and implementation, and the private sector in turn must respond to and facilitate the realisation of national objectives.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Responsiveness on the part of the state to anticipate possible crises and respond to them rapidly and appropriately.- Strengthen delegation, accountability and oversight. Promote greater and more consistent delegation supported by systems of support and oversight. Make it easier for citizens to hold public servants and politicians accountable, particularly for the quality of service delivery.- Improve interdepartmental coordination. Adopt a less hierarchical approach to interdepartmental coordination so that most issues can be resolved between officials through routine day-to-day		<p>the private sector.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Explore alternative activist citizenry models to implement.- Support informal structures that are found in communities that are aimed at tackling societal challenges.- Strengthen participatory governance models.
--	---	--	--

	<p>interactions.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strengthen the interdependence of the three spheres through a more proactive approach to managing the intergovernmental system. - Municipalities need to engage communities in their own spaces. 		
--	--	--	--

There is great discipline in the planning framework in the country. The Province and the City have developed their respective visions and plans in support of the realisation of the overarching coherent NDP. There is unanimity on the role of internet access in the realisation of the equity and growth targets in the country and the need for public sector participation in the provision of internet access. The harvesting of the demographic dividend is a primary consideration in the planning paradigm across the three spheres of government. Investment in the youth should be driven by a commitment to improve youth skills, inculcate entrepreneurship skills and accelerate their absorption into the mainstream economy. A listening, responsive and transparent government will serve the goal of democratising the policy-making and implementation space.

5.2.4.3 The public leadership perspective

The four programmes initiated by the City leadership succeeded in surfacing new challenges faced by the modern-day public sector leadership. These encounters emanate from, amongst others, a rapidly evolving public space characterised by the emergence of new and vocal social actors, the expanding scope of issues that are of public interest, such as climate change; exponential increase the rate of technological evolution, and the multicultural nature the urban spaces. Certain effects of the transforming nature of the urban spaces on public leadership are discussed below.

The blurring of public, non-profit, and private organisations boundaries

Some of the major victories in the rise of activism of many social actors is the redetermination of what constitutes the public good; reconfiguration of private sector goals to include social motives as a strategic goal; and proliferation and/or strengthening of non-profit organisations that promotes and protects the “good” and interests of the certain sectors of society. The rise of these non-profit organisations have largely to do with a socially evolving urban space and the need to inscribe new voices in the governance of such spaces. These varied and sectorial non-profit organisations include the Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender/Transsexual and Intersexed (LGBTI) community, the #Datamustfall movement, and Council for the Advancement of the South African Constitution (CASAC).

In the case of the Tshwane public free WiFi, the City leadership was progressive in initiating a programme that hitherto was considered an exclusive private sector domain. The experience in offering of TshWiFi succeeded in registering the following significant conclusions:

- The provision of free public WiFi is a compelling social and economic benefit to society and can be used as a powerful instrument to accelerate the economic participation of the marginalised communities and help in driving both R&D and economic growth.
- Where there is substantive convergence on the ideals underpinning the work of public, private, and non-profit organisations the product could be watershed as has been the case with TshWiFi experience.
- Non-profit organisations can help in the delivery of the public good, in instances of an enabling environment. The collaboration of the City and Isizwe was era-defining in that the road to universal free internet access was paved and the costs of the delivery model of TshWiFi has helped in lowering data prices.

Transition from rigid to flexible public administration

Activism among communities, represented largely by their own organs of power such as civic organisation and other extra-parliamentary organisations have pushed City leaders into very uncomfortable spaces of having to be approachable and responsive of the

manner in which they attend to community concerns and grievances. The advent of technology has made it possible for communities to register their grievances, opinions and suggestions in real-time. The use of social media has become an indispensable feature of the public management space in urban spaces. The laws and regulations governing public management are not designed to accommodate and/or anticipate the impact of social media and the rise of new voices in the democratic governance of urban spaces.

The traditional approaches of POSDCORB in Paradigm 2 of the evolution of the study of PA, has been completely invalidated. The lessons to be drawn from the Kuka Maoto programme suggests that the administrative functions do not have to be linear, but both elastic and dynamic. Elastic implies that the City needs to respond timeously to community pressures and demands without undermining the prevailing legislative framework, and dynamic because some of the administrative functions can be executed simultaneously and/or without following a prescribed order but still yield the same results.

Rise of the public sector as the driver for socio-economic change

Earlier in our study of PA, Bapuji (1989: 396) noted that 1980s saw a new environment emerging 'which rejected some of the earlier premises of public administration. The greatly reduced confidence in the efficacy of government and of public administration was reinforced by the disintegration of the intellectual foundations of the discipline along with its paradigms. The notion of big government was rejected as a potential threat to individual freedom and as the enemy of economic efficiency while the movement of small government started finding appeal in several countries of the West and Non-west which resulted in the decline of governmental activities and simultaneous growth of private sector activities, at least in the West.

It is significant to observe that both Tshepo-10k and TshWiFi have rebutted the 1980 experience of "less" government. The state, and by extension the public sector, can assume an important role in the fundamental alteration of the economic relations of society. The public sector is both the single biggest consumer of services and has the biggest budget. The ability of the public sector to fashion policy choices that makes it

possible to exploit being both the single biggest spender and consumer, and having the biggest budget is key to the realisation of thorough economic transformation. The design of Tshepo-10k was premised on the City ring-fencing a percentage of its spending to realise the objectives of the project. All the City needs to do is to initiate regulations that will make it possible for the administrationists to implement the dispensation. On the other hand, TshWiFi serves to expand the scope of public sector involvement to extend beyond the traditional and legislated areas, of basic service provision.

TshWiFi has revolutionised the way the public sector views its role in the development space. One lesson from TshWiFi is that the public sector can be both a disruptor and a driver of socio-economic change. A disruptor in this instance does not refer to the public sector having invented something unknown, but the sector redefining the delivery model of innovation and reconfiguring the monetary and social costs and benefits of the choice taken.

Ability to manage complex and multiple interest-based actors

The programmes have demonstrated that the leadership of the public sector has grown more complex. First, there is the emergence of the new and exuberant voices (at times having conflicting interests), and the rise of constitutionalism. The conflictual nature of some of the interest-based actors is best demonstrated in the challenges regarding the roll-out of A Re Yeng programme. The City experienced unprecedented resistance from the Lynwood community when A Re Yeng route alignment meant to pass along the very busy Lynwood Road in the Lynwood area was discussed with the stakeholders. The well-resourced Lynwood Residents Association, who are largely private car-oriented in terms of their commuting needs were opposed to the alignment going through their “own backyard”. The proposed alignment would result in providing a dedicated lane to the existing lane configuration. The exclusive lane would invariably result in increased traffic as a result of the halving of the capacity which would lead to longer commuting queues for the private car users.

In this instance, the central question which faced the City was “*who is the public road designed for?*” The answer is that public road and its uses should be equitable and facilitate mobility and inclusion for all. The poor have limited travel choices except to rely on public transport. Ultimately, the City needed to mediate conflicting interests to arrive at an amicable solution. In this impasse, the City stuck to its conviction that the proposed alignment through Lynwood Road is in the interest of equity, mobility and economic facilitation of the marginalised communities.

5.2.5 Programme adoption by the GCR

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of each of the four programmes on the GCR and the lessons that could be learned if it is to maximise the exploitation of the programmes to facilitate full realisation of its objectives. Where applicable, the degree of adoption of the programmes by peer municipalities would be scrutinised.

5.2.5.1 Tshwane free public WiFi adoption by peer cities

TshWiFi was introduced by the City to make it possible for its economy to benefit from the documented and tested advantages of wall-to-wall free WiFi access as experienced in many parts of the world, especially developed countries. The City further envisaged free internet access as one of the best vehicles to facilitate the inclusion of marginalised communities to knowledge and information platforms. It was envisaged that TshWiFi would further enhance the communication platforms between the City and the residents and allow for real-time service delivery information sharing. Other cities in Gauteng emulated the City’s initiative. The Cities of Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni warrants specific interest and examination because they are also categorised as metropolitan municipalities and are neighbouring the City of Tshwane. The features of their WiFi programmes are explained below.

City of Johannesburg rollout of public free WiFi

The City of Johannesburg is one of the first metropolitan municipalities in the country and province to replicate the City’s free WiFi delivery model. The Executive Mayor of the City

of Johannesburg, Councillor Tau (cited in Shezi 2015) stated that ‘We see this is as very transformative initiative that will turbo charge Joburg’s digital economy. We have set ourselves an ambitious target to get this going but it is really just the beginning, amazing things are coming and the Smart City is here, this is our vision for a world-class African City’. The Johannesburg public free WiFi that Mayor Tau referred to offers 300MB per day

Tau (cited in Shezi 2015) also committed that the city also seems to be aiming at developing the Smart City WiFi project into something that will mirror the Tshwane project, with voice, video, data features to be added in the near future. The roll-out of the Johannesburg programme was as follows:

- 100% free access in Braamfontein starting October 2016.
- The Braamfontein Wireless Mesh project is part of the metro’s Smart City initiative, which aims to have 1 000 free WiFi hotspots set up across the Johannesburg by the end of this year, allowing citizens to connect to the free service from the mobiles, laptops and PCs.
- 80 public facilities across the City of Johannesburg such as libraries, clinics, bus stations, swimming pools were targeted.
- The planned roll out phases will include regions such as Zandspruit, Diepsloot, Orange Farm, Ivory Park, Pennyville, Lenasia and Ziberfontein.

City of Ekurhuleni rollout of public free WiFi

Shezi (2015) noted that ‘Ekurhuleni joins the cities of Tshwane and Joburg as the third out of five metros in the province to offer free WiFi’. Sedibeng and the West Rand were yet to follow. The residents received a 250MB data cap per day, per device. A data cap-free portal, which links users to government information, job posts as well as educational content, would follow. Ekurhuleni launched its free public WiFi in November 2015. Ekurhuleni commenced its roll-out of free WiFi to 223 public sites that included: clinics, libraries, Fire stations and youth centres. The project would take three years to complete, and was executed by the public transport consulting company MultiMedia InnoVations

(MMIV) together with telecommunications group Altech, which included a budget of between R80m and R120m planned to connect 695 buildings (Shezi 2015).

Future expansion of public free WiFi across the GCR

The adoption of the public free WiFi programme by the other major cities in Gauteng include: Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni which kindled new thinking on the role of cities in relation to the provision of free public internet access. This superb initiative by the City gave birth to a new movement that advocates the provision of free public WiFi for consideration as a basic municipal service. The replication of TshWiFi beyond the City's municipal boundaries has raised a number of challenges and shortcomings that require immediate attention; these include:

- *Absence of a uniform service level across the metros.* The disparities in the service levels are more obvious and pronounced when one considers the daily cap provided by each municipality. City of Tshwane offers 500MB; City of Johannesburg offers 300MB and the City of Ekurhuleni offers 250MG to its residents.
- *Asymmetrical delivery models.* The City of Tshwane opted to collaborate with a not-for-profit organisation, Isizwe whilst both the cities of Ekurhuleni and Johannesburg chose to engage with commercial partners. This aspect can clarify the ability of the City of Tshwane to provide a higher internet daily cap compared to its peers. The non-cooperation between the three metros in the Gauteng severely undermined their ability to realise scale benefits.
- *Discrimination by geography.* Communities in the Gauteng metropolitan areas are more privileged to access free public internet usage because of the advantage of the size of the fiscus of their respective metros. Whilst the delivery of free public WiFi is bold and commendable, it has resulted in the unintended consequence of penalising communities residing in relatively poor municipal areas of Gauteng.
- *Inability to articulate a coherent end goal.* The City of Tshwane stated its policy intention to ensure that each of its citizens is within walking distance of a public free

WiFi. The other two cities of Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni have not clearly articulated what would be the end result of its free WiFi roll-out.

- *The absence of an enabling local government legislation.* The roll-out of free public WiFi in the three metropolitan areas is progressing outside an enabling piece of legislation. The introduction of legislation will be useful to prescribe and explain matters such as: the role and place of municipalities in offering free public WiFi, service level standards, model of delivery and financing.

5.2.5.2 BRT roll-out in the GCR

The introduction of A Re Yeng is meant to change the face of public transport in the City. It is intended to provide efficient, reliable, safe and affordable public transport to the people of the Capital City. A Re Yeng is part of the integrated public transport offering with a view to make public transport more attractive and ultimately a mode of choice for all commuters in the City. The test for an integrated public transport in the GCR is the extent of integration of the various public transport services across the municipalities in the form of the bus rapid transport, commuter train system, the Gautrain, bus services, and taxi services.

Gauteng 25-year integrated transport master plan (ITMP25)

The efficiency of its transport system, integrated with land-use development, is central to the future economic growth and development of the GCR. Provincial Land Transport Frameworks (PLTFs) and local Integrated Transport Plans (ITPs) had been developed over the past decade, but none of these plans have had a very long planning horizon or providing a longer-term strategic framework similar to the National Development Plan and the Gauteng Vision 2055. Consequently, the Gauteng Department of Roads and Transport (GDRT) reconsidered its longer term planning and commence a new planning cycle (GDRT 2013, p. 1). The ITMP25 was primarily developed to deliver a world class and sustainable transport system that supports Gauteng's economic, social and cultural, and environmental goals (GDRT 2013).

The introduction of the BRT system in the major metropolitan areas of Gauteng was considered a key intervention in the realisation of the objectives of the ITMP25. The ITMP25 sought to reconfigure the histology of the Gauteng Apartheid space and maximise its space economy. The City of Johannesburg was the first of the three metros to introduce the BRT.

Johannesburg's Rea Vaya

The construction of the Rea Vaya (a Sotho word meaning we are going) Bus Rapid Transit system was one of the most ambitious projects ever undertaken by the City of Johannesburg. Since its launch in 2009, the project has created vibrant spaces and connected previously unlinked economic nodes across the city (City of Johannesburg 2015). The City of Johannesburg (2015) introduced the project in multiple phases namely:

- *Phase 1A*

Rea Vaya's Phase 1A started running in 2009 with a trunk route operating between Ellis Park in Doornfontein and Thokoza Park in Soweto, linking with several feeder routes in Soweto. Feeder buses run from Protea Glen to Thokoza Park and from Eldorado Park to Lakeview. The route covers 325 kilometres of special lanes and intersections, and feeder and complementary buses carry passengers to the trunk route stations. The inner city circular route travels around the CBD from Hillbrow and Braamfontein, to Ellis Park in the east and Chancellor House on the western edge of the city. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup tournament, approximately 307 000 passengers travelled along the Phase 1A routes.

- *Phase 1B*

The Phase 1B roll-out was completed in February 2014. The routes included Cresta, Windsor West, Parktown, Yeoville, and to and from the University of Johannesburg Soweto. The route starts in Noordgesig in Soweto, and travels through Pennyville, New Canada, Highgate, Auckland Park and Braamfontein, to Parktown, Metro Centre and Rissik Street in the CBD. The route enables commuters to reach key public healthcare centres such as the Rahima Moosa, Helen Joseph and Charlotte Maxeke hospitals, as well as educational institutions such as the University of Johannesburg, Wits University, Milpark College, Parktown Boys' High School and Barnato Park High

School easily. Feeders run to and from Leaglen, Stormhill, Florida, Cresta, Yeoville and Parktown. There are also additional feeders in Soweto from Pimville and Mapetla. These routes are now linked to the Metro Centre Rea Vaya loop, which travels to the inner city via Braamfontein.

- *Phase 1C*

Phase 1C runs from: Parktown to Alexandra; Alexandra to Sandton, with complementary services between the CBD and Ivory Park; the CBD to Sunninghill on Oxford/Rivonia roads. Future plans also include extending the Phase 1C route from Sandton to Randburg by 2018, and possibly extending the trunk route from Soweto Highway to Dobsonville, enabling feeders to service areas such as Braamfisherville. The Rea Vaya trunk routes from the CBD to Sunninghill via Oxford Road and Ivory Park to Sunninghill will be prioritised after 2018. The three interchanges would include Sandton, Alexandra and Westgate, where a number of station modules will be clustered and will be integrated with other modes of transport, including walking and cycling.

Ekurhuleni's Harambee

The City of Ekurhuleni's version of BRT is named Harambee (a Kiswahili term which means "pulling or working together in unity"). The construction of the Harambee BRT started in April 2014 on the complementary route between Tembisa Hospital and the Tembisa Civic Centre was meant to ultimately connect the nine towns that comprise Ekurhuleni, namely: Benoni, Germiston, and springs, Kempton Park, Edenvale, Nigel, Brakpan, Boksburg and Alberton in a bid to overcome the problems created by Apartheid spatial planning (Pule 2016).

The first phase, which is 56km, would run from Tembisa in the north via Kempton Park, OR Tambo International Airport and Boksburg, ending in Vosloorus in the south (Gungubele cited in Pule 2016). The second phase of implementation will commence in the operation of 40 buses in the area of Tembisa and Kempton Park.

Future expansion and integration of public transport systems across the GCR

The speed and introduction of the BRT systems in the three Gauteng metropolitan areas is highly commendable and demonstrates a political resolve in the three metros to drive the effort of spatial change. There are however, GCR-wide discrepancies in the introduction of the BRT systems, which include:

- *Poor (GCR) integration of the public transport systems.* The GPG introduced the innovative Gautrain, a revolutionary rail-based public transport that would redefine commuting in Gauteng. The feeder network to the Gautrain competes with the route alignment of certain BRT routes which has resulted in unnecessary duplication of subsidised public transport services at a great cost to the taxpayer. There is limited or no coordination with passenger rail transport service provider, Metrorail, which also results in duplication of subsidised public transport services. The poor integration extends to the lack of an integrated ticketing system. A commuter using multiple forms of public transport modes in the GCR will have as many tickets as the number of modes used.
- *Lack of uniform design standards.* The choice of station design of the BRTs in the metros of the GCR confirms the clash of ideas amongst the respective city planners of the ideal model of station design. Both the cities of Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni selected the high floor station design whilst the City chose the low floor design. These differences in design emanated even after the metros claimed to have conducted extensive research on what would be the ideal station design model for their respective cities. The tension in the choice of design will be more pronounced when the BRTs migrate to greater integration, and the GCR faces a choice of what is the most ideal station design at points of intersection for the BRTs.
- *The municipal boundary constrains.* The ITMP25 acknowledges the integrated nature of commuting in the GCR. The patterns of GCR commuting does not respect the parochial political and administrative boundaries of the respective municipalities. However, the planners of the BRTs have not accommodated this obvious trend as they

were constrained by the legal framework that provides that the function of public transport planning at a municipal level is confined within the municipal boundaries of the municipal authority.

5.2.5.3 Kuka Maoto midwife to Ntirhisano

As indicated earlier, KM was introduced by the City to facilitate the interaction of the City leadership and communities, enhance community participation, and reverse service delivery backlogs and coordinate overall government initiatives and interventions in matters related to service delivery. Having learned from the phenomenal success of the KM, the Premier of Gauteng, Honourable David Makhura also introduced a service delivery war room programme at a provincial level. The Gauteng service delivery war room is known as Ntirhisano, a Tsonga word for working together –the collaborative, was launched on 11 September 2014.

“We have reviewed why people have lost confidence in the current structures and processes of public participation and examined what needs to be done to build popular democracy and people's power. Ntirhisano will introduce greater co-ordination, integration and responsiveness by government institutions across all spheres. It will also encourage government, especially public servants, to adopt an attitude of finding solutions to problems. I see the Service Delivery War Room machinery running from ward to provincial level to improve the responsiveness and galvanise all resources of provincial and local government in a coordinated and integrated way. We need to find ways to empower ward councillors and place them at the centre of building local popular democracy and people's power on the one hand and enhancing capacity for rapid response to unblock service delivery and resolve community complaints on the other” (Makhura cited in Mailoane 2014).

Ntirhisano implementation model

This service delivery model is anchored on three pillars – respond, resolve and grow, which seeks to resolve to the community issues, resolve service delivery challenges and grow Gauteng communities (Ntirhisano 2015). The Ntirhisano features are as follows (Gauteng Provincial Government, 2015):

- Central Information Centre
- Overall coordination, management, strategy, planning, monitoring and interventions based on escalations
- Knowledge and information management systems, dashboards, GIS mapping etc.
- integrated household profiling and response system
- Strategic analysis of data, reports and issues (Performance monitoring and expenditure data, Hotline, media, CDW reports etc.)
- Early warnings and hotspot analysis
- Monitoring and tracking systems
- Technical support for ward-level and other structures
- Public Hotline and integrated Rapid Response System
- Streamlined Rapid Response systems and structures
- Key roles for MECs, designated MMCs, Ward Councillors and intervention teams
- Rapid response to pressing issues incl. protests
- Linkages with departments and municipal Rapid Response managers
- Enhanced and integrated GCR-wide case management system
- Cases through multiple channels, incl. Hotline, household visits, ward response centres, public walk-in centres in municipalities and departments, CDWs, Izimbizo, hotspots etc.
- Proposed integration of GPG and metro systems
- Location capabilities, mapping etc.
- Links with field workers (cell phones) and local response centres
- Resolution and escalation procedures
- War Room Service Machinery
- Province Metro/District Regions/locals Wards

- Service Response Teams: problem-solving and action oriented structures and people tasked with service delivery responses
- Service Response Centres: Facilities in every ward serving as a base for activities

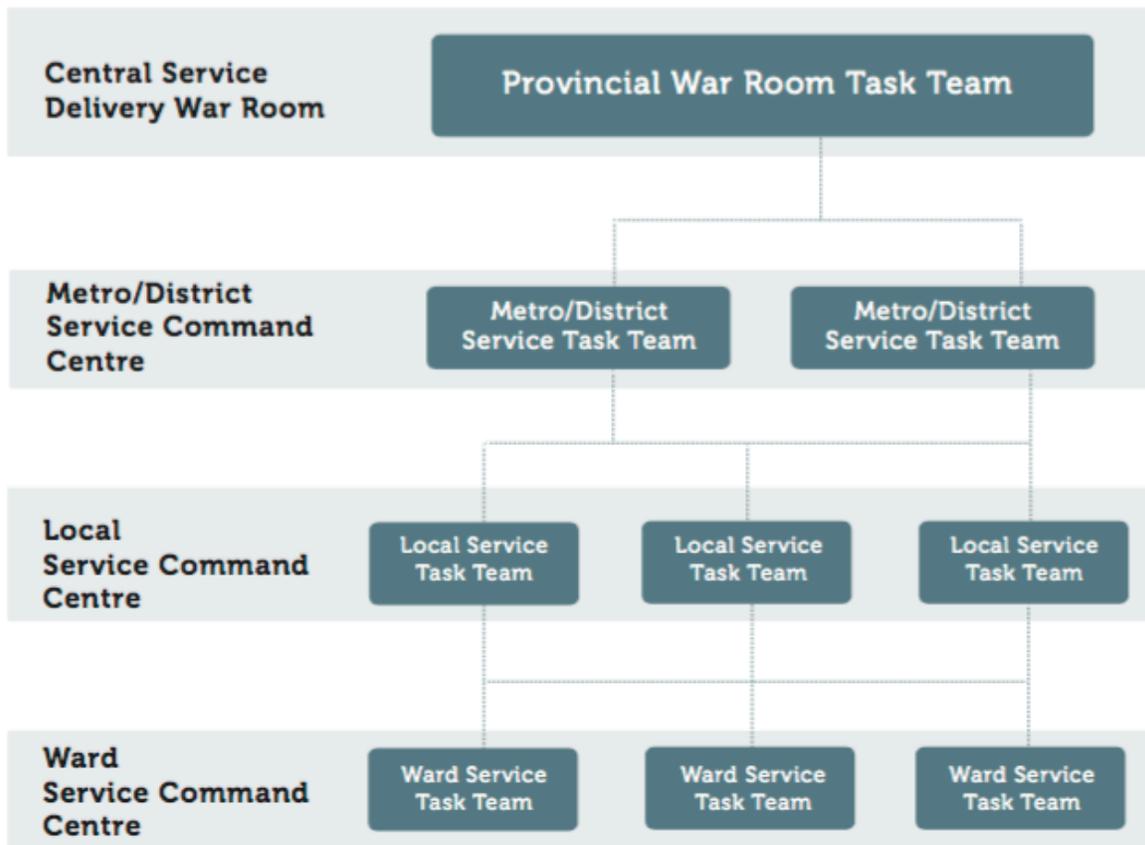


Figure 25: Ntirhisano macro structure.

Future expansion of Kuka Maoto across the GCR

The inception of Ntirhisano succeeded in bringing government closer to the people, enhance and widen communication channels with communities; and improve the pace and quality of the delivery of services. The following areas attract attention:

- *Inflexible public sector.* Ntirhisano assumes that the design and orientation of the public sector has space for agility and unmitigated creativity. The public sector is one of the most highly regimented spaces in the country. Countless pieces of legislation and

regulation stunts and discourages creativity of both politicians and practitioners. Vertical structures and extensive bureaucracy makes the public sector less responsive, which could undermine the very basis of Ntirhisano.

- *Poor integration across the three spheres.* Ntirhisano seeks to present government as an indivisible unit, and attempts to create a single window of interaction with communities. The success of Ntirhisano is predicated on the three spheres achieving the following:
 - *Transcending parochial political party interests*
 - *Streamlining planning and funding*
 - *Openly sharing information*
- *Docile and poorly informed communities.* The first requirement of attaining one's rights is to know them. In many communities there appears to be limited effort on behalf of the communities and their leaders to fully appreciate their rights. The appearance of not knowing rights makes it less likely for communities to exploit the Ntirhisano contact sessions to hold the political elite accountable and to advocate for their own rights.

5.2.5.4 The rise of Tshepo-10k

The introduction of Tshepo-10k was to facilitate the meaningful participation of the youth in the mainstream economy, maximise the demographic dividend, and enable the creation of successful youth-owned enterprises in the City. This was to be achieved through the City ring-fencing one percent of its total budget for this purpose. Although the City was not in a position to achieve its targets in the inception year of the programme, the Gauteng Province acknowledged the innovation of this project and adopted and up-scaled it at the provincial level to Tshepo 500 000; i.e. the target at a provincial level was 500 000 given the provincial purse.

Tshepo 500 000 implementation model

Gauteng Tshepo 500 000 is a proactive intervention by the Gauteng Provincial Government (GPG) to enable, equip and prepare a specific number of the unemployed youth, women and people with disabilities together with Military Veterans, to participate, benefit from and also realise many Provincial Government projects for the purpose of advancing Gauteng into an integrated, socially cohesive, and economically inclusive City Region. The programme will be delivered through partnerships between Provincial Government, Local Government, State Owned Enterprises, Private Sector and Institutions of Higher Learning (Gauteng Provincial Government 2017). The programme was launched on 11 December 2014. The programme phases as designed by the Gauteng Government (2017) is as follows:

- *Pillar 1: Transition and Placement*

This pillar focuses on finding job opportunities, matching and placing new graduates with available opportunities. New graduates are also equipped with life skills to cope with the work environment.

- *Pillar 2: Skills Development and Training*

This pillar focuses on equipping unemployed Gauteng Tshepo 500 000 candidates with critical skills that position and enable them to secure job opportunities and pursue entrepreneurship opportunities in the key sectors of the Provincial economy.

- *Pillar 3: Direct Employment*

The focus is on matching and filling identified job vacancies with candidates trained and skilled under Gauteng Tshepo 500 000. Vacancies will be in SMME's and co-operatives created under the programme in existing private sector companies or government and other partners to the programme.

- *Pillar 4: Entrepreneurship Development*

The focus is on assisting candidates that have opted to pursue entrepreneurship opportunities with all the support they need to establish and operate competitive business entities in key sectors of the economy

Gauteng Tshepo 500 000 is an employment creation and entrepreneurship development programme which will be implemented over a 5-year period through a focus on the following identifiable interventions with links to other development programmes of the Gauteng Provincial Government:

- Transition and placement for new graduates
- Skills development and training
- Direct employment
- Entrepreneurship development and training

From Tshepo 500 000 to Tshepo 1 million

Tshepo 500 000 was such a phenomenal success that it was expanded to Tshepo 1 million and re-launched on 15 June 2017. Tshepo One Million is an expansion of the Tshepo 500 000 initiative by the provincial government which was unveiled in 2014 to provide 500 000 unemployed youth opportunities through skills training, job placement and entrepreneurship development. Due to the success of the flagship programme and the magnitude of the problem of youth unemployment in the province, the provincial government decided to upscale its efforts from empowering 500 000 youth to one million young people by 2019. 'The youth are the most vulnerable people in society. They are used, exploited, and they are at the bleeding edge of toxic trifecta of high unemployment, persistent poverty and growing inequality. They can be enlisted for negative social causes because they are readily available' (Makhura cited in Sekhonyane 2017).

The private sector has made the expansion possible by committing to the aspects of the programme. Below are some of the commitments made at the Tshepo 1 million launch:

- Microsoft SA will provide one million young people with training opportunities in digital skills. This partnership commits to a mass-scale deployment of the Microsoft Digital Literacy and Virtual Academy Platform.
- Coca-Cola committed to pipeline of young job seekers into internships, learnerships, enterprise/supplier development and jobs across ABI value chain
- Shanduka Black Umbrellas is a lead implementing/coordinating project partner with

in the evolution and rollout of the Township Marketplace Platform and wider Tshepo one Million Township Economy, township businesses will be assisted by partnership on condition they provide opportunities for young interns/employees.

- GIJIMA committed skills and opportunities in ICT value chain, especially data analytics, rolling out a skilled pipeline of young jobseekers, sourced from Tshepo 1 Million, supporting a green building retrofit initiative trade financed against carbon credits or other suitable financing options, targeting properties under ownership and management by provincial government and participating private sector property management entities.
- Hollard committed to township panel beating shops serving its drivable repairs, providing links to township marketplace platform, pilot of a specific Hollard insurance product using the network of new panel beaters, to be sold by youth.
- Barloworld will partner with the township panel beater network pilot (OEM accreditation), create opportunities for young job seekers across the Barloworld value chain as interns and SED contracts (including technicians), and render support to township firms in mining and construction through concession-priced equipment.
- One thousand SMMEs identified through the township marketplace platform supported through FNB accelerator hosting interns/creating employment opportunities as a condition of ongoing support, agency opportunity for youth linked to instant financial solutions/value adds.
- Standard Bank committed internships, job opportunities and supplier opportunities and also offer asset finance as support to township marketplace platforms on condition firms create opportunity for youth, and they will also link skills and enterprise development programmes.
- Media 24 committed to an online training programme in writing skills and computer-aided research linked to Tshepo One Million learning lab, develop special internship programme targeting youth without matric qualifications
- Power FM also committed to give Tshepo One Million free advertising airtime worth one million rand.

Future expansion of Tshepo programme across the GCR

Tshepo 10k proved to be a phenomenal success. It has been able to galvanise the three sectors of public, private and non-profit behind one commonly shared goal to address the plight of young people and create conditions for the country to harvest the demographic dividend. Lessons learnt from early implementation, revealed that the following areas require attention:

- *Institutionalise the programme.* From the City's experience, a framework for the implementation of Tshepo 10k has to be implemented. The success of the programme should not be seen as a favour by officials or left to the leadership resolve of the political principals. Specific, Measurable, Agreed Upon, Realistic, Time-Base (SMART) targets have to be in place. These should be incorporated into the Performance Agreements of senior management.
- *Expand the economic sectors for youth participation.* There is a strong need to amplify the possible areas of youth participation and absorption beyond the traditional sectors of construction, finance and information Technology. The initiative by Tshepo 1 million to expand to the areas of broadcasting is encouraging. The creative sectors/sub-sectors of gaming, virtual reality and Nano technology is the future.
- *Make youth development the business of all.* Private sector stands to benefit the most from a skilled youth cadre ship and the associated burgeoning of the middle class. The participation of private sector in this programme must not be a "feel good factor" but be borne of the realisation by the very private sector that youth development is a strategic business imperative. For its part, the public sector could, at the beginning, incentivise the private sector to assume a more direct interest by designing its procurement policies to favour those private sector players taking part in the programme.

5.3 Summary

The four programmes, albeit each with its own unique flaws, have been monumental in influencing and partially redefining the public sector space in the Gauteng Province, and bring the province closer to the realisation of a fully functional GCR. TshWiFi has been central in broadening the scope of public sector participation beyond the traditional and legislated areas of municipal service delivery. TshWiFi has demonstrated that communities can benefit immensely from visionary, bold and determined public sector leadership. Access to public free WiFi is now common in Tshwane and is rapidly expanding to other parts of the Gauteng Province.

The Kuka Maoto programme is reshaping the public sector political leadership and community interface. With the introduction of KM, the voice of communities and their representative organs of power are heard and listened to. Service delivery push from communities is no more a function of the volatility of their protests but a function of robust yet mature dialogue. Tshepo-10k has been a phenomenal success and been further refined and expanded by GPG. The participation of the private sector and the expansion of economic sectors for youth participation can prove a vital injection to the programme. The emphasis on skills and entrepreneurship augurs well for the future harvesting of the demographic dividend in the country.

The BRT systems, although welcomed, have not succeeded in catalysing efforts to reconfigure the Apartheid space in the major metros of the country. They have simply served to reinforce the Apartheid histology and resulted in transformation in certain parts of the province. The poorly integrated public transport modes is are a major taint of the efforts to avail public transport delivery affordable and a mode of choice for all. The absence of enabling legislation with regard to programmes such as KM, TshWiFi and Tshepo-10k has the potential either stall or even collapse. The experiences of the City, its peer metros, and the province should serve to galvanise a renewed effort to reconsider legislation and allow the introduction of a dispensation that will drive these programmes to a higher level.

The programmes have confirmed that there is a need for new public sector leadership to help manage the complex urban spaces that are a result of, amongst others, the blurring of the lines of public, private and non-profit sectors, the emergence of strong and multiple voices of communities, and the twin trends of urbanisation and globalisation. Invariably, there has to be a rethink of legislation to help manage the emerging and complex tensions and to exploit inherent benefits of the mutating urban landscape. The forces of urbanisation, globalisation, and the fourth industrial revolution compels that the management of contiguous spatial regions be fundamentally altered. These forces make movement towards greater cooperation and integration under a dispensation of the GCR is a logical and rational response.

CHAPTER six: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The advent of democracy in South Africa marked the victory of decades of brave and heroic struggles waged by the oppressed masses and the domestic and international progressive forces that stood for a just, equitable and free society. The journey from Apartheid to a democratic South Africa was fraught by numerous acts of selflessness, determination, and an unquenchable thirst for peace and justice by multitudes of freedom-loving people. The 1994 democratic breakthrough represented a significant point of inflection in both the form and modes of the prosecution of struggles towards the realisation of what the ANC refers to, as a National Democratic Society (NDS). The NDS is a society that is defined and underpinned by the following characteristics: non-racialism, non-sexism, democracy, prosperity and unity. The struggles towards the NDS was waged in conditions determined by the Constitution. The Constitution which is considered one of the most progressive in the world, and enshrines the Bill of Rights.

The demise of Apartheid did not herald the end to racial injustice, poverty, unemployment, underdevelopment, and racial segregation. Part of the preeminent tasks of a popular and democratic government was to inaugurate a suite of interventions aimed at realising the complete abolishment of the Apartheid legacy, and the creation and realisation of a country as envisaged by the supreme law of the land, the Constitution. The democratic system of governance, as determined by the Constitution, gave birth to three spheres of government in the Republic. It stipulates that government is constituted as the national, provincial and local sphere which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated (the Constitution). Schedule 4 and 5 of the Constitution further provides the legislative competence of each sphere of government. At the time of writing the Constitution, its authors, the Constitutional Assembly, could not have predicted a world experienced today. The contemporary world is shaped by many trends, principally that of globalisation, and urbanisation. These trends ushers both opportunities and challenges that should be exploited and mitigated. The trends are particularly pronounced in large urban spaces. It is in these spaces that the social conflict in society is more pronounced, and conveys the

enormity of the tasks that are facing the modern state, in all its manifestations. The urban spaces represent the concentration of social-ills and development challenges such as: poverty, inequality, joblessness, crime, destitution, homelessness, and pollution.

In the same breadth, these spaces provide the most pristine opportunity for the democratic state to fashion the most comprehensive and effective interventions to combat the above-mentioned social-ills, and propel the country into an unstoppable course towards the realisation of the NDS. The ability of the state to chart this course assumes, amongst others, new forms of state and administration configuration(s). One of the forms is city-region. Gauteng Province is the principal driver of economic development; leader in R&D, and home to the largest population in South Africa has high location densities which is perfectly positioned to champion the city-region model. This study endeavoured to contribute towards the realisation of a fully functional GCR by examining four case studies in the City. The efficacy of the four cases was to help future efforts aimed at realising the GCR as well as learn and unlearn from them. This chapter presents certain key findings, and provides recommendations of how best to address these in pursuit of realising a fully functional GCR.

6.2 Synopsis of previous chapters

It is recommended that before proceeding with the substantive focus of this chapter, a brief overview is provided of the previous chapters. Hereinafter the findings are interpreted followed by recommendations based thereon.

Chapter one provided a detailed examination of the evolution of the system of governance in South Africa; and elaborated on the role and place of the Gauteng Province in the socio-economic life of South Africa. The economic dominance of the province of Gauteng is confirmed by a series of socio-economic indicators provided by credible authorities in the country, such as Statistics South Africa. The chapter narrowed its focus to the City of Tshwane and detailed its contribution to the Gauteng Province's economy, as well as express its socio-economic profile relative to its peers. The chapter concluded by

submitting that a fully functional GCR would help Gauteng realise its full potential and the country to meet the NDP developmental targets.

Chapter two provided a detailed discussion of the research methodology this study adopted to gather and analyse information. The statement of the problem, research objectives, research question, research design, limitations of the study, and the research methods employed in the study was discussed.

The guiding research question of our study was: **“Leadership in establishing the Gauteng City-Region: the case of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality”**.

The chapter further identified the sub-questions which were key to respond to the research question. The sub-questions included:

- What are the characteristic features of the Gauteng City-Region?
- What is the place of the City of Tshwane in the Gauteng City-region?
- What are the global trends of the city-regions?
- What type of leadership approach guided the leadership of the City of Tshwane in formulating the programmes that enhanced the GCR?
- What are the legislative and/or policy impediments that undermine City of Tshwane programmes in fully contributing to the realisation of the GCR?

Chapter three examined the evolution of the discipline Public Administration. The chapter also traced the locus and/or focus of the five (5) primary paradigms of PA. A literature review of certain significant areas of the study was conducted. These areas included the concept “leadership”, the trends of urbanisation and globalisation, and emergence of city-regions around the globe.

Chapter four introduced an in-depth study of the four case studies selected to respond to the research question. The case studies included:

- Tshwane public free WiFi (TshWiFi)
- A Re Yeng (Tshwane version of the BRT)
- Kuka Maoto and

- Tshepo-10k

The cases were introduced and discussed without critique. The objectives, governance framework, implementation plan and funding of each case was explained in the chapter.

Chapter five provided a detailed analysis of each case. The analysis examined the potential of each programme to realise a fully functional GCR, conduct a context analysis, and employ a multi-layered perspective analysis to each programme. The key observations revealed certain aspects which require attention if the GCR is to succeed.

6.3 Findings and Recommendations

The findings and associated recommendations are conducted under two broad areas of interest, namely: policy, legislative and planning discipline; and emerging leadership concerns. The study also proposes areas for future research that emanate directly or indirectly from the study.

6.3.1 Policy, legislative and planning discipline

Finding 1: BRT systems are an assortment of transformation outcomes

The introduction of the BRT systems is intended to achieve two key outcomes. The first outcome is the meaningful reconfiguration of the Apartheid travel patterns resulting in the redrawing of the spatial geography in democratic South Africa. The BRT is aimed at abolishing and reversing the Apartheid spatial logic of locating the poor at the periphery of centres of economic production confined to areas that essentially served as labour reserves for the discriminatory system. This spatial logic resulted in the poor having to spend a disproportionate sum of their income on travel. The study revealed that the ideal to exploit the BRT as a tool to create new economic and settlement corridors proved less successful than anticipated. The Inception Phase of the BRT systems was basically to reinforce of the Apartheid settlement patterns by simply substituting the traditional modes of travel, namely: minibus taxis, with the BRT. In summary, the BRT systems have only served to reproduce Apartheid travel patterns using a modern form of public transport.

The poor density along the BRT initial routes resulted in a serious strain on national fiscus. The 2017 Budget Review revealed that the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) systems established in major metros were running at a loss and significantly higher than anticipated. These systems are, at best, recovering 40% of the operating costs through fares. The problem is largely due to the Apartheid spatial legacy, which makes cost-efficient public transport incredibly difficult to provide. The systems in Johannesburg, Cape Town, Tshwane, eThekweni and other cities are based on a model that has been proven successful in South American cities. The BRT systems in the Colombian cities of Bucaramanga and Barranquilla produce revenues worth 150% of their operating costs. The BRT systems in Bogota, Colombia, and Lima in Peru break even, while Leon in Mexico and another Colombian city, Pereira, cover approximately 90% of their costs themselves. In South Africa, Treasury considered 40% as faring well (Budget Review 2017 cited in van Rensburg 2017). The experience further revealed that the introduction of the BRT routes had not completely eliminated the operation of taxis on the same routes, resulting in competition which proved harmful to the financial viability of the public transport system.

The second intended outcome of the BRT was the qualitative transformation of the ownership patterns of the bus mode of transport which was traditionally been outside the ownership of the majority Black citizenry. The advent of the BRT would provide operators an opportunity to acquire the rights to operate the system. On this front, the BRT has been successful in achieving its transformation goal.

Recommendations 1.1: Institutionalise a GCR-wide apex body to monitor the implementation of the Gauteng Spatial Development Framework 2030

The Gauteng Spatial Development Framework was the first attempt at an integrated, coherent vision of settlement form, transportation and economic development for the province. However, it was not implemented as intended, resulting in a slow pace of spatial, economic and social transformation. In 2015, the Gauteng Provincial Government decided to review the GSDF 2011, a decision that was also prompted by the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (SPLUMA) (Act 16 of 2013), which came into being on 1 July 2015. This resulted in the GSDF 2030, which sought to (i) direct, guide, focus and (ii) align,

coordinate and harmonise all development spending in the province, to ensure rapid, sustainable and inclusive provincial economic growth and township redevelopment, therefore enabling decisive spatial transformation (Gauteng Spatial Development Framework 2030, 2011).

The GSDF identifies the following ten high-priority provincial spatial development proposals:

- Intensify nodes, public transport routes and stations to optimise the benefits of nodes and public transport routes in polycentric networks.
- Strengthen, maintain and enhance nodes, as identified by each municipality to ensure that development takes place within nodes.
- Promote spatial integration and township regeneration, through the use of land banking and government land assets, and support urban hubs.
- Manage municipal urban growth, by enforcing urban growth boundaries, in order to reduce sprawl, manage infrastructure expenditure and ensure better socio-economic integration.
- Expand and integrate municipal bus rapid transit (BRT) networks to achieve greater connectivity between major nodes and nodes and settlements with low levels of economic activity.
- Enhance major road and rail networks to ensure greater connectivity and a balanced provincial spatial network.
- Provide multi-pronged sustained support to outlying residential areas developed during colonial and Apartheid areas, including human capital development, mobility support and local economic development programmes.
- Strengthen and enhance agricultural production and agro-processing, to optimise the utilisation of high-value agricultural land in the province, create jobs, grow the economy and improve food security.
- Actively manage and protect the environment and eco-systems including rehabilitating degraded areas and exploring legislating a provincial green belt.

- Improve and optimise provincial tourism opportunities, through directing tourism-related activities to identified tourism areas, and creating strong links between tourism towns and surrounding eco-tourism opportunities.

The GSDF envisages the introduction of the BRT systems across the province as a necessary and minimum intervention to help meet certain priority areas. The apparent failures of the BRT systems to meet their envisaged outcomes was due to the lack of a provincial-wide institutionalised body with a mandate to oversee and direct the implementation of the GSDF. It is proposed that such an apex body be established and constitute of political office bearers from the three spheres of government, namely: the Premier of the Gauteng Province (as the Chairperson) and the municipal Executive Mayors from Gauteng, representative(s) from organised business, communities, and organised labour. It should be noted that this body exists in addition to the PCF.

A dispensation to ensure that the apex flourishes should be implemented, and *inter alia* stipulate the powers of the apex body, decision-making procedures, frequency of meetings; and mechanisms to account to constituencies.

Recommendation 1.2.: Develop and implement uniform levels of service by the BRT operating companies

A degree of BRT service level predictability for commuters using any of its systems in the GCR is required. This can be achieved through a Service Level Agreement which includes *inter alia*:

- Roles and responsibilities of each party to the agreement. It should designate the cities as the planning authority, and the operations of the operating companies.
- Prescribe the choice of vehicles.
- Determine the minimum levels of service. This could include: frequencies, intervals, cleanliness and security.
- Provide for penalties payable for not meeting agreed service levels.
- Provide and elaborate dispute resolution mechanisms.

Recommendation 1.3: Incorporate the minibus taxis into the BRT systems

Many of the densities along the BRT systems in the GCR are very low resulting in the systems failing to recover operating costs. Instead of eliminating the use of the minibus taxis along routes which the BRT systems were introduced, a serious consideration should be given to incorporate the minibus taxis along areas of very low density. The basis for the incorporation of the minibus taxis should include the following:

- Formula for the allocation of subsidies for participating taxis.
- Recapitalisation of the participating minibus taxis.
- Determination of levels of service to ensure uniform experience.

Finding 2: Misaligned planning cycle and planning horizons

The national and provincial governments financial years starts in April of the one year and ends in March of the following year. The determination of the budget and the funding needs is a function of extensive engagement with stakeholders and not necessarily local government. The financial flows to municipalities is legislated by the Division of Revenue Act (DoRA). DoRA states that its purpose is 'to provide for the equitable division of revenue raised nationally among the national, provincial and local spheres of government for the 2015/16 financial year, the determination of each province's equitable share and allocations to provinces, local government and municipalities from national government's equitable share and the responsibilities of all three spheres pursuant to such division and allocations; and to provide for matters connected therewith'.

On the other hand, the municipal budget commences in July of one year and ends in June of the following year. At a municipal level, the budget process is preceded by intense engagement with communities and stakeholders culminating in the adoption of the municipal Integrated Development Plan which is financed by a budget.

The asymmetrical nature of the planning cycles by the national and provincial spheres on the one hand, and local spheres on the other, makes joint planning extremely difficult if not improbable. The spheres are likely to lose the scale benefits, and sharing of expertise. The

different planning cycles could further lead to wastage as a result of double dipping and inefficient delivery of resources.

The introduction of KM is primarily intended to coordinate the efforts of all spheres of government and intervene decisively in areas of service delivery deficits, and respond to community grievances and proposal as a coherent unit. This approach is difficult because of the variance in the planning and budgeting cycles. The priorities of the three spheres are not necessarily the same which could result in less effective interventions.

Recommendation 2.1.: Broaden the scope of the Gauteng’s Premier’s Coordinating Forum

In 2005, the Inter-Governmental Relations Framework Act (IGRFA) was passed to ensure that the principles in Chapter Three of the Constitution on cooperative government are implemented. The Act sought to establish mechanisms to coordinate the work of all spheres of government in the provision of services, alleviate poverty and promote development (Etu 2015). The PCF is introduced pursuant to the IGRFA and its objective is to promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations and cooperative government between provincial government and municipalities to ensure integrated, effective and efficient service delivery. The PCF meets at least once per quarter.

It is proposed that the scope of PCF be broadened to include:

- Joint planning on matters of common GCR interest.
- Determination of funding responsibilities on the part of the actors through a pre-agreed formula.
- Deadlock breaking mechanisms in the case of disputes.
- Mechanisms for monitoring and tracking performance of the agreed programmes.

Finding 3: Poorly integrated public transport systems

There is a great level of duplication in the provision of subsidised public transport services in the GCR. The BRTs in certain areas serve the same routes as the feeder and distribution services offered by the Gautrain. The other level of poor integration is the

ticketing systems. Every public transport mode in Gauteng has its own method of payment. It is an established fact that a typical commuter uses more than one mode of transport to get to his/her place of work, study or shopping. The poor integration is a disadvantage to the commuter in that:

- *He/she has to carry multiple forms of payment.*
- *Travel times less are less predictable.* Since the separate legs that make the trip are not integrated, each mode of transport makes its own mode-specific considerations without due regard for onward connectivity on other modes that completes the trip.
- *Trip from origin to destination comprises of separate trips as opposed to a single trip made of multiple modes.*
- *High travel costs.* Every separate and individual trip from origin to destination seeks to recover costs and generate profit from the user.

The other manifestation of a poorly integrated public transport service is the different levels of services offered by each mode. In the GCR, the Gautrain arguably offers the premium level of service compared to other modes of public transport. The different levels of service are, amongst others, in the form of:

- Reliability
- Security
- Ease of use, i.e. feeder and distribution services
- Convenience of payment

These disparities create the impression that the modes are designed for the poor while others for the more affluent. The subsidised nature of public transport (except taxis) is to equalise service experience.

It is suggested that instead of waiting for the probable formulation of an enabling legal framework, the following actions can be triggered:

- Conclude the discussion of functions and appropriate functional allocation rather than stall on the form of the TA.
- The province and municipalities should introduce norms and standards for various aspects of public transport operations.

- Establish governance principles that promotes co-operation and co-governance of the public transport systems in the GCR.
- Create a legal mechanism that allows to pool resources to achieve common and shared public transport objectives.

Recommendation 3.1: Accelerate the process of phasing-in a GCR-wide transport authority (TA)

Metropolitan areas often have very complex institutional frameworks involving different levels of authorities in charge of urban planning and transportation policies (Metropolitan areas, municipalities). Furthermore, different companies frequently operate various aspects of a metropolitan area public network. Integration of modes and operators (physical integration, integration of fares, etc.) is, therefore, a fundamental task of TAs to be able to offer travellers a seamless trip (Futshane & Wosiyana 2005). The Constitution designates public transport planning the responsibility of municipalities at the local sphere of government. A municipality can choose to establish a TA responsible for overall planning within its jurisdiction.

The idea of a GCR-wide TA can prove a complex one with many legal and political obstacles. For this to be realised requires both political commitment and sign-off by the participating municipalities. The process towards the realisation of a GCR TA received a major boost on 24 June 2016 when the Premier of Gauteng and all Mayors in the GCR signed a declaration endorsing the establishment of a single TA for the GCR. Makhura (cited in Kilian 2016) asserts that “the GCR Transport Authority must be a model of the kind of formal GCR structures we will create going forward. It will further ensure that our structures are not ad-hoc, voluntary and riddled with uncertainty. The signing of the declaration simply marks the beginning of the realisation of a GCR-wide TA”.

Finding 4: Lack of enabling legislation

The South African legislative environment is elaborate, and highly regimented and leaves limited or no room for creativity. Both the Public Finance Management Act No. 10 of 2009 (PFMA) and the Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act. No. 56 of 2003 (MFMA) reign supreme in the public sector space. These Acts are further buttressed by National Treasury Regulations that seek to crystallise and direct certain provisions of these two pieces of legislation. The PFMA requires the accounting officer or the accounting authority of an institution to develop and implement an effective and efficient supply chain management system in his/her institution. Section 16A3.2 of the PFMA prescribes, amongst others, that the envisaged supply chain management policy must be fair, equitable, transparent, competitive and cost-effective.

On the other hand, the MFMA requires each municipality to have and implement a supply chain management policy. Section 112 of the MFMA stipulates that the supply chain management policy should comply with the prescribed framework. The municipal supply chain management policy or municipal entity must be fair, equitable, transparent, competitive and cost-effective and comply with a prescribed regulatory framework for municipal supply chain management.

What is apparent, is that the idea of ring-fencing the provision of certain goods and services for co-operatives participating in the Tshepo-10k or Tshepo 1 million is contrary to the provisions of both the PFMA and the MFMA. Ring-fencing is neither fair nor competitive, and it is difficult to determine whether it is cost-effective because other probable market players are excluded deliberately.

Recommendation 4.1: Introduce progressive regulations to support Tshepo programme

Empowering the youth is a national imperative. The high levels of unemployment amongst the biggest section of the population is less than desirable. The state should lead aggressive and disruptive efforts to accelerate meaningful development in the country.

The two pieces of legislation, PFMA and MFMA, are intended to prescribe and manage public funds in a manner that is transparent, encourages accountability, and entrenches constitutionalism in the country. However, the two pieces of legislation have the unintended consequence of stifling progressive, genuine and innovative initiatives such as Tshepo 10k and Tshepo 1 million.

Without advocating a complete overhaul of the PFMA and MFMA, National Treasury could, after consultation with stakeholders, introduce regulations aimed at facilitating the realisation of the Tshepo-10k and Tshepo 1 million programmes. Such regulations could prescribe, amongst others, the following:

- Circumstances under which ring-fencing is allowed.
- Projects to be designated for ring-fencing.
- The budget thresholds of projects designated as such.
- Frequency for allocation of designated projects to a particular cooperative.
- The financial governance framework of beneficiary cooperatives.

In this way, the proposed regulations will introduce certainty and make it possible for independent state bodies to monitor and evaluate the performance of the programme using uniform tools.

Recommendation 4.2: Create attractive incentives for private sector participation in the Tshepo programmes

Collectively, the private sector commands enormous resources that can drive Tshepo programmes to a different level. Private sector participation has been negligible in the Tshepo 1 million and virtually non-existent in Tshepo-10k. It could be that the private sector has not realised or fully appreciated that the development and nurturing youth skills is a business imperative, and in the best interest of the country.

Offering incentives could be an ideal motivation to arouse business interest and ultimately lead to participation. The incentives could include:

- Adjust tender scoring points to reward businesses participating in Tshepo programmes.

- Provide rate rebates or local tax holidays for participating companies.

Finding 5: Public free WiFi access offers tangible socio-economic benefits

The rapid increase in the usage of public free WiFi has confirmed that there has been an enormous internet access hunger in the City and other parts of the province where such a service is provided. The facts surrounding TshWiFi suggest that the service provides information on the “go”. The fact that 78% of the devices accessing TshWiFi are mobile phones is a confirms that people are accessing information not in the comfort of their own spaces, be it offices or homes, but willing to visit the sites to benefit from the service.

The proliferation of business off-shoots from TshWiFi reveals that the user’s creative ideas were suppressed by the lack of access to the internet services. The ability of the country to benefit from the upside of the Fourth Industrial Revolution is predicated and based on the presence of skills. Therefore, the Fourth Industrial Revolution should be preceded by a skills revolution. The generous access to free internet access, albeit in public sites, would help to develop a new cadre of youth who are technologically inclined and knowledge driven.

The other advantages of the public free WiFi is that transport costs are alleviated. Access to information through the internet, enables one to seek jobs. One does not have to purchase a newspaper to learn of employment opportunities, and small business do not have to incur telecommunication expenses associated with internet access. These are the real and material benefits as a result of TshWiFi.

Recommendation 5.1: Designate the provision of public free WiFi basic municipal service

Fixed-line access continued to decline to 18% of households in 2012; 24% in urban areas; and 5.8% in rural areas. Fixed-to-mobile substitution has been extensive. Approximately 86% of the respondents to the RIA South Africa 2012 Household and Individual ICT Access and Use Survey revealed that they use mobile phones instead of fixed lines. Over

42% stated that fixed lines are not available in their areas, while 51.5% of the respondents could not afford one.

Mobile phone ownership continues to grow. Claims by mobile operators of penetration rates of over 100% reflect the number of SIMs in the market, a significant portion of which are duplicates, in addition to the SIMs used for non-human activities such as satellite tracking. Individual mobile phone ownership stands at 86% of the adult population (15 years or older). There are limited differences in the use of basic voice and SMS services between mobile phone users in urban and rural areas, or those at the top of the pyramid (ToP) including users at the base of the pyramid (BoP) (Gillwald, Moyo & Stork 2012).

The evidence suggests that fixed line use will be almost extinct in the near future and there will be close to 100% individual mobile phone ownership in the country. This scenario confirms that mobile ownership has no urban/rural dichotomy nor is it a function of social or economic standing it is simply the modern way of life. Mobile phone ownership does not translate into access to the internet because access requires additional costs. Gillwald, Moyo and Stork (2012) note that ‘the two small mobile players, Cell C and Telkom Mobile, have finally been able to put pressure on incumbents Vodacom and MTN, forcing down prices and stimulating innovative product and price offerings’. However, while South Africa’s ranking on the RIA Pricing Transparency Index: Prepaid Mobile improved from 30th in 2012 to 22nd in 2013 (out of 46 African countries indexed), the cheapest mobile prepaid product in South Africa remains approximately 7.5 times more expensive than the African continent’s cheapest similar product, and still three times more expensive than the cheapest product available from a dominant operator in Africa.

The NDP proposes that for the medium term, 2015 to 2020, to achieve 100% broadband penetration including expansion of the definition of broadband from 256 kbps to at least two mbps. For the long term, the period from 2020 to 2030, the state is envisioned to make extensive use of ICTs to deliver services to its citizens, including entertainment, information, and education. Furthermore, the Plan suggests greater collaboration between the state, industry, and academia as critical to the success of any e-strategy. Unfortunately, the country is a reasonable distance from achieving the targets as

stipulated in the apex plan, the NDP. In fact, growth in South Africa's ICT sector has not been accompanied by a realisation of the primary policy objective of affordable access, for all, to the full range of communication services that characterise modern economies (Gillwald, Moyo & Stork 2012). It is recommended that government assumes a policy stance that designates the provision of public free WiFi as a basic municipal service. The policy should, amongst others, clarify the following:

- Maximum access radius for the population
- Daily data cap and speed
- Permissible uses
- Maximum allowable downtime
- The structure and mode of delivery of the device
- Obligations on the part of established telecommunications companies to provide bandwidth access on their infrastructure
- Funding model

The GCR is in a pristine position to initiate the provision of public free WiFi across the province even ahead of the envisaged policy. The rollout of the broadband by the GPG together with the public free WiFi projects have been implemented in the metropolitan municipalities of Tshwane, Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni which provides a sound base.

The lack of uniform design standards and fare structure represents another form of poorly integrated public transport services in the GCR. The different choices in the station design and fare structures undermines any future possibility of fully integrating the three metros BRT systems.

6.3.2 Emerging public Leadership issues

Finding 6: Politics trumps service delivery

The implementation of Intirhisano was most informative post the 3 August 2016 Local Government Elections. As a result of displacement of the ANC in the cities of Tshwane and Johannesburg by a political coalition, there has been an apparent lack of interest in participating in the Intirhisano programme by the new political incumbents. The very basis

of Intirhisano is its ability to galvanise resources across the three spheres of government to comprehensively respond to the community's grievances and improve the communication channels between government and the people. The programme is perceived in certain quarters of the new political incumbents as a continuation of the ANC's election machinery seeking to sustain the ailing ANC election prospects leading to the next general elections. The current political landscape helps to surface the inherent weaknesses in the conceptualisation of the programme. In its conceptualisation, Intirhisano assumes that:

- Convergence across all spheres of government on priority service delivery issues is a given.
- Narrow political party consideration will submit to the urgent need to resolve service delivery problems.
- Direct and physical community engagement is the preferred mode of engagement by all political leaders

The persistence of the current political attitudes towards Intirhisano will result in the collapse of the programme, at least in its original form. An enduring engagement is required by the GPG to convince the new incumbents of the political neutrality of Ntirhisano, its sole preoccupation with quality service delivery and provide the ordinary citizen with a voice.

The attempt by the new political incumbents in the City to revise the provision of public free WiFi represents the manifestation of the inherent tensions associated with the change in political leadership. The survival of TshWiFi is largely as a result of:

- Its popularity, 3 million unique devices have already logged in;
- A proven economic success;
- Has won a number of prestigious international awards;
- A multi-year financial commitment by the previous administration; and
- The readiness of the GPG to keep it alive.

In an ideal situation, there should be an agreement on the minimum programmes that have the capacity to improve inhabitants quality of life. The proponents of GCR clearly underestimated the perils of political tensions towards the project.

Recommendation 6.1: Develop a comprehensive GCR governance protocol

The reality of any robust democratic space is that there is every likelihood that political power would change hands between elections. With the advent of a maturing democracy, it is likely that the overwhelming dominance of one political party over the other(s) would diminish. The shifts in political choices should not be to the detriment of service delivery. Political institutions should be designed such that they are able to withstand the shocks associated with the change of political power from one party to another. The ideal of a GCR is predicated on the existence of an enduring commitment to the project by successive governments on all three spheres. Therefore, it is recommended that to insulate the political and administrative institutions from change in political leadership, a GCR governance protocol (the protocol) be implemented. The protocol could provide practical and distinct elaboration of the Inter-Government Relations Framework. The protocol should, amongst others, address the following:

- The process for the identification and execution of commonly shared programmes.
- The funding regime for such programmes.
- Dispute resolution mechanisms.
- Governance mechanisms.

Finding 7: Appreciable deepening of the democratic space

KM and Intirhisano provided the most ideal platform for multiple community voices to be heard. KM and Intirhisano have further fuelled an unparalleled interest of the communities in the governance of their affairs. The assertiveness of Chapter Nine institutions such as the Public Protector, Human Rights Commission and the Auditor- General has resulted in communities becoming increasingly emboldened to air their views, and confront authorities to respond to their grievances. The introduction of meaningful community participation platforms such as Ward Committees at a municipal level has provided an additional

platform for community participation. The legal requirement for meaningful community engagement in the formulation of Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) at a municipal level has elevated the level of community participation in matters relating to their own development, monitoring the allocation of municipal resources, and holding their elected leaders accountable.

KM and Intirhisano has succeeded in providing a productive platform that has resulted in the many aspects of the democratisation of both the municipal and provincial spaces practical. The results of both KM and Intirhisano include:

- Increased scrutiny of elected officials and the bureaucracy.
- Greater transparency in decision-making, such as budget allocation and development choices.
- A more organised voice of communities.
- Relative decline in violent community protests.
- Shifting of the mindset. Communities perceive themselves as partners in the delivery of services and not merely passive recipients thereof.

Recommendation 7.1: Institutionalise KM and Intirhisano

The current legal dispensation does not compel the method of community engagement as witnessed in the two programmes. The success of the two programmes is a function of the political will of the incumbents and does not place any legal obligations on future political office bearers to continue with programmes that have proven very successful in resolving community issues and deepening the democratic space. KM and Intirhisano offers a new governance dynamic in that they represent the three spheres of government as one political unit; provide meaningful solutions to community grievances; and articulate and implement a coherent development programme. The institutionalisation of both KM and Intirhisano should, amongst others, address the following:

- The frequency and form of community engagements.
- The status of commitment made in KM and Intirhisano programmes.
- The relationship of these programmes with the more established and legislated processes and bodies such as: the formulation of the IDPs, and the Ward Committees.

- Incorporation of KM and Intirhisano into the performance scorecards of both senior officials and elected leaders.

Finding 8: ANC is unwilling to provide differentiation to its Manifesto commitments

Having tracked the commitments of the ruling party in the three elections, namely: the 2011 and 2016 LGE; and the 2014 National and Provincial elections, it can be concluded that the ANC is less keen on committing to manifesto's specifically designed for major urban economic centres. Whilst it is appreciated that the manifesto provides overarching commitments, the demographic and economic configurations of the country signals a more than compelling case to assert differentiation. The differentiation advocated does not amount to a binary urban/rural divide. It is simply an admission of the obvious, namely: that the majority of the population is located in these eight urban metros; over 50% of the country's GDP is located in the eight metros; and the real opportunities for growth is within the eight metros. The one plausible explanation to this universal articulation of committing to a manifesto by the ANC could be that it does not want to create an impression that it is a party of the urban at the exclusion of the rural masses.

Recommendation 8.1: Acknowledge the inevitable rise of cities and assign SMART development targets comparable to peer cities in the developed world

The possibility of meeting many of the development targets articulated in the NDP rests with cities. Targets such as universal access to electrification, water-borne sanitation, efficient and reliable public transport, and improvement in educational outcomes are most likely to be met in the urban centres before the rural communities. The ability of the urban spaces to create conditions to allow for the speedy realisation of the NDP goals is both historical and a result of the twin trends of urbanisation and globalisation. Given the inherent potential of the urban spaces, it is advisable that in setting development targets, the following should be achieved:

- Emphasis should transcend the universal and sovereign targets. There should be a genuine effort to nuance these targets given the different stages of development and resource endowments.
- Benchmark against peer cities in the developed countries should be a norm. The targets should have the ultimate ambition of matching or even surpassing the experiences of the developed countries. This is plausible in technology or innovation. Developing countries have the potential to “leapfrog” the linear development stages followed by the developed world.
- Exploit the mutually reinforcing features of the urban and rural spaces. There is a symbiotic relationship between the urban and the rural. For example, food production. The current environment is such that primary production is largely located in the rural areas, while consumption is in the urban spaces. Nothing stops value-addition to be located close to the source, namely: rural areas, which could result in a major economic boost. Intervention that could make this possible, include:
 - Proper zoning for industry;
 - Provision of adequate infrastructure;
 - Creation and harnessing of the requisite skills; and
 - Introducing industry incentives for localisation.

Finding 9: South Africa has sound long-range planning discipline but poor implementation record

There have been ongoing efforts to improve the coherence and consistency of planning across departments and spheres. In 2001, Cabinet approved a National Planning Framework to bring greater coherence and alignment to activities across spheres and departments. The Framework included the link between the different elements of planning, budgeting and monitoring and evaluation (M&E), and highlighted the significance of perceiving planning as a continuous process. Since 2004, government has produced a medium term strategic framework (MTSF) at the beginning of each administration, and outlined the key priorities to be pursued across government. It has also produced five

yearly reviews that provide a vehicle for strategic reflection. These reviews help to inform the preparation of the MTSF. Increased attention has also been given to how national plans including the MTSF, National Spatial Development Perspective (NSDP) and sector-specific plans. These inform planning at the provincial and municipal spheres, with a view to the latter being utilised as a tool to strengthen intergovernmental cooperation (National Planning Commission 2015: 19).

The adoption of the NDP represents the most concrete commitment to the long-term planning discipline in South Africa. The advent of the NDP implied that targets and actions are determined at the sovereign level and given a more localised ‘flavour’ at provincial and local spheres of government. The creation of the National Planning Commission (NPC) implied that for the first time in the country, a body is charged with thinking about long-term plans in the country. The functions of the NPC include:

- Lead the development (and periodic review) of a draft Vision 2025 [this was later changed to Vision 2030] and long-term national strategic plan for approval by Cabinet.
- Lead investigations into critical long term trends under the supervision of the Minister in the Presidency for the NPC, with technical support from a secretariat, and in partnership with relevant parties.
- Advise on key issues such as food security, water security, energy choices, economic development, poverty and inequality, structure of the economy, human resource development, social cohesion, health, defence capabilities and scientific progress.
- Assist with mobilising society around a national vision, and other tasks related to strategic planning.
- Contribute towards reviews of implementation or progress to achieve the objectives of the National Plan.
- Contribute towards the development of international partnerships and networks of expertise on planning.

The planning discipline brought about by the NPC; and the subsequent adoption of the NDP as the overarching planning document in the country, resulted in many organs of state defining and articulating their respective contributions to the NDP goals in the form of

“Vision” documents or multi-year strategic programme/plans. The GPG conceived and adopted the Ten Pillar Programme; and the City formulated and adopted Tshwane Vision 2055. These two long-range documents acknowledge the superiority of the NDP; and outlines their targets in support of the overall goals. Both the Ten Pillar Programme and Vision 2055 make a deliberate attempt to understand the underlying socio-economic situations in their respective spaces; and further proposes modified and elaborate policy interventions to attend to such situations.

Recommendation 9.1: Initiate measures to facilitate transition from planning to implementation.

There is insufficient evidence by the three spheres of government which point to efforts aimed at transitioning from the planning mode to implementation. The unwieldy bureaucracy; rigid institutional designs; and poor public sector oversight capacity all point to a government locked in a planning mode. Effective implementation requires, amongst others, the following:

- *An agile bureaucracy* able to respond to unforeseen situations and rapidly shifting pressure points related to implementation.
- *Flexible institutions* that are able to accommodate implementation scenarios not foreseen in law.
- *Additional knowledge capacity* on the part of the public sector leadership to monitor and evaluate implementation progress or record against pre-determined objectives.

The dispensation for effective implementation should ensure the following:

- Align and sustain plans effectively;
- Introduce of legislation to properly institutionalise emergent planning systems; properly, and provide clarification of the roles and functions of different planning bodies;
- Proper alignment of planning cycles across the three spheres of government,
- Introduce of a special dispensation to help attract and retain critical and scarce skills needed for implementation;
- Regulate for incentives for good performance, and institute penalties for

underperformance;

- Enhance the oversight capacity of public representatives; and
- Devise measures to accommodate the voice of the communities when implementing decisions.

6.4 Leadership approach to enhance GCR

A number of leadership attributes can be drawn from the City of Tshwane leadership to introduce the above programmes. These attributes, as tabulated below, constitutes minimum requirements to implement a successful GCR.

Articulate a sustainable vision

The leadership should be in apposition to imagine, articulate, and pursue a commonly shared picture of the future of the GCR, that is, a vision. This vision should canvass the contribution of all the stakeholders and the community to sustain and survive a change in political administrations. Therefore, a leadership at the apex of the GCR should possess the ability to anticipate the future and set out to formulate; through a robust and material consultative process, and a shared vision that is sustainable and can out-live its term in office.

Seek regular consensus

The Gauteng urban areas have become one of the most highly contested spaces by multiple social actors, often with entirely opposed goals. The marginalised generally struggle to advance economically or socially, to craft a living in the complex Gauteng urban space. In the era of rising constitutionalism and rights environment, it is ill-advised to ignore or dismiss any of such voice. Therefore, some of the major questions facing public sector leaders is how best to accommodate and/or mediate the competing voices. The public policy-making arena can benefit immensely from the inscription of new voices within the tapestry of views that shape the major urban spaces. Therefore, greater effort should be placed in creating an enabling environment that encourages the orderly expression of new voices and their subsequent accommodation. The complexity of both challenges and opportunities of the major urban spaces makes corporation of the public, private, and non-governmental sectors a basic necessity. The blurring of the lines of the three sectors

should be seen as an opportunity to collectively drive matters of mutual interest, and as a platform for the resolution of differences. The domain of the sub-national public sector has widened considerably to include matters relating to climate change, knowledge production and innovation; and international relations (albeit limited) with peer sub-nationals. Therefore leadership should be tolerant, accommodating, and patient yet decisive.

Ability to innovate and adapt

The challenges facing the major urban cities and the Gauteng province requires extraordinary tools for resolution. The conventional approaches that rely on the fiscus and regimented planning will not extinguish the myriad of challenges facing the rapidly urbanising spaces. The intense competition as a result of globalisation, implies that industry and skills have more options and find it easy to move between boundaries. The ability of city leaders to introduce interventions that gives them the edge over peer cities is indispensable to their enduring success. The degree to which cities are able to accommodate the kaleidoscope of voices and allows for their participation can serve to enhance liveability in such cities. Innovation by the leadership, not only on the technology front, but in addressing emerging leadership issues is key to the realisation of the GCR.

Willingness to transcend inter-party conflict

The maturity of the South African democracy has resulted in greater free expression of political choices by the electorate. The era of one party dominance is waning swiftly, especially in the urban centres. The 2016 Local Government results provided the most pointed and compelling evidence hereof. No specific political party registered a simple majority in the metropolitan Tshwane, Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni areas. This has forced the formation of coalition governments in the three respective metropolitan municipalities. The success of the GCR relies on the full and unequivocal cooperation of the Gauteng municipalities in a co-determined vision. The prospects of different political parties in charge of the province and the respective municipalities increases the possibility of tension and subsequent ineffective GCR. It is increasingly necessary for the GCR leadership not to become entrapped in the narrow political party interests but advance the interests of the people.

6.5 Meeting study objectives and areas of future research

The fulfilment of a fully-fledged GCR remains in the distant future. A number of impediments undermine the rapid realisation of this desired outcome, which include:

- *Inter-party political contestations* that places narrow political interests above the obvious advantages of a GCR.
- *The absolute and definitive Constitutional and legal constraints* that failed to anticipate the dynamics of rapidly evolving urban spaces. The current legal and constitutional framework will need revision to enhance the GCR.
- *Misalignment of the planning horizons and budget cycles* makes the idea of the GCR very difficult to realise.

Notwithstanding the vulnerabilities, there is an organic momentum that provides hope to possibly realise fully functional GCR. The momentum includes:

- Urban spaces in other parts of the world confronting similar challenges as Gauteng have adopted the city-region route with varied degrees of success. However, the net conclusion is that the city-region provides greater prospects for success.
- The indivisibility of spatial and economic nature of the Gauteng province. The province has compelling features of a single labour market; a functional urban conurbation, and inextricable and mutually reinforcing economic networks.
- Growing voices of organised communities that insist on uniform levels of services across the province.
- Unadapting levels of urbanisation and globalisation resulting in new forms of social strife in the Gauteng urban spaces; and also provide immeasurable opportunities to the Gauteng economy. These trends compel the spheres of government to act creatively and in unison.

The four case studies at the heart of responding to the research question were useful to highlight the concerns that require attention if the GCR is to be fully realised. The

introduction of the GSDF is extremely useful in reconfiguring the complex Gauteng space. The GSDF helps to provide guidance on planning to the constituent Gauteng municipalities in the province. The GSDF 2030 aspires to establish a balanced, polycentric spatial network, with strong and resilient nodes enabling mutually beneficial exchanges of goods and services, and movement of people. Establishing this desired spatial form in the province will not be accomplished overnight; probably decades. It will entail facilitating the movement of the economic heartland into the erstwhile periphery of the Apartheid city, and bring the former margins into the economic heart of the province to ensure its practicality (GSDF 2011).

The introduction of the BRT systems in Johannesburg, Tshwane and Ekurhuleni metropolitan areas are envisaged to help in meeting the aspirations of the GSDF 2030 by ensuring greater connectivity between major nodes and nodes and settlements with low levels of economic activity (GSDF 2011). The inception phases of the BRT systems have only served to reproduce the Apartheid spatial patterns without meaningful transformation of the space. The creation of transport corridors in Tshwane is severely undermined by the lack of commensurate reform in the spatial frameworks of the areas along the BRT route alignment. The GSDF will hopefully re-visit and revise the cities spatial plans to guide the alignment BRT routes.

The introduction of a GCR-wide TA will help to define the provision of uniform service levels across all modes of public transport in the province. An integration of public transport modes through route networks and ticketing will, over the advent of time, result in public transport being a preferred mode of choice. The TA should be mandated with these two primary responsibilities in the immediate. TshWiFi has helped to redraw and redefine the scope of public sector participation. The documented socio-economic advantages associated with internet penetration and access has made internet access indispensable to growth and development. The bold and visionary leadership of the City in extending its services to include the provision of public free WiFi has revolutionised the public sector space. The tremendous success of TshWiFi has resulted in the peer cities of Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni introducing the same services.

Following the proven success of TshWiFi, the government is contemplating the probability of introducing a national policy statement to ensure that the benefit of public free WiFi is not the privilege of affluent urban areas but equitably distributed across the length-and-breadth of the country. In the same breadth, serious consideration should be given on the most plausible funding model to deliver this service. Incentives should be extended to private sector participation in this enterprise to allow for rapid expansion and sustainable funding. The Fourth Industrial Revolution represents the most advanced period in human intelligence, and invasive and indispensable nature of technology in the modern way of life. The ability of South Africa to benefit and exploit this era is predicated on the rapid discovery of knowledge, and the presence of requisite skills. Access to the internet provides the most pristine opportunity to easily access information and knowledge to the citizenry. TshWiFi makes this access possible. Creating a pool of skills requires the presence of a cadre of young people willing to learn, and allowed to express themselves freely.

South Africa is in a unique position in that the majority of its population is 35 years and younger. This demographic position makes South Africa the envy of many of the countries in the developed world. However, the fact that the majority of the youth is both unemployed; and do not possess the requisite skills for market participation, places the country in a vulnerable position of probable social strife. The introduction of Tshepo-10k is meant to position the City to harvest the demographic dividend. Tshepo-10k relies on the City “ring-fencing” a proportion of its fiscus for the exclusive benefit of its participants. Although the programme failed to meet its financial targets, it was found to be so revolutionary that the GPG not only adopted but up scaled it, that is, starting with Tshepo 500 000 the current Tshepo 1 million.

Tshepo could prove to be a phenomenal success if the following receive attention:

- Legal prohibitions of ring-fencing are relaxed;
- Better coordination of the private sector participation;
- Coherent coordination across spheres of government;
- Expansion of the scope of Tshepo sectors; and
- Designing an incentive model for private sector involvement.

The economic upliftment of communities must be accompanied by the democratisation of the local government space. A space should be created for the inscription of new voices, the affirmation of communities; including the creation of conditions that designate communities as partners in the delivery of services. KM is designed to fulfil all of the above outcomes and further enhance the social contract between the communities and their elected representatives. Furthermore, it allows for greater opportunity for accountability and transparency at a community level.

The government must ensure greater coordination of the three spheres of government when embarking on a programme, for example, KM and its provincial equivalent, Ntirhisano. The misalignment in the planning and budget cycles has the potential of delivering a fatal blow to these programmes. To overcome this challenge, some protocol could be entered into between the three spheres of government to ensure impact and continuity of the programmes. The City has accelerated progress towards the full realisation of the GCR as follows:

- TshWiFi has been expanded to Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni metropolitan municipalities in Gauteng. The GPG is considering options of how best to extend the service to the entire Gauteng province.
- Tshepo-10k has served as a midwife to Tshepo 500 000 which has since been expanded to Tshepo 1 million.
- KM has given birth to a province-wide equivalent, Ntirhisano. National government is contemplating plausible ways of consistent participation in the programme.
- A Re Yeng has identified major BRT system weaknesses in the province, in that it falls short of the spatial transformation goal. The lack of integration; and the unsustainable financial models of the BRT systems calls for urgent attention.

The programmes have been found to be either scalable at a provincial level or adaptable to other municipal areas in the province. There are many areas of learning that derive a thorough examination of the programmes which have proven useful in the quest to realise a functioning GCR. Matters such as policy and legislative reform; inter-party political tensions, the planning regime, more than reasonable understanding of the economy of the

Gauteng province; and community expectations will be central in the determination of the success of the GCR.

The policy-makers need to appreciate the dynamic and kinetic nature of modern urban spaces. The forces of influence in these spaces extend well beyond the defined administrative and political boundaries. The major global trends such as migration, urbanisation, globalisation, and the inevitable Fourth Industrial Revolution will have a major influence on the histology, social variables, public expectations, and public leadership orientation of the major urban centres of the world. The GCR provides a concrete and plausible platform to respond to both the challenges and opportunities of the rapidly changing urban spaces. Furthermore, studies should be considered with a view to enhancing the GCR governance model to maximise benefits.

6.5.1 Areas of possible future study

In the quest to respond to the research question, the study revealed areas that need scholarly attention if the GCR is to meet its aspirations. The GCR presents a number of complexities which were not anticipated by the authors of our Constitution of 1996. The path to the realisation to a fully functional GCR is perplexed with many policy and administrative hurdles. The study did not dedicate attention to understanding, if any, the minimum features of a successful GCR. The GCR invariably raises new public administration and public leadership concerns that need to be fully understood. The city-region idea has found significant traction in the developed countries whilst experiencing considerable lag in the developing ones. Are the city-region experiences of the developed countries in a position to assist in the formulation of a new set of public administration and public leadership issues associated with this form of governance? Below are certain areas that will require scholarly attention in the future.

6.5.2 What is the optimal form of the GCR?

The formulation of the question presupposes that the GCR is the ideal form of governance in Gauteng, and possibly its immediate surrounds. The question assumes that the global

trends of urbanisation and globalisation will result in certain organic form of a governance model that resemble aspects of the city-regions as experienced in other parts of the world. The question further assumes that to mitigate the adverse aspects associated with these mega trends, and to super exploit benefits associated with these mega trends, GCR is the logical governance model. Associated with the response to the above primary question, is the question: “***What is the optimal governance form of the GCR?***”

In response to this question, considerable attention should be given to the fact that there is an underlying Constitutional scheme in the country which establishes the three spheres of government, and protects each from interference by others. While the scheme is clear in broad terms, institutional arrangements are constantly confronted by the path dependency of previous arrangements, understandings and assumptions about the hierarchical ordering of the parts of government, as well as residual lack of clarity in the definition of the powers and functions of the three spheres. In this complexity, negative interpretations of co-operative government – that each sphere must not try to assume responsibilities of others or interfere with others – are not always helpful (Gauteng City Region Observatory 2013). The study should, amongst others, attempt to respond to the following sub-questions:

- How best to identify boundaries between functionally integrated areas? Where does one draw the GCR boundary lines? If the GCR is to be established within the existing constitutional and legal framework, how can prevailing government structures collaborate better?
- If there is a compelling need for constitutional review, what provisions require changes?
- What are the implications for the design and implementation of development strategies resulting from this form of GCR?

These sub-questions are by-no-means exhaustive, but useful to help determine the governance form GCR is most likely to provide the optimal results. The results referred to have to do with the extent to which the GCR is able to approach and exploit the mega trends. The optimal governance form of the GCR will position it to best deliver on the goals and policy actions articulated in the NDP and the Ten Pillar Programme of the GPG. This

optimal governance form should be in a position to drive the GCR to be considered favourably amongst its global peers. The model should enhance the potential of the GCR to outperform its peers in terms of competitiveness, productivity, and quality of life. The model should put the GCR ahead of its peers in terms of innovation, knowledge discovery and exploitation, and research and development.

6.5.3 Are there minimum universal characteristics of a successful city-region?

Having conducted a thorough study of the city-regions in other parts of the world and anticipating future developmental challenges in the rapidly mutating urban spaces, is there a definitive trend that dictates certain minimum universal characteristics for successful city-regions? Scott contends that “arge city-regions are coming increasingly to function as territorial platforms for contesting global markets. At the same time, the diminishing capacity of central governments to deal with all the nuanced policy needs of each of the individual regions contained within their borders means that many regions are now faced with the choice of either passive subjection to external cross- border pressures, or active institution-building, policy-making, and outreach in an effort to turn globalisation as far as possible to their advantage. Regions that take the latter course are likely to find themselves also faced with many new tasks of political coordination and representation. These tasks are of special urgency at a time when large city-regions function more and more as poles of attraction for low-wage migrants from all over the world, so that their populations are almost everywhere heavily interspersed with polyglot and often disinherited social groups. As a consequence of this, many city-regions today are being confronted with pressing issues related to political participation and the reconstruction of local political identity and citizenship”.

The observations by Scott require a unique set of tools and/or skills for city-regions to be successful. The sub-questions of this research area include:

- What are the measures of a successful city-region?
- What is the meaning of universality?
- What are the effects of the following characteristics for a successful city-region?

- Leadership in relation to decision-making, vision formulation, and strategy implementation
- Institutional relations
- The nature of economic clusters
- Connectivity/mobility in terms of goods, services and people
- Skills concentration and availability of human capital
- Knowledge production, exploitation and dissemination

6.5.4 What are the public leadership issues in city-regions?

The major urban areas have become some of the most highly contested spaces by multiple social actors, often with diametrically opposed goals. There is always a struggle by the marginalised be it economically or socially, to craft their own space in the complex urban space. In the era of rising constitutionalism and rights environment, it is ill-advised to ignore or dismiss any of such voice. Therefore, some of the major questions facing public sector leaders is *how best to accommodate and/or mediate the competing voices*. The public policy-making arena can benefit immensely from the inscription of new voices within the tapestry of views that shape the major urban spaces. Therefore, greater effort should be placed on creating an enabling environment that encourages the orderly expression of new voices and their subsequent accommodation.

The complexity of both challenges and opportunities of the major urban spaces makes corporation of the public, private, and non-governmental sectors a basic necessity. The distinction of the three sectors should be perceived as an opportunity to drive matters of mutual interest collectively, and as a platform for the resolution of differences. The sub-national public sector domain has widened considerably to include matters relating to climate change, knowledge production and innovation; and international relations (albeit limited) with peer sub-nationals. Consequently, some of the sub-questions of the public leadership concerns city-regions include:

- What is the difference of the city-region space compared to other sub-national spaces?

- What are the major shifts in public leadership that have been triggered by the city-regions?
- Is there a need to redefine the scope of public leadership in city-regions?

The city-region presents one of the best opportunities for the major urban centres in the developing countries to qualitatively improve the economies of their respective countries, drive shared development, and advance their standing in the global packing order of thriving urban spaces. The answers to the above proposed future research questions can only serve to enhance our understanding of the city-regions and how best the developing countries can import and adapt this modern-era governance model to eliminate poverty, address underdevelopment, reduce inequality, and improve the quality of life of citizens in the most meaningful way.

REFERENCES

African National Congress 2017. *Strategy and Tactics*. Johannesburg.

Allan, K. & Heese, K. 2012. Understanding why service delivery protests take place and who is to blame. Available at: www.municipaliq.co.za (Accessed on 28 May 2017).

Appleby, P.H. 1979. Public Administration and democracy, in JA Uveges Jr (ed.), *The Dimensions of Public Administration*. 3rd Edition. Allyn and Bacon, Inc, Boston, pp. 5-19.

Aurini, J.A., Heath, M. & Howells, S. 2016. *The how of the qualitative research*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Avery, G.C. 2004. *Understanding Leadership: Paradigms and Cases*. London: Sage Publications.

Avolio, B.J., Walumbwa, F.O. & Weber, T.J. 2009. Leadership: Current Theories, Research, and Future Directions. *Annual Review of Psychology* 60: 421-449.

Baloyi, S. 2014, Gauteng Vision 2055 final document launched. Available at: www.gautengonline.gov.za. (Accessed on 15 May 2017).

Bapuji, M. 1989. Paradigms of Public Administration: An assessment. *The Indian Journal of Political Science*, 50(3): 389-401.

Barnerji, P. & Krishnan, V.R. 2000. Ethical preferences of transformational leaders: an empirical investigation. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 28(1): 403-405.

Basheka, B.C. 2012. The paradigms of public administration re-examined: a reflection. *Uganda Management Institute*, 47(1): 25-67.

Bass, B.M. 1985. *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. 1990. *Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership*. 3rd Edition. New York: The Free Press.

Baxter, P. & Jack, S. 2008. Qualitative case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. *CAHSS Journal*, 13(4).

Bekink, B. 2006. *Principles of South African Local Government Law*. Durban: LexisNexis Butterworths.

Berg, R. & Rao, N. 2005 (eds). *Transforming Local Political Leadership*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bitonio, J.B. 2013. Paradigms or Models of Public Administration. Available at: www.slideshare.net (Accessed on 31 May 2017).

Bogdanor, V. 2005. Introduction. In V.Bogdanor (ed.), *Joined-Up Government*. British Academy Occasional paper 5. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown, M.E. & Trevino, L.K. 2006. Socialized charismatic leadership, values congruence, and deviance in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4): 954– 962.

Brown, M.E., Trevino, L.K. & Harrison, D.A. 2005. Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 97: 117–134.

Cayer, N.J. 2003. *Public administration Social Change and Adaptive Management*. New York: Birkdale Publishers.

Cetin, S. 2012. Leadership in public sector: a brief appraisal. *DPUJSS*, 11(32): 75-85.

Chalekian, P. 2013. *POSDCORB: Core Patterns of Administration*. Paper presented at the 20th Conference on Pattern Languages of Programs, December.

Chapman, C., Getha-Taylor, H., Holmes, M.H., Jacobson, W.S., Morse, R.S. & Sowa, J.E. 2016. How public service leadership is studied: an examination of a quarter century of scholarship. *Public administration*, 94(1): 111-128.

Christensen, T. & Lægreid, P. 2007a. *The Whole-of-Government Approach to Public Sector Reform*. *Public Administration Review*, 67 (6): 1059–1066.

Christensen, T. & Lægreid, P. 2007b. *Transcending New Public Management*. Aldershot: Ashgate.

City of Johannesburg, 2015. Construction of Rea Vaya. Available at: www.reavaya.org.za (Accessed on 20 May 2017).

City of Tshwane 2013. Tshepo 10 000 rollout plan. Available at: www.tshwane.gov.za (Accessed on 19 May 2017).

City of Tshwane (CoT) 2013. Tshwane Framework on youth skills development, job creation and entrepreneurship FY 2013/14. Available at: www.tshwane.gov.za (Accessed on 10 May 2017).

City of Tshwane 2013. Tshwane Vision 2055. Pretoria.

City of Tshwane (CoT) 2014. Concept note for the launch of City of Tshwane War Room. Available at: www.tshwane.gov.za (Accessed on 10 June 2017).

Cleveland, H. 2002. *Nobody in charge: Essays on the future of leadership*. San Francisco: CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cloete, J.J.N. 1982. *Central, Provincial and Municipal institutions of South Africa*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik (Pty) Ltd.

- Cloete, J.J.N. 1998. *South African Public Administration and Management*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik (Pty) Ltd.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1997. *South African Municipal Government and Administration*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik Publishers.
- Collins, JC & Porras, IP 1996. Building your company's Vision. *Harvard Business Review*, September-October: 66-77.
- Coetzee, W.A.J. 1988. *Public Administration: A South African introductory perspective*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Approaches*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Daft, R. 1999. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. Fort Worth, TX 76102: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- David, P.A. & Foray, D. 2002. An introduction to the economy of the knowledge society. *International Social Science Journal*, 54(171): 9-23.
- Davoudi, S. & Stead, D. 2002. Urban-Rural Relationships: an introduction and a brief history. *Built Environment*, 28(4): 269-277.
- Diaz-Saenz, H.R. (eds.) 2011. Transformational Leadership, in A.B. Bryman, D. Collins, K. Grint, B. Jackson & M. Uhl-Bien. *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*, SAGE: London, 299-325.
- Emmerich, H. (n.d.) 'The Scope of the Practice of Public Administration' in JC Charlesworth (ed.). *Theory and Practice of Public Administration: scope, objectives, and methods*. :92-113.

Ellingsen, W. & Leknes, E. 2012. The city region as concept, object, and practice. *Norsk Geografisk Tidsskrift Norwegian Journal of Geography*, 66: 227-236.

Ernest and Young. 2014. Attractiveness Survey: Africa 2014. Available at: www.ey.com (Accessed 03 on April 2017).

Etu. 2015. Available at: www.etu.org.za (Accessed 28 June 2017).

Falconer, P.K. [Sa]. *Public Administration and the New Public Management: Lessons from the UK Experience*. Scotland: UK.

Fisher Jr, J.R. 1999. What will it take to Transform Your Organization in the 21st Century? *Journal for Quality & Participation*, 22(6): 7-14.

Fox, W., Schwella, E. & Wissink, H. 1991. *Public management*. Cape Town: Juta.

Frederickson, H.G. 2015. Towards a New Public Administration, in JM Shafritz & AC Hyde (Ed.). *Classics of Public Administration*. 8th Edition. Cengage Learning: Boston: 283-317.

Freire, P. 2000. *Pedagogy of the oppressed* [Pedagogía del oprimido.](30th anniversary Ed.). New York: Continuum.

Fry, B.R. 1989. *Mastering Public administration*. New Jersey: Chatham House Publishers.

Futshane, M. & Wosiyana, M. 2005. *Transport Authorities in South Africa: current initiatives, developments and challenges*. Paper read at 24th Southern African Transport Conference, Pretoria, 11 -13 July 2005.

Gauteng City Region Observatory 2013. Challenges facing the Gauteng City-Region. Available at: www.2013.legacy.gcro.unomera.net. (Accessed on 26 July 2017).

Gauteng Government 2016. Socio-economic review and outlook. Available at: www.gauteng.gov.za/treasury. (Accessed on 31 May 2017).

Gauteng Provincial Government 2017, Infrastructure Development. Available at: www.did.gpg.gov.za. (Accessed on 25 May 2017).

Gerber, P.D., Nel, P.S. & Van Dyk, P.S. 1996. *Human Resource Management*. Johannesburg: International Thompson Publishing.

Gillwald, A., Moyo, M. & Stork, C. 2012. *Understanding what is happening in ICT in South Africa: A supply-and-demand side analysis of the ICT sector*. Available at: www.researchafrica.net (Accessed: 30 June 2017).

Goddard, W. & Melville, S. 2001. *Research Methodology: an introduction*. Lansdowne: Juta.

Gortner, H.F. 1981. *Administration in the public sector*. Second Edition. Toronto: John Wiley and Sons.

Greyvenstein, H. & Cilliers, F. 2012. Followership's experiences of organizational leadership: A systems psychodynamic perspective. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 38(2).

Gatwech, T.M. 2015, Leadership in Public Administration and Management. Available at: www.nyamile.co (Accessed on 20 April 2018).

Haque, M.S. 2001. Recent transition in Governance in South Asia: Contexts, Dimensions, and Implications. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 24 (12): 1405–1436.

Hamstra, M.R., Van Yperen, N.W., Wisse, B. & Sassenberg, K. 2013. Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Followers' Achievement Goals. *Journal of Business and Psychology*: 413-425.

Hanekom, S.X. & Thornhill, C. 1983. *Public administration in contemporary society*. Cape Town: Southern Book.

Harrison, P., Gotz, G., Todes, A. & Wray, C. 2014, *Changing space, Changing City: Johannesburg after Apartheid*. Johannesburg: Wits University Press.

Healey, P. 2007. City regions and place development. *Regional Studies* 43, (6): 831-843.

Helland, M.R. & Winston, B.E. 2005. Towards a Deeper Understanding of Hope and Leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 12 (2): 42-54.

Henry, N. 1980. *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. 2nd Edition. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc, Englewood Cliffs.

Henry, N. 2004. *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. 9th Edition. USA: Pearson Education:.

Henry, N. 2013, *Public Administration and Public Affairs*. 12th Edition. USA: Pearson Education.

Herrmann, L. 2013. Sustainable globalization: What businesses and cities must have. Available at: www.eco-business.com. (Accessed: 15 on April 2017).

Hogan, R., Curphy, G.J. & Hogan, J. 1994. What We Know About Leadership: Effectiveness and Personality. *American Psychologist* (June):1-33.

Hood, C. 2005. *The Idea of Joined-Up Government: A Historical Perspective*. In V. Bogdanor (ed.), *Joined-Up Government*. Oxford: Oxford University Press for the British Academy.

Howell, J.P. & Costley, D.L. 2001. *Understanding behaviors for effective leadership*. Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

<http://www.darryljavis.com> (Accessed on 19 April 2018).

<http://www.imagi-social.co.za>. (Accessed on 06 May 2017).

Ikeanyibe, O.M. 2016. Uniformity in local government system and the governance model in Nigeria. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, 1–15.

Internet Live Stat 2016. Available at: www.InternetLiveStats.com (Accessed on 4 May 2017).

Jakobson, L. & Prakash, V. 1971, *South and Southeast Asia Urban Affairs Annuals*, vol.1, Urbanization and National Development. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications,.

Jreisat, J. 2012. *Globalism and Comparative Public Administration*. Boca Raton: CRC Press Taylor & Francis Group.

Juli, W. & Atmadja, A.S. 2005. What Can We Learn from Trait Theories and Characteristics? Transformational leadership? A note to develop personal career strategies. *Journal of Management and Administration*, 7(2): 99-112.

Kirkhart, L. 1972. Towards a theory of Public Administration, in F Marini (ed.), *Towards a New Public Administration*. Scranton: Chandler Publishing Company.

Kilian, A. 2016. Gauteng endorses creation of a single provincial transport authority. Available at: www.engineeringnews.co.za. (Accessed on 25 June 2017).

Knott-Craig, A. & Silder, G. 2015. *The story of Tshwane Free WiFi: "Africa's largest municipal public WiFi network"* and BMI-T. Pretoria.

Kotter, J.P. 1988. *The Leadership Factor*. The Free Press.

Kumar, A. 2012. What are the Characteristics of globalization? *Preserve Articles*. Available at: www.preservearticles.com. (Accessed on 5 April 2017).

Kuye, J.O., Thornhill, C. & Fourie, D. 2002. *Critical perspectives on public administration issues for consideration*. Sandown: Heinemann.

Kuye, J.O. 2005. The State of Research and Scholarship in Public Administration. In Kuye, J, Thornhill, C, Fourie, D. *et al.* (eds). *Critical Perspectives on Public Administration: Issues for consideration*: 9-26.

Ladkin, D. 2010. *Rethinking Leadership: A new look at old leadership questions*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.

Lawton, A. & Paez, I. 2015. Developing a Framework for Ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*. :639-649.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2005. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 8th Edition. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Leonard, H.S. 2003. Leadership Development of the Postindustrial, Postmodern Information Age. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 55: 3-14.

Lerner, A. & Wanat, J. 1992. *Public Administration: A Realistic Reinterpretation of Contemporary Public Management*. New Jersey: University of Illinois Chicago Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs.

Madlala, L. 2012. Conceptual High Level Business Framework for the Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) IRPTN Project. Available at: www.tshwane.gov.za (Accessed on 21 May 2017).

Mailoane, L. 2014. Gauteng Service Delivery War Room launch. Available at: www.socdev.gpg.gov.za. (Accessed on 16 May 2017).

Makhura, D. 2014. State of the Province Address. Available at www.gautengonline.gov.za (Accessed on 20 June 2017)

Makhura, D. 2015. State of the Province Address to the Gauteng Legislature. Available at: www.gautengonline.gov.za. (Accessed on 02 April 2017).

Management Innovations 2008. Defining Management and its functions. Available at: <http://www.managementinnovations.wordpress.com> (Accessed on 20 April 2018).

McCleskey, J.M. 2014. Situational, Transformational, and Transactional Leadership and Leadership Development. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 5(4): 117-130.

McKinsey Global Institute 2013. Lions go digital: The internet's transformative potential in Africa. Available at: www.mckinsey.com (Accessed on 30 June 2017).

McNabb, D.E. 2013. *Research Methods in Public Administration and Non-profit Management*. London: M.E. Sharpe, Armonk.

Mesko, A. & Farkashazi, M. 2003. 'The impact of globalisation on traditional statistical systems', *Statistical Journal of the UN Economic Commission for Europe*, 20(2): 145 – 153.

Mind Tools Editorial team. 2015. SWOT Analysis: Discover new Opportunities, Manage and Eliminate Threats. Available at: www.mindtools.com. (Accessed on 26 May 2017).

Naidu, J. & Van Der Walt, M.S. 2005. An exploration of the relationship between leadership styles and the implementation of transformation interventions. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(2): 1-10.

Naidu, S.P. 2005. *Public Administration: Concepts and Theories*. New Delhi: New Age International.

National Planning Commission 2015. Reforming the South African Government Planning System. Pretoria.

Northouse, P.G. 2010. *Leadership: theory and practice*. 5th Edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Ntirhisano 2015. Available at: www.gautengonline.gov.za. (Accessed: 12 April 2017).

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. 2011. *OECD Territorial Reviews: The Gauteng City-Region, South Africa 2011*. Johannesburg: OECD Publishing.

Ospina, S.M. 2017. Collective leadership and context in public administration: bridging public leadership and leadership studies. *Public Administration Review*, 77(2): 275-287.

Pain, K. 2008. *City Regions and Economic Development*. Sydney: Metropolis.

Parnell, S. & Pieterse, E. 2010. The 'Right to the City': Institutional Imperatives of a Developmental State. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 34(1): 146-162.

Pavlov, P. [Sa]. *The Relationship of Leadership and New Public Management in Central Government: Bulgarian Specifics*. Sofia, Bulgaria.

Pemberton, S. & Lloyd, G. 2011. Facilitating Institutional Reform in England: Reconciling City-regions and Community Planning for Efficiency Gains? *European Planning Studies*, 19(3): 501-517.

Peters, G. & Pierre, J. 2007. Introduction: The Role of Public Administration in Governing. In Peters, G and Pierre, J (eds.). *Hand Book of Public Administration: Concise Paperback Edition*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Pillay, U. 2004. 'Are Globally Competitive City Regions' Developing in South Africa? Formulaic Aspirations or New Imaginations? *Urban Forum*, 15(4): 340-364.

- Price, J.H. & Murnan, J. 2004. Research Limitations and the Necessity of Reporting Them. *American Journal of Health Education*, 35.
- Pruthi, R.K. 2005. *Theory of Public Administration*. New Delhi: Discovery Publishing House.
- Pule, A. 2016. New bus system for Ekurhuleni. Available at: www.vukuzenzele.gov.za. (Accessed on 27 May 2017).
- Ravitch, S.M. & Carl, N.M. 2016. *Qualitative Research: bridging the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological*. London: Sage.
- Rennen, W. & Martens, P. 2003. 'The Globalisation Timeline', *Integrated Assessment*, 4(3): pp 137 – 144. (Online). Available at: www.web.b.ebscohost.com.uplib.idm.oclc.org. (Accessed on 20 April 2017).
- Rosenbloom, D.H. 1993. *Public Administration: understanding management, politics, and law in the public sector*. 3rd Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Rosenbloom, D.H. & Kravchuk, R.S. 2009. *Public Administration: Understanding Management, Politics, and Law in the Public Sector*. 7th Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Rousseau, D.M., Sitkin, S.B., Burt, R.S. & Camerer, C. 1998. Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3): 393– 404.
- Sadler, P. 2003. *Leadership*. VA USA: Kogan Page.
- Salahuddin, M. & Gow, J. 2017. The effect of the internet on economic growth in Southern African counties: A combination of panel and time series approaches. Available at: www.essa.org.za (Accessed on 02 May 2017).

Salm, S.J. & Falola, T. 2005. *African Urban Spaces in Historical Perspective*. NY 14620, USA: University of Rochester Press.

Sashkin, M. & Sashkin, M. 2003. *Leadership that matters: the critical factors for making a difference in people's lives and organisations' success*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Scholtz, T. 2011. *Towards a Digital Inclusion Index in South Africa*. Unpublished Master's Thesis University of Pretoria, Pretoria.

Scott, A.J. 2001. Globalisation and the rise of city region. *European Planning Studies*, 9(7): 813-827.

Scott, A.J. [Sa]. *Global city-regions and the new world system*. Department of Policy Studies and Department of Geography, UCLA.

Sekhonyane, P. 2017. Premier David Makhura re-launches Tshepo One Million programme at Nasrec Expo Centre. Available at: www.gautengonline.gov.za. (Accessed on 24 May 2017).

Sheoraj, R. 2015. *Overview of South Africa's public service: a dialogue on capacity building, skills readiness and service delivery*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.

Shezi, L. 2015. City of Johannesburg announces 100% free WiFi access in Braamfontein. Available at: www.htxt.co.za. (Accessed on 27 May 2017).

Singh, P. & Lokotsch, K. 2005. Effects of transformational leadership on human resource management in primary schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 25(4): 279-286.

Siswana, B. 2007. *Leadership and governance in the South African public service: and overview of the public finance management system*. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.

South African Cities Network. 2013. The space economy: an important consideration in spatial development planning. Available at: www.citiesnetwork.co.za. (Accessed on 05 May 2017).

South African Cities Network, 2016. State of Cities Report 2016. Available at: www.citiesnetwork.co.za. (Accessed on 20 May 2017).

South African Local Government Association (SALGA). 2015. *Community Protest: Local Government Perceptions*. SALGA, Pretoria.

South Africa. National Planning Commission. 2011. *National Development Plan-Vision 2030*. Pretoria: Government Printers

Statistics South Africa. 2013. Measuring household expenditure on public transport In-depth analysis of the National Household Travel Survey 2013 data, Report no. 03-20-11. Available at: www.statssa.gov.za (Accessed on 08 May 2017).

Stoker, G. 1998. Governance as theory: Five propositions. *International Social Science Journal*, 50(155): 17–28.

Thornhill, W. 1985. *Public Administration*. Cambridge: ICSA Publishing.

Trevino, L.K., Brown, M.E. & Hartman, L.P. 2000. Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California Management Review*, 42(4): 128–142.

Tshwane Rapid Transit 2015. Driving public transport forward. Available at: www.tshwanetransit.net. (Accessed on 25 June 2017).

Van Wart, M. & Dicke, L.A. (eds) 2008. *Administrative Leadership in the Public Sector*. London: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Visscher, M. 2007. The power of many. *Ode*, 5(4): 34-38.

United Nations Human Settlements Programme. 2013. *State of World's Cities 2012/2013*. New York: Routledge.

Van Rensburg, D. 2017. Bus Rapid Transit bleeding cash. Available at: www.fin24.com. (Accessed on 04 July 2017).

Van Theil, S. 2014. *Research methods in Public Administration and Public Management: an introduction*. London and New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Van Wart, M. 2013. Lessons from Leadership Theory and the Contemporary Challenges of Leaders. *Public Administration Review*, 73(4): 553-565. DOI: 10.1111/puar.12069.

Waldo, D. 1955. *The Study of Public Administration*. New York: Random House.

Watson, V. 2009. The planned city sweeps the poor away....". Urban planning and the 21st century urbanization. *Progress in Planning*, 72:151-193.

White, L.D. 2015. Introduction to the study of Public Administration, in JM Shafritz & AC Hyde (ed.), *Classics of Public Administration*. 8th Edition. Boston: Cengage Learning.

Wilmore, E. and Thomas, C. 2001. The new century: Is it too late for transformational leadership? *Educational Horizons*, 79(3): 115-123.

Wolinski, S. 2010. Leadership Theories. Available at: www.managementhelp.org. (Accessed on 05 May 2017).

World Bank Group, n.d. Strategic planning: a ten-step guide. Available at: <http://www.siteresources.worldbank.org> (Accessed on 23 April 2018).

Yates, D. 1977. *The Ungovernable City: The Politics of urban Problems and Policy Making*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London: England: MIT Press.

Yeboah, I.E., Codjoe, S.N. & Maingi, J.K. 1998. Emerging Urban System Demographic Trends: Informing Ghana's National Urban Policy and Lessons for Sub-Saharan Africa. *Africa Today*, 60(1): 99-124.

Legislation

South Africa, Republic. *Development Facilitation Act* (Act 67 of 1995). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Division of Revenue Act* (Act 7 of 2003). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations Act* (Act 97 of 1997). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Interim Constitution, Act* (Act 200 of 1993). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Local Government Municipal Systems Act* (Act 32 of 2000). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Local Government Transition Act* (Act 209 of 1993). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Local Government Municipal Structures Act* (Act 117 of 1998). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *Municipal Finance Management Act* (Act 56 of 2003). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa, Republic. *The Constitution*. (Online). Available at: <http://www.gov.za/Constitution/constitution-republic-south-africa-1996>. (Accessed: 30 March 2017).

White Paper on Spatial Planning and Land Use Management. 2001. (Online). Available at: <http://www.sapi.org.za>. (Accessed: 28 March 2017).

Cases

City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality vs. Gauteng Development Tribunal and Others CCT89/09 [2010] ZACC 11.