

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

The impact of corruption in recruitment and procurement within local government and its impact on service delivery, using the KwaZulu-Natal department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs as a case study.

by

Ngqapheli Mchunu

(211519064)

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the academic requirements for the degree of Master of Social Sciences (Political Science) in the School of Social Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg.

Supervisor: Dr. Siyabonga Dlamini

November 2018

TABLE OF CONTENT

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
ACRONYMS.....	vii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	1
 1.1 Introduction.....	1
 1.2 Background and outline of research problem	2
 1.3 Theoretical Framework.....	4
 1.4 Research Design	6
 1.5 Aim of the study	7
 1.6 Research Questions.....	7
 1.7 Objectives of the study	7
 1.8 Structure of dissertation.....	8
 1.9 Conclusion	8
CHAPTER TWO	9
LITERATURE REVIEW	9
 2.1 Introduction.....	9
 2.2 Defining and Understanding Corruption.....	10
 2.3 How Does Corruption Work in South Africa.....	16
 2.3.1 Patronage Politics	18
 2.3.2 Cadre Deployment	19
 2.3.3 Black Economic Empowerment, Affirmative Action and vulnerability to corruption in the public sector.....	20
 2.4. Understanding the Case Study.....	23
 2.4.1 Procurement in KwaZulu-Natal Provincial government and the centrality of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs.	25
 2.4.2 Recruitment in KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government with a focus on KZN CoGTA.....	27
 2.5 Conclusion	31
CHAPTER THREE	32
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	32

3.1 Introduction.....	32
3.2 Mixed-Methods Design.....	33
3.3 Case Study Research	35
3.4 Data collection methods	36
3.4.1 Qualitative data collection methods	37
3.4.2 Quantitative data collection methods	38
3.5 Data analysis methods.....	41
3.6 Ethical Considerations	44
3.7 Study limitations.....	45
3.8 Conclusion	46
CHAPTER FOUR.....	47
4.1. Introduction.....	47
4.2 Quantitative results analysis	47
4.2.1 The public service as a preferred sector of employment.....	47
4.2.2 Support for affirmative action in public sector employment.....	51
4.2.3 Views on recruitment in the KwaZulu-Natal Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs Department	55
4.2.4 Views on corrupt recruitment practices in the KwaZulu-Natal department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs	59
4.2.5 Further exploration of variables regarding attitudes towards public sector employment.	62
4.3 Qualitative results analysis	65
4.3.1 Corruption challenges in procurement in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of CoGTA.	65
4.3.2 Causes of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial department of CoGTA ..	67
4.3.2.1 Greed	68
4.3.2.2 Lack of oversight	
4.3.2.3 Lack of transparency.....	72
4.3.3 Corruption in recruitment, procurement and its impact on service delivery.	74
4.3.4.1 Recreating culture in the public service.....	77

4.3.4.2 Strengthening of oversight institutions.....	78
4.4 Conclusion	80
CHAPTER FIVE.....	81
 OVERALL DISCUSSION OF RESULTS	81
5.1 Introduction.....	81
5.2. Overall discussion of results.....	81
5.3. Conclusion	93
CHAPTER SIX	94
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	94
6.1 Introduction.....	94
6.2 Summary	94
6.3. Recommendations on how to improve service delivery and curb corruption in the public sector.	95
 6.3.1 Revisiting the current decentralisation model	95
 6.3.2 Improving Public Participation.....	96
 6.3.3 Re-emphasising the Batho-Pele principles in the public service.	98
 6.3.4 Increasing institutional capacity to fight corruption	100
 6.3.5 Measuring of corruption on a frequent basis.....	101
6.4 Contribution to research knowledge	103
6.5 Recommendations for future studies	103
6.6 Closing remarks	105
REFERENCES	106
 Appendices	132
Appendix A: Local government Interview	132
Appendix B: KwaZulu-Natal Office of the Public Service Commission	134
Appendix C: Recruitment official Interview Schedule	136
Appendix D: Human Resources Management official.....	138
Appendix E: Service provider's interview	140
Appendix F: Information letter	142
 Appendix G: Consent Letter.....	144
Appendix H:Ethical Clearance Letter.....	145

Appendix I: KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs permission letter.....	146
Appendix J: Survey Questionnaire.....	147

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the University of KwaZulu-Natal for the 2017 DVC Bursary for coursework Master's, research Master's and Doctorate students that was offered to me. I would also like to express gratitude to the University of KwaZulu-Natal Master's fee remission programme for their financial assistance. I am truly grateful.

To my former supervisor, Dr. Sakhile Hadebe, thank you for guiding me through this journey. Although you may not have been able to see me through to the end of it, your support, patience and guidance were priceless. Thank you, Mthimkhulu. To my supervisor, Dr. Siyabonga Dlamini, although the circumstances were not ideal, you showed a willingness to assist me in any way possible. I appreciate your support, timely intervention and advice. Thank you, Jama.

A special mention has to go to Dr. Heidi Matissonn, Dr. Dorcas Ettang and Mr Mark Rieker for their support and their willingness to engage with me during the data collection process. It was highly appreciated.

To my colleagues at the Human Sciences Research Council, Dr. Benjamin Roberts, Dr. Steven Gordon, Miss Thobeka Radebe and Miss Samela Mtyingizane, thank you for your invaluable support.

Your friends are basically the family you choose. I would like to thank my good friends Mzokhona Dlamini, Sifiso Magaba, Nangipha Mnandi, Siyabonga Nxumalo, Kwanele Madondo, Nkululeko Sithole, Nompu Nzuza, Nkululeko Kwitshana and Nathan Glover. I appreciate your friendship and overwhelming support. Thank you, family.

I am indebted to my parents, Zakhona and Sibusiso, and my wider family - thank you.

Lastly, to my dear grandmother, Miss Du Ngubane - without you, none of this would have been possible. This work is dedicated to you, ngyabonga MaMbovu omuhle.

DECLARATION - PLAGIARISM

I, Ngqapheli Mchunu, declare that:

1. The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
2. This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other University.
3. This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
4. This dissertation does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
 - a. Their words have been re-written, but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.
 - b. Where their exact words have been used, then their writing has been placed in italics and inside quotation marks, and referenced.
5. This dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation and in the references sections.

Signed:



ACRONYMS

AA	-	Affirmative Action
ANC	-	African National Congress
BEE	-	Black Economic Empowerment
CoGTA	-	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
HR	-	Human Resources
HSRC	-	Human Sciences Research Council
IFP	-	Inkatha Freedom Party
KZN	-	KwaZulu-Natal
PSC	-	Public Service Commission
SCM	-	Supply Chain Management
UKZN	-	University of KwaZulu-Natal

LIST OF TABLES & FIGURES

Tables:

Table 3.1: Interviewee details

Table 3.2: Characteristics of survey sample

Table 4.2: Desirability of public sector employment, by student characteristics

Table 4.3: Support for affirmative action in public sector employment, by student characteristics

Table 4.4: SASAS KwaZulu-Natal data on attitudes towards affirmative action employment, 2006-2017

Table 4.5: The perceived freeness and fairness of recruitment processes in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department

Table 4.6: The perceived corruption in recruitment practices in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department, by student characteristics

Table 4.7: Ordered Logistic Regression Model of Attitudes towards Corrupt Acts in the Public Sector

Table 4.8: Ordered Logistic Regression Model of Intention to Enter Public Sector Employment

Table 5.1: Tabulation of Multiple Responses on the Three Most Important Challenges Facing South Africa today

Table 5.2: KZN Local municipal election results.

Figures:

Figure 4.1: The desirability of public sector employment among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus.

Figure 4.2: Preferences for affirmative action policy in public sector employment among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus.

Figure 4.3: The perceived freeness and fairness of recruitment processes in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus.

Figure 4.4: Perceived corruption in recruitment practices in the KwaZulu-Natal Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs Department.

ABSTRACT

The dawn of democracy in 1994 may have signalled a new beginning for South Africa politically. Economically, however, it was not going to be the case unless the socio-economic inequalities that the apartheid regime had left behind could be sufficiently addressed by the incoming government. In a bid to redress the social imbalances of the past, the ANC-led government has embarked on a journey that seeks to get rid of structural inequalities that faced South Africans and also to provide adequate service delivery. Since the democratic dispensation, South Africa has faced various challenges ranging from rampant crime in local communities, inequality and unemployment, combined with the ever-rising cost of living. In addition, the HIV/AIDS epidemic also posed a major threat to the livelihood of many South Africans. Remarkable progress has been made in fighting the disease and significant strides have also been made in dealing with other socio-economic challenges that the country has been faced with. Corruption, however, is the challenge that is being seen as next on the South African horizon. Moreover, research conducted by various research institutions points to an ever-increasing concern about corruption in the South African government. In addition, further research conducted points to an increase in public sector corruption over the past 10 – 15 years.

This research looks at challenges of corruption within recruitment and procurement units in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government, particularly in the Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs. Using a mixed-method research methodology, this research looks at perceptions of corruption from potential young public servants and corruption challenges from a senior public official's standpoint and how this impacts on service delivery in the province. The study takes place in Pietermaritzburg, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal campus where the questionnaire is conducted and the qualitative interviews are done in the respective participants' offices. Findings from this research indicate that there is huge perception of the existence of corruption in the department. Moreover, corruption within the department seems to affect service delivery directly through the way in which services through procurement are disrupted by corruption activities such as bribery, extortion and nepotism.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 Introduction

Service delivery is an inseparable component of South African politics. Politicians standing as independent candidates or representing their political parties use it as a critical issue when campaigning for votes during elections, while citizens often hold protests demanding improved levels of service delivery and greater accountability from government authorities. For all the political will and progress that has been made in addressing service delivery backlogs in the country over the last quarter of a century, corruption in the public sector has remained a persistent challenge that hinders the South African government's ability to fully and effectively realise its service delivery mandate. As a result, this research topic explores the relationship between corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) and service delivery in the province. The two units of focus that will form part of this research are recruitment and procurement. The recruitment section specialises in the hiring of skilled individuals for relevant advertised positions in the public sector. These professions can range from educators, doctors, senior and junior bureaucrats to other specialists such as auditors and accountants. Procurement deals with the government's business transactions relating to social and economic infrastructural provisions, amongst others. Examples of these transactions include, for example, the installation of technological advancements such as aspirators in hospitals, design and construction of public roads, leasing of government properties and the appointment of financial advisors to advise Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) beneficiaries on a consultative basis. More specifically, the two units within the department dealing with recruitment and procurement are looked at with interest, due to the key role that they play in the provision of service delivery and the likely impact that corrupt activities within these units would have on the department's ability to render services to citizens. With ever-rising concerns about service delivery and corruption, a research study of this nature is significant because it will explore the different dynamics involving various stakeholders, including government, citizens and business individuals. This chapter of the research gives a brief introduction to the research subject, along

with research questions and objectives of the study. Moreover, the theoretical framework adopted for the purposes of the study is also explored in this chapter.

In order to adequately conduct the research contained in this dissertation, it is essential that a suitable definition of service delivery is provided, as it forms a core part of this research. Service delivery is the process undertaken by the government to provide its citizens with basic resources which most, if not all, citizens are likely to depend on, including water, housing, electricity and basic education (Chen, Dean, Frant and Kumar, 2014).

The provision of service delivery, along with other basic needs, is protected by the South African Constitution, which also stipulates that the state should take the necessary steps and use the resources within its means to ensure that these basic needs are provided to the people. According to Alexander (2010:25), service delivery protests in South Africa date back to the apartheid period and, for a long time, citizens have used this form of protest to voice their dissatisfaction. Citizens tend to point to corruption behind the lack of adequate service delivery, due to politicians using their position to enrich themselves, while neglecting the people on the ground and their service delivery needs (Koelble and LiPuma, 2010:584).

1.2 Background and outline of research problem

Recruitment and procurement can be considered the two most vital elements of governance. Amongst other things, recruitment involves the hiring of personnel for certain positions, whereas procurement involves the purchasing and acquisition of goods and services to enable a government to provide good services to its people. Corrupt practices in these respective fields may involve nepotism, perjury, extortion, collusion and price fixing.

Scholarly work on the subject of corruption in South Africa has focused predominantly on national or local governments and, as such, there remains an academic gap in relation to corruption at the level of provincial government. In recognition of this, the relationship between the provincial department of CoGTA and local government is examined. Consideration will also be afforded to the department's own service delivery objectives. Moreover, the dissertation will look at the extent to which procurement and recruitment play a role in the provision of goods and services, combined with service delivery. Furthermore, it seeks to establish the impact of corrupt practices on these two governance elements and to explore whether or not they have a direct or indirect impact on

service delivery and provision of good and services in KwaZulu-Natal province, with a specific focus on CoGTA as a case study.

Like most public sector institutions, provincial governance in South Africa has been under constant reform. During the process of negotiation in the early 1990s, it was agreed that decentralisation would have to occur, as a basis for creating strong provincial governments, enabling direct participation and advancing the process of economic development in the respective provinces (Moeti and Khalo, 2007: 130). This resulted in the establishment of nine provinces through the interim constitution of 1994, the creation of which came as a result of the amalgamation of previous homelands into one province in the Eastern Cape, and the amalgamation of the Natal area and Kwa-Zulu to form the KZN province (Lodge, 2005:738). Other amalgamations include the integration of Bophuthatswana into the Free State, Gauteng and the North-West province, the integration of the Venda and Lebowa homelands into the Limpopo province, the Gazankulu homelands into both Mpumalanga and Limpopo, kaNgwane and KwaNdebele into Mpumalanga and the Qwa Qwa into the Free State. In creating provincial governments, Naidoo (2009:259) points out that the provincial sphere of government is still the only arm of government whose existence is still contested and debated. Debates on the usefulness of provincial governments have raged on as a result. The constitution gives rise to shared responsibility amongst the three arms of government on the provision of service delivery (Draai, 2010:135). Inter-governmental discourse has been centred on the role of provincial governments in the governance of the country and provision of service delivery (Naidoo, 2012:50). There is a middle ground that provincial governments aim to identify and focus on in-between national and local governments. This includes playing an inter-governmental role in bringing all three arms together.

KwaZulu-Natal is one of only two South African provinces that have undergone a provincial government regime change since the transition to democracy (the other being the Western Cape). The Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) governed the province between 1994 and 2004, but then lost out to the African National Congress (ANC) in the 2004 general elections (Mottiar, 2004: 47-48). The 2016 local government elections resulted in a declining share of the vote for the ruling party in every province except for KwaZulu-Natal, where the ruling party improved its proportional share of the vote by a modest 1% (Saveides, 2016). Prior to that, the ruling party's support shrank from 65.90% in the 2009 general election to 62.15% in the 2014 general election (Independent Electoral

Commission, 2016). KwaZulu-Natal is the second largest driver of the South African economy. Botha (2014) asserts that, although KwaZulu-Natal is the third smallest province by land size, it continues to contribute significantly towards the South African economy, with the province accounting for 26.9% of the country's agricultural sector, 13 % of the country's social and personal services sector, and at least 15% of the country's water and electricity output.

One of the biggest questions surrounding corruption is the impact it may have on the economy of a country. According to Azfar, Lee and Swamy (2001: 50), corruption is particularly harmful because of its unpredictable nature. Furthermore, there is a negative relationship between Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth and corruption in the sense that, when combined with the unpredictable nature of corruption, investors are likely to be intimidated by the uncertain domestic environment and may be reluctant to invest funds in what they deem to be a politically unstable economy. The impact of corruption on a country can be devastating. Kroukamp (2011: 211) maintains that corruption also leads to a distrust of government among the public, and that this can result in a vicious anarchic cycle that benefits neither the people nor the government of the day.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

Neopatrimonialism Theory

Upon independence, several countries in Africa were subjected to neopatrimonialism rule. The theory of patrimonialism and later neopatrimonialism was first developed by scholars Max Webber, Nathan Quimpo and Richard Pipes. According to Dutie (2015:112), neopatrimonialism has its roots in colonialism where a pyramid top-down approach would see the patrons at the top distributing resources to their clients below and those clients below doing the same to patrons below. In this system, the accepted rule is accepted not because it is legal, but because there is a personal connection between the individual and the person in office (Masenya, 2017:148). In essence, according to Hansen (2003:203), neopatrimonialism focuses on the importance of political relationships in which wealth is accumulated through state resources reserved for the connected few. Furthermore, through these relationships, rule of law is reserved for the person in office, instead of the office itself, and loyalty to relationships prevails over the political and legal systems in place (Bratton and Van de Walle, 1994: 458).

The theory of neopatrimonialism is suitable for this research study because it adequately explains the relationship between the key role players within a state and how relationships may be used for

corrupt purposes. Moreover, this can be done, for instance, through awarding of public procurement contracts to the politically-connected over those who are deserving of the opportunity, as per the supply chain regulations. In addition, neopatrimonialism theory focuses on each of the key stakeholders and what role they have to play within the patronage system. This is also further illustrated by Nawaz (2008:2) who points out that the patronage relationship consists of three sectors: the ‘ins’, the ‘outs’ and the government. Government accesses its support from the patrons, who are businessmen, clients etc. (the ‘ins’) by taxing the ‘outs’ which are publicly-funded resources funded through the public purse.

Élite Theory

The second notable theoretical framework guiding my research is the élite theory, which speaks to the societal power relations of a group of political, business, government and military élites who are able to influence policy and government decisions. Within democracy, Verba et al. (1987) argue that political borders are not as clear as they once were, having been infiltrated by multinational corporations, media outlets and a constant movement involving labour that has caused both the public and private sectors to be closely linked to one another. This has seen the rise of government-owned businesses that are controlled by both politicians and powerful business people.

The democratic processes are able to ensure an extended access to democracy as a whole and ensure improved integration and involvement into processes of democratic inclusion. The democratic processes may ensure an equal access to democratic processes and access to democratic activities such as the right to vote, one man one vote, and equal access to human rights, to mention a few. Van de Merwe (2006:33) notes that acts of corruption in KwaZulu-Natal province tend to involve political and business élites and are often initiated by political élites. In order for a person to be able to commit an act of corruption, he or she needs to be in a position to access a public sector resource or make use of a public platform for private gain. In many developing countries, public service is often used for political gain and as a political platform. Instead of it being for the service of the people, it is used to serve the political élite through the awarding of lucrative contracts to the well-connected and employment of individuals into crucial positions based on political connections rather than merit or deservingness (Grobler and Joubert, 1993:93). Acts of corruption, especially in procurement, involve the blatant disregard of procurement processes

when awarding a contract. In recruitment, corrupt practices tend to involve the irregular appointment of individuals without following due recruitment processes.

1.4 Research Design

In recent years, opinion data collected by various think tanks such as Afrobarometer point to an increase in reported acts of corruption within the South African government. South Africa was ranked amongst the three worst performing countries, based on the increasing prevalence of corruption reported by citizens (Pring, 2015:5). The Public Protector's report on state capture (2016) further highlighted that corruption poses a major challenge for the South African government. Furthermore, service delivery protests have become a common feature within South African communities, which can be seen as an indication that government across local, provincial and national spheres faces obstacles when it comes to providing adequate service delivery.

Current research on the subject has predominantly focused on either national or local government level, with a comparatively limited focus on provincial level of government. As a result, in this study the researcher uses the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Government as a research case study in exploring the aforementioned challenges at provincial government level. In particular, I reflect on the extent to which corrupt practices exist within the two units of provincial governance, procurement and recruitment, and the role these challenges play in the department's ability to effectively meet its service delivery mandate. Moreover, the study aims to provide innovative data on the subject from a provincial government level perspective and through the conducting of a short survey that seeks to establish attitudinal sentiments towards corruption from prospective, young public servants. The study also focuses on measures that have been implemented to deal with the identified corruption challenges, including a focus on Chapter 9 and 10 institutions of government. It is also worth noting that this is a changing area of policy, as new initiatives are being identified and tested in the fight against corruption. This is highlighted by the newly-proposed restructuring of the Public Service Commission, with the idea of establishing it as a body that is independent from the executive arm of government. This would, in turn, allow the Public Service Commission to enforce its findings and ensure that it is fully able to carry out its duties, which include ensuring good, responsible governance and fighting against corruption. The researcher is of the view that the present study is needed, due to its holistic and multi-dimensional approach to the research subject.

1.5 Aim of the study

Corruption is a societal challenge that South Africans across the class, gender or race spectrum are inevitably, directly or indirectly affected by. As the country's democracy matures, corruption poses an immediate threat to the country's socio-economic aspirations and future prospects of prosperity. In addition, being able to measure impact and attempting to establish possible causes behind the challenge of corruption is something this study aims to achieve. As further set out in the research objectives below, this dissertation attempts to unbundle and get a better conceptual understanding of the phenomenon of corruption in the public sector, alongside factors that enable it and more importantly, its impact on key government led service delivery initiatives. Moreover, through procurement and recruitment, government, across all levels looks to meet its constitutional mandates and service delivery deliverables. The two components serve as key pillars towards government efforts of service delivery and socio-economic upliftment. Therefore, any obstacles are posed on these two units ought to be academically explored and better understood. In light of the above, this study aims to get a better understanding of corruption within the two units of procurement and recruitment functions and what sort of impact does it have on government's key service delivery mandates.

1.6 Research Questions

1. What are the causes behind corrupt activities involving procurement and recruitment in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?
2. Is there a relationship between service delivery and corruption?
3. What is the impact of corruption in procurement and recruitment on service delivery?

1.7 Objectives of the study

1. Identify the challenges of corruption in recruitment and procurement procedures within provincial governments.
2. Evaluate how perceptions of corruption affect the motivations of young recruits in provincial government.
3. Examine how provincial government officials understand the problems of corruption and procurement within provincial government.

4. Evaluate proposed solutions of fighting corruption within provincial government departments along with improvement of service delivery.

1.8 Structure of dissertation

This dissertation consists of six chapters. In the present chapter, the researcher has provided a general introduction and overview of the research topic, outlining the research problem, questions and objectives along with the theoretical framework that the researcher will apply. Chapter Two considers and discusses the various literature pertaining to the research subject, including legislative policy and document analysis. This leads into Chapter Three, which provides a descriptive outline of research methodologies adopted for the research project. In particular in the chapter, I outline the research methods, data collection and data analysis methods used in the study. Chapter Four provides an analysis of the results from both a qualitative and quantitative standpoint. The quantitative analysis uses STATA software and Microsoft Excel to analyse and sequence the data. Moreover, the qualitative analysis uses a theme-based analysis focusing on the emerging concepts from the qualitative data collection. Chapter Five presents a general discussion of the analytical results of the dissertation, and is accompanied by recommendations about the improvement of service delivery and the curbing of corruption in the public sector. Finally, Chapter Six provides a summary of all the research chapters, followed by recommendations about potential future scholarly work in this research area, as well as concluding reflections based on my study.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a brief introduction and background to the study. The researcher then proceeds to describe the theoretical framework that has been used in contextualising and approaching the analysis of the research. The research need, questions and objectives of the study are then outlined. Through the unique mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence that was gathered as part of the research, new insight in response to these questions will be presented, with the purpose of contributing to the ongoing policy-oriented discourse around how best to improve public service provision and effectively root out corruption. The chapter concluded by providing an outline of the dissertation structure, including a description of the scope and content of each of the remaining five chapters.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Africa's post-colonial path towards socio-economic development has not been easy. Several African governments across the continents have faced various challenges in their pursuit of socio-economic development. One of the most persistent challenge has been that of corruption in African governments. In recognition of this, some scholarly work about corruption in African governments has been carried out. Furthermore, scholars across the continent have attempted to study the subject of corruption to understand the causes, consequences and possible solutions to this widely-acknowledged challenge that corruption poses. In the South African context, similar work has been done in order to try and make sense of corruption in the public sector and how it affects key government-listed priority areas such as service delivery. As a result of this, literature on corruption in South Africa dates back from the colonial period all the way to the current democratic dispensation. It covers a broad range of topics related to public sector corruption, whether it be corruption at the macro or micro level. This literature review chapter will visit the vast literature written on public sector corruption within the South African government and how it continues to affect government-listed priorities such as socio-economic development through service delivery, economic empowerment through recruitment and procurement and how corruption within those areas has manifested itself during this period.

Since assuming power in 1994, the ANC-led government has made service delivery a priority. The ANC officially took over as the governing party in KwaZulu-Natal in 2004. However, the ANC service delivery mandate has been in place nationally and has been backed by policy of that nature. The White Paper of 1997 on Transforming Public Service Delivery was drafted with the intention of transforming the public service whilst also targeting service delivery. According to Nengwekhulu (2009:347), the paper would also have eight principles which would guide public service: namely, access to service delivery, consultation, redress, access to information, openness and transparency, value for money, courtesy and service standards. The principles would be called the "Batho-Pele" or "people first" principles. While government policies have changed over the

years, service delivery has remained a government commitment for various reasons, one of which is the strong reliance of citizens on government-provided services for their daily survival. Furthermore, the service delivery obligations place the onus on a local, provincial or national government to provide services to the people.

The literature review chapter is structured into nine subsections, in order to ensure a flow of ideas and structure. Moreover, this chapter covers the main subjects of the topic study in detail, including themes of corruption, service delivery, procurement and recruitment and it further looks at the structure of the South African government. In addition, this chapter visits examples in which corruption manifests itself regionally, nationally, provincially and locally and how it impacts on service delivery in the KwaZulu-Natal province.

2.2 Defining and Understanding Corruption

Corruption remains a difficult concept to adequately define, due to the ambiguity associated with it. As Khan (1999) points out, corruption is a social, economic and political concept whose definition is rendered more difficult due to the overlapping nature of the concepts involved. It is also imperative to gain a thorough understanding of corruption from a governance standpoint, as this dissertation pertains to corruption within the public sector and how it is likely to impact on service delivery. Taking into account these complexities, for the purpose of this dissertation, use is made of the following definition of corruption provided by Naidoo (2012:26): “The use of public resources with the intention of private gain, usually committed by a public official who has been tasked with maintaining the public integrity and ethical value in his position as a public office bearer”. Theobald (1999) makes an important observation which is critical in defining corruption, by pointing out that corruption should not be separated from morality, most especially in the case where it involves usage of public resources. Transparency International defines corruption as the use of entrusted power for private gain, and this definition is applicable to both the public and private sector, with special emphasis being on the public sector, which may include public office holders such as ministers, bureaucrats, and administrators. Bureaucratic corruption, according to Idoniboye-Obu and Uzodike (2013), is rife all over the world, but Africa is the worst-performing region when it comes to acts of corruption. Moreover, Botswana is ranked as the best-performing country in Africa, ranking 34 in the Corruption Perception Index of 2017.

Below are examples of corruption activities that tend to occur within the public sector, ranging from bribery to nepotism and the awarding of tender contracts without following supply chain procedures. Mashele (2009) gives examples of how corruption manifests itself in the public sector:

- A mayor of a local municipality influences the tender board to award a tender contract to his son without following the appropriate supply chain processes.
- Paying a bribe in order to get a service that is otherwise provided free of charge.
- Getting employed in a public institution because you are related to a senior government official who ignored the recruitment procedures of the institution.
- Demanding a kickback from a businessman in order to award him a contract.

In order to understand corruption, it is important to get an historical understanding of where corruption originates from. The origins of corruption in South Africa can be traced back to both colonial and apartheid periods. Under the apartheid regime, corruption had been practised and it had large-scale consequences on socio-economic dynamics within the country. Kgosimore (2001) found that white-collar crime activities served as a catalyst for corruption during the apartheid regime, with reckless spending and relentless theft of public funds becoming a norm under the National Party-led (NP) government. Lodge (1998) states that the Department of Native Affairs made a conscious effort during the 1950s to fill internal posts with NP supporters, and appoint them to strategic positions. Furthermore, Lodge adds that Boerebond affiliation in the Land Bank and agricultural cooperatives would consider political affiliation upon allocating funding for aspiring farmers. Acts of corruption such as the 1989 exchange rate fraud scandal, involving an estimated R650-million and implicating ministers and state departments, became a norm during President P.W. Botha's term in office (Van Vuuren, 2006). Moreover, Van Vuuren (2017) details how between 1977 - 1994 the apartheid government managed to procure weapons for the apartheid government through corrupt means, which totaled over a trillion rands.

There is enough literature confirming that corruption in sub-Saharan Africa started being practised as far back as the colonial period and colonisation has had a long-lasting legacy on Africa in various ways, including corruption. During the colonial periods, corrupt practices were a norm that has persisted after the end of the colonial period, throughout Africa as a whole. Uzodike (2009:6) states that:

"Beyond the embedded western collusion, there is also the matter of how corruption intercedes with and blinds many African leaders to the nature of their nations' interactions with western governments, especially the preference to go begging for "aid" rather than to insist on equitable trade as a basis for true partnership."

Moreover, Africa remains constrained as a continent as it grapples with issues such as patrimonialism, nepotism and ethnic allegiance which hinder the unity and progress of the continent (Akinola and Ndawonde, 2016:42). Dassah (2008) also argues that corruption in sub-Saharan Africa can further be traced back to colonial rule practices such as the implementation of tax policies like the hut tax and poll tax. This allowed for chiefs to keep some of the money collected as some form of motivation which could consequently result in kickbacks. Therefore, there is enough evidence proving that the modern-day corruption challenges that face many African countries are as a result of a colonial legacy which has not been adequately dealt with by post-colonial African governments.

Within the South African context, it is both a legacy of colonialism and apartheid which the new democratic government has battled to address. The arms deal scandal provides a high-profile example of the post-colonial and apartheid legacy exerting an influence on democratic South Africa. In 1999, then ANC Chief Whip, Tony Yengeni, was one of 33 alleged benefactors of a Mercedes-Benz 4x4 as part of the arms deal. South Africa's inexperienced politicians were essentially working hand-in-hand with their European counterparts, who were backed by corporates who wanted to ensure that they got arms deal contracts at all costs (Crawford-Browne, 2010). The arms deal scandal is considered an important chapter in South African recent history because it highlights the legacy of colonisation and apartheid that the democratic government had to deal with from a procurement corruption point of view. There is very little that can be done to justify corruption or plundering, although the factors and dynamics that may shape corruption activities in a country certainly cannot be ignored either. Ideally, it was hoped that challenges that the country had faced prior to 1994 would cease to exist, although of course this was not to be the case (Mangcu, 2009: 14).

A common act that has been seen to be popular, especially in low-income countries, is the usage of public resources for private gain. According to Pande (2007), although private gain is commonly

known to be monetary, it can also include the usage of a public resource such as a state vehicle or any other means, with the intention of using it to ensure or increase chances of re-election or pursue further political ambition. These can involve rent-seeking, election-rigging, ballot box stuffing by electoral officials, and deliberately mismanaging funds for monetary and non-monetary reasons (Adisa, 2013). All the above-mentioned acts are typical examples of public corruption that can be found throughout Africa. In developing countries, the state plays a crucial role in the governance of the country through rules and regulations. Some of these rules may be in the form of mining licences and the issuing of travel documents, as well as trading permits for local and foreign traders (Tanzi, 2002:17). Due to the nature of public governance and the bureaucratic structures in place, political corruption is likely to implicate politicians before anyone else. However, it should be noted that bureaucrats can also be implicated in acts of corruption and maladministration.

Political corruption can also, in turn, have a direct effect on public institutions within the state. Tanzi (2002:27) points out that, through public corruption, opportunities involving procurement are given to the politically-connected and not necessarily to those who are qualified or capacitated to do the job. Furthermore, in some instances, projects involving taxpayers' money are carried out specifically to provide opportunities for the politically-connected, otherwise an opportunity of this nature would cease to exist. The use of procurement to enrich the politically-connected in South Africa is a phenomenon that has been occurring over a sustained period of time. In a much-discussed example, the Public Protector's report on "State of Capture" (2016) implicated former Eskom Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Brian Molefe, in making a prepayment of R600 million to Gupta-linked Company, Tageta, for coal which was yet to be supplied (Madonsela, 2016). There have been a few more instances where bureaucrats and technocrats of state-owned enterprises (SOEs) have been implicated in corruption and acts of maladministration. The significance of this example is that it implicates both political employees and skilled bureaucrats who are not necessarily politically deployed, but are rather employed based on their area of expertise and are then involved in corrupt activities through procurement.

Generally, in most contemporary political systems, there has been a conscious effort to eradicate partisan influence in the bureaucratic environment in the public sector. In order to limit the excessive influence of patronage politics, a merit system has been introduced to ensure that the

best administrators, technocrats and bureaucrats are appointed, regardless of political affiliation, and, more importantly, regardless of political regime (Peters, 1989: 174). In line with this approach, public sector recruitment in South Africa is guided by the Public Service Act (No. 103 of 1994) which states the following in Section 11:

- “(1) in the making of appointments and the filling of posts in the public service, due regard shall be had to equality and the other democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution.
- (2) In the making of any appointment in terms of Section 9 in the public service -
 - (a) All persons who applied and qualify for the appointment concerned shall be considered; and
 - (b) the evaluation of persons shall be based on training, skills, competence, knowledge and the need to redress, in accordance with the Employment Equity Act 1998 (Act 55 of 1998), the imbalances of the past to achieve a public service broadly representative of the South African people, including representation according to race, gender and disability.”

Furthermore, with respect to the appointment of Head of Departments (HODs), the Public Service Act further states that public sector employment has to be in accordance with the transformation and equity targets of each department, as is also stipulated by the Employment Equity Act (EEA, No. 55 of 1998). The relationship between politically-appointed officials and Public Service Act appointed officials is of utmost importance. An example of such a relationship could be witnessed in the Department of Social Development as an aftermath of the procurement contract involving private companies and the payment of social grants. Upon resigning as Director General of the Department of Social Development in March 2017, Zane Dangor cited a broken relationship between himself and Minister Bathabile Dlamini, especially over the handling of the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) contracts for the distribution of social grants (Bendile, 2017).

Corruption occurs in all sectors of government: local, provincial and national government have all battled with corruption. There are various factors behind acts of corruption, including greed, political ambition, poor remuneration for public officials, and, in some instances, patronage politics. An act of corruption is more about calculation than passion; it involves a cost-benefit analysis for all parties concerned and the politician in position of authority usually has the sole

discretion to make certain decisions (Azfar, Lee and Swammy, 2001). Moreover, it is observed by Chipkin and Swilling (2018:38) that through rent-seeking, certain industries are captured by individuals who wield their political power to use these industries for their own private gain. In terms of being able to create and sustain democracy in protecting institutions, countries with a higher income may have enough resources at their disposal to create and maintain institutions to guard against corruption, while other income-related factors such as urbanisation, schooling levels, and access to media are often associated with higher development and less tolerance to corruption (Forson et al., 2016).

Institutions such as an independent judiciary, a sound executive and a functioning legislature which would be able to hold the executive to account are seen as important. Weakened institutions, which would otherwise have been able to ensure that there is fairness in employment and other opportunities, leave a gaping hole because they are expected to protect the least well-off citizen from the most powerful. Once this protection ceases to exist, corruption sets in and becomes difficult to regulate (Morara, 1992). In most cases, an act of corruption involves a public official in collaboration with a private partner. The relationship between business and government can be a corruption-enabler if not managed well. This is due to the crucial role that both business and government play in overseeing the creation of economic opportunities enabling economic growth in the country and the implementing of relevant policy. The official uses office resources to enable the private partner to unduly benefit himself and the private client for private gain that otherwise would not have been possible without the use of state resources (Treisman, 2000:405). This may involve several acts or omissions or manipulation of rules and regulations in order to enable the corruption benefactor to commit the act, therefore eliminating the possibility of accountability.

It is also worth noting that acts of corruption tend not to occur in isolation. A corrupted system involving both government and business is likely to remain corrupt unless stringent measures are put in place and it is likely to involve key role players from both business and government. The importance of such a ruling was not only important for the public protector but also for democracy as a whole, as it reaffirmed the country's commitment to a strong democracy with strong institutions. Other Chapter nine institutions such as the Independent Electoral Commission, the South African Human Rights Commission, the Commission for the Promotion and Protection of

the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities, the Commission for Gender Equality and the Auditor General all play an important role in the protection of our democracy, and they are seen as the cornerstone of South Africa's democracy (Sithebe, 2014). In low-income countries, weaker institutions are a commonality and, therefore, corruption is seen to be likely to occur and the strengthening of such institutions can only yield positive outcomes for young democracies such as South Africa.

2.3. How Does Corruption Work in South Africa?

In order to understand how corruption works, one needs to understand how it impacts on the country's economic performance. Lawal (2007) cites corruption in Africa as the main reason for the socio-economic development challenges that continue to face the continent. Corroborating this, Gyimah-Brempong (2002:185:186) states that:

“I find that corruption has a negative and statistically significant effect on the growth rate of income in African countries, both directly and indirectly. A one-point increase in corruption decreases the growth rates of GDP by between 0.75 and 0.9 percentage points per year and of per capita income growth rate by between 0.39 and 0.41 percentage points per year, respectively.”

Furthermore, Africa appears to be the least capacitated continent to deal with corruption, mainly due to high levels of unemployment and poverty. Consequently, the élite few have benefited handsomely from the spoils of corruption (Tella, 2013:49). As a result of this, corruption continues to be viewed as being an inherent part of African politics and culture. While corruption is not only unique to Africa and can be traced back to the period of colonisation, African governments continue to struggle with the problem of corruption within the public service. As Orjule (2014) notes, with the rise of identity politics in democracies, the notion that certain groups of people or tribes have benefited from acts of corruption has also become more prevalent. Therefore, a culture of corruption manifested itself in African civil services, which resulted in dodgy appointments of friends and of those who come from the village of a certain power-holder (Timamy, 2005). Former African leaders are believed to have benefited from corrupt activities and looted the state of billions of dollars. Former Nigerian President, General Sani Abacha, is believed to have looted close to US \$4 billion dollars during his term of office between 1993 and 1998, while former leader of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mobutu Sese Seko, is believed to have got away with an

estimated US \$4-\$6 billion (Szeftel, 2007). Corruption in Africa has occurred in a period where most African countries had begun their journey as democratic states. Rock (2008) argues that a democratic state is vulnerable to corruption, due to the corruptibility of government officials and the likelihood of them collaborating with external rent-seekers for access to resources. In addition, Mondlane, Claudio and Khan (2016:348) state that the “quality of democracy or, more specifically, the status of democratic governance, relates to governing arrangements in a country with regard to representativeness, accountability and transparency, and the frequency and integrity of electoral arrangements.”

There is an acknowledgment that African governments as a whole need to attend to the challenges of corruption within bureaucracies which will, in turn, improve service delivery and make for an efficient state (Hope Sr., 2008). Corruption in southern Africa has continued to persist and, according to Prinsloo and Naudee (2000:46), it remains the rule rather than the exception. This, of course, can also be seen in South Africa, where the country has continued to be beleaguered by corruption scandals and issues of maladministration involving state departments and SOEs. Venter (2015:20) maintains that institutions such as Eskom, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) and the Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa (PRASA) have all seen some form of decay in their functioning. During 2017, PRASA had a R2.6 billion locomotive tender contract set aside by the High Court, leading to PRASA CEO, Popo Molefe, asserting that “it is very important that all of us as South Africans, civil society, government and state entities should confront corruption to ensure resources allocated to benefit the poor are deployed in a manner that achieves its objective” (Jadoo, 2017).

Corruption within government has an adverse effect on state efficiency and negatively affects the state’s ability to render its services to the people. Tooley and Mahoai (2007) argue that acts of corruption within public service delay, disrupt and hinder growth and development. This directly affects poor citizens, because it denies them access to resources that would assist in improving their quality of life. Moreover, Ruhiiga (2009) argues that an act of bribery can have a detrimental effect on service delivery in the sense that it introduces a cost for obtaining a service that would otherwise have been freely provided. This denies some citizens the privilege of accessing the service because of an inability to pay the bribe. It is important to note that, even though the country

is approaching twenty-five years of democratic rule, there are still citizens living without basic shelter, running water and electricity, as well as without safe and affordable transport. Acts of corruption within respective departments have played a role in the slow and inefficient provision of services to South Africans (Sebaka and Sebola, 2014:747). In his work on public governance, Milner-Smyth (2017) states that corruption erodes state institutions by promoting a lack of confidence in the state. This could result in behavioural responses such as a growing unwillingness to pay taxes, which in turn would reduce the fiscal resources available to government to further invest in service delivery.

2.3.1 Patronage Politics

Patronage politics in South Africa has been on the increase, in particular through the creation of networks that are operating based on political connections in order to access state resources (Labuschagne, 2017:57). Patronage politics occurs when private and public relationships are used to access public resources and, if available, to maintain political power to further expand the power networks that would have been created as a result (Friedman, 2014). The ruling African National Congress has openly admitted that patronage, which in most cases leads to corruption, is rife within the party, and this has led to decay and reduced the capacity of government to adequately provide for the needs of the public (Beresford, 2015:3). Friedman further points out that economic exclusion may lead to patronage politics which is seen as a fast route towards economic emancipation, as the formal economy is not necessarily friendly to the previously excluded majority. A high court ruling in 2005 found that businessman Shabir Shaik had a generally corrupt relationship with then deputy president, Jacob Zuma (Van Vuuren, 2014). Although former President Zuma, who was Deputy President at the time, was not found guilty of any act of corruption, it could be seen as an indication of patronage politics at play. Separating the state and the political party is crucial in ensuring that there is limited patronage politics. Gumede (2017:33-34) states that political parties in Africa attempt to amend their democratic constitutions to suit short-term political interests, therefore weakening institutions and increasing the likelihood of patronage politics. This may be due to the fact that political party interests are likely to be seen to take precedence over the country's interests. It is therefore important to ensure that there is a clear distinction between the two.

2.3.2 Cadre Deployment

Another extension of the relationship between the state and the political party can be seen in cadre deployment in governance. Cadre deployment, according to Tshishonga (2014), is a group of small people who are trained to function in a particular unit; it can be military, political or in business as well, but they can be deployed to serve anywhere else if the party so decides to do so, regardless of skills and competence. It is worth noting that debates around cadre deployment are not unique to South Africa, but are a topic of general discussion in other democracies across the world. Thebe (2017a: 125) argues that cadre deployment practices in countries such as Uganda, Greece and Spain have led to a collapse of service delivery and an economic crisis, due to the lack of accountability often associated with cadre deployment.

In South Africa, the ruling party has argued that cadre deployment as a policy will exist in all areas of government, and was intended to ensure that party loyalists would be given an opportunity to serve in key positions. This, in turn, would ensure that the political ideology of the party would be passed through the ranks of all the respective spheres of government (Sebeka and Sebola, 2014). The deployment of ANC cadres into key positions of governance became common post-1994 and was used to accelerate the process of government transition post-1994 government. Then, as now, most senior government officials are also key position holders within the ruling party (Twala, 2014). General Bheki Cele (National Minister of Police), Angie Motshekga (Minister of Basic Education), and Aaron Motsoaledi (National Minister of Health) are some of the ANC National Executive Committee (NEC) members who also hold key positions within government. Lack of governmental accountability has the potential to result from cadre deployment. This is because party leadership structures may have enormous influence over the state, with the consequence being that relatively inexperienced candidates end up occupying key positions within government (Thebe, 2017b:5). According to Picard (2005:267), during the political transition from the apartheid government to the Government of National Unity (GNU), there may have been a lack of skilled bureaucratic personnel to cater for the needs of the entire nation. As a result of this, patronage politics manifested itself. In addition, many of the skilled bureaucrats available were not loyal to the project of African nationalism.

2.3.3 Black Economic Empowerment, Affirmative Action and vulnerability to corruption in the public sector

The public sphere can be defined as a web of different ideas, organisations, rules and cultural everyday behaviours which are commonly held by people - in this case, public servants through their work in public institutions (Bennington and Moore, 2011:43). Upon becoming a democracy, and in order to address the socio-economic injustices of the past, the ANC-led national government introduced programmes intending to bring about socio-economic redress. This was, of course, going to be the first task in order to address the legacy of apartheid, which was configured to openly promote economic advantage among the minority and deprive the majority of economic opportunity.

Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) aimed to redistribute wealth to the black majority and ensure economic participation of all citizens within the South African economy (Shava, 2016:161). The BEE Act (2003, 2013) applied to the public sector, including local, provincial and national governments as well as SOEs and other organs of state, such as Chapter 9 and 10 Institutions (Jacobs, 2007). The act was regarded as the critical component of a broader programme of transformation adopted by the ANC government to fast-track public sector reform. Furthermore, BEE fitted well with the Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR, 1996) which was the macroeconomic policy framework advocated to ensure the redistribution of wealth, foster economic growth and encourage the emergence of a black middle class which would, in turn, create opportunities for future generations (Jacobs, 2002:53). Opportunities would be given to historically-disadvantaged individuals to engage in business transactions with the state, and be able to develop a set of skills which would benefit them going forward. Over time, experiences with the BEE framework in practice led to the introduction of certain amendments to BEE policy in order to ensure that the policy was able to produce the best possible outcomes from a legislative standpoint. As a result, the BEE legislation has been amended several times and is now referred to as Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE, Act 46 of 2013). The amendments to BEE legislation was initially made with the intention of accelerating black empowerment and substantial control of the economy (Marais, 2011:141).

One of the most common criticisms levelled at the BEE policy is that it was perceived to be only benefiting the connected few within the ruling party and creating so-called "BEElionaires" with well-established ANC ties. A new élite class consisting of BEE benefactors therefore emerged (Schneiderman, 2009). Corruption within the public sector has led to the scrutiny of BEE deals. Glazier (2007) points out that a lack of integrity, especially in procurement, has created distrust between BEE benefactors and the state. Furthermore, businesses which were supposed to benefit from such transactions have not benefited because the opportunities have been limited to the politically-connected. COSATU and SACP, which are both affiliates of the ruling party, criticised the results of BEE transactions which favoured the rich, while the conditions of the poor were not improving (Tangri and Southall, 2008). Transactions of this type have also exacerbated the challenge posed by economic inequality in South African society. The inability to disassociate BEE transactions with political party connections has been the main reason it has been seen to be failing to achieve its goals. The element of corruption that has continued to influence the governance landscape has inevitably had a bearing on BEE transactions related to public institutions as well, including the purchasing of infrastructure and service provisions headed by such institutions.

Legislatively, Affirmative Action (AA) is one of the government's strategies to address historical injustices in the workplace by ensuring the following through the Employment Equity Act of 1998:

- a. Promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and
- b. Implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce (Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, s.2).

Domestically, AA has always been viewed as a means of addressing previous challenges of inequality in the workplace. This may require employers in both the private and the public sector, including in national, provincial and local governments to use AA and ensure a nationally representative employment workforce (Human, 1993:10). Furthermore, from a public sector standpoint, the government of South Africa faced a broad variety of issues upon becoming a

democratically-elected government, including that of inequality in the workplace and transformation. Milne (2009) states that some of the issues faced were around transformation of the national government bureaucracy, because at the time of the transition to democracy it included a huge proportion of male Afrikaners in senior positions. Most non-whites were at lower to middle occupational levels, and the separate administrations for whites, blacks, coloureds and Indians needed to be changed into a unitary bureaucratic system in order to create opportunity and cater for the needs of all South Africans.

The AA policy has been able to address the problem of exclusion, especially in public sector employment. This has been done through the policy's ability to effectively close gaps that were created by discriminatory laws, which denied South Africans employment opportunities based on their race, gender and disability (Sebola, 2009: 1109). In addition, Twala (2004:144) notes that the historical disadvantages created by the apartheid government can be readdressed by AA through reinvestment and creation of job opportunities and wages which are more inclusive and uplifting of those who were historically excluded. However, AA in South Africa has provoked debate around whether it represents an adequate policy framework for bringing about the level of transformation required in the labour market. AA is a constitutionally-enshrined legal framework which is acknowledged as an important tool towards ending inequality in South Africa (McGregor, 2003:165). In most discussions about AA, there seems to be a consensus around the need for it, yet there seems to be fundamental disagreement about the preferred way in which the policy should be implemented (Coetzee and Bezuidenhout, 2011). It should also be pointed out that there are some previously-advantaged South Africans who have critiqued AA based on its perceived overlooking of merit and prioritising of race and gender (leading to claims of reverse racism). Maluleka (1996: 309) addresses the confusion around AA by arguing that White South Africans who have been privileged for a long period of time rebel against AA because they see it as a potential threat to their fortune and prosperity.

Acts of corruption in the public service involving AA have occurred, and this has become one of the predominant criticisms against AA from a governance standpoint. Manipulation of AA policy and using it to justify irregular appointments of public officials has become a particular challenge. The misuse and deviation from public sector policies such as AA are seen as a quick route towards

achieving political or even economic ambitions (Bruce, 2014). It is argued that corruption in the public sector has become increasingly widespread and appointments which could not be justified on merit could easily be justified as an AA employment (Picard, 2005:167). In terms of the implementation of AA, Van Zyl and Lazenby (2002) suggest that unethical behaviour can manifest itself in the implementation of the policy, given the level of responsibility placed on bureaucrats who are tasked with ensuring BEE compliance. Much like BEE, AA has also faced similar criticisms of being vulnerable to corruption and unethical acts, especially in the public service.

2.4 Understanding the Case Study

The idea of service delivery being an essential part of governance in South Africa emanates from the material and social inequalities which have resulted from policies and practices during colonial, segregationist and apartheid regimes. With the majority of South African citizens being neglected by the apartheid government, providing adequate access to, and standards of, service delivery became a part of the ANC government's policy. Service delivery objectives were to be carried out through public service programmes and initiatives. Theunissen (1998:111) defines public service as a civil component of the state's management and rendering of public administrative duties. Furthermore, public service is made up of all those who are employed by the government and other public sector institutions under the provisions of the Public Services Act of 1994.

The South African government structure is made up of three tiers: namely national, provincial and local government structures. National government is responsible for planning and drafting policy, provincial government is responsible for provincial planning and other matters of governance within the province, while local government is responsible for functioning of each local municipality, including municipal roads and street trading (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003: 15). Furthermore, the South African constitution stipulates that all three spheres of government are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated (The South African Constitution, 1996). The South African government has drafted various legislations such as the Local Government Municipal Structures Act of 1998, the Local Government Municipal Systems Act of 2000 and the Municipal Financial Management Act of 2003 in order to strengthen local municipalities (Asha, 2014). According to Tshishonga and Mafema (2010:562), decentralisation of the three spheres of government was made to ensure the fast-tracking of services and people-

centred governance. Moreover, the three spheres all work towards one goal, which is to provide quality service delivery to the citizens of South Africa.

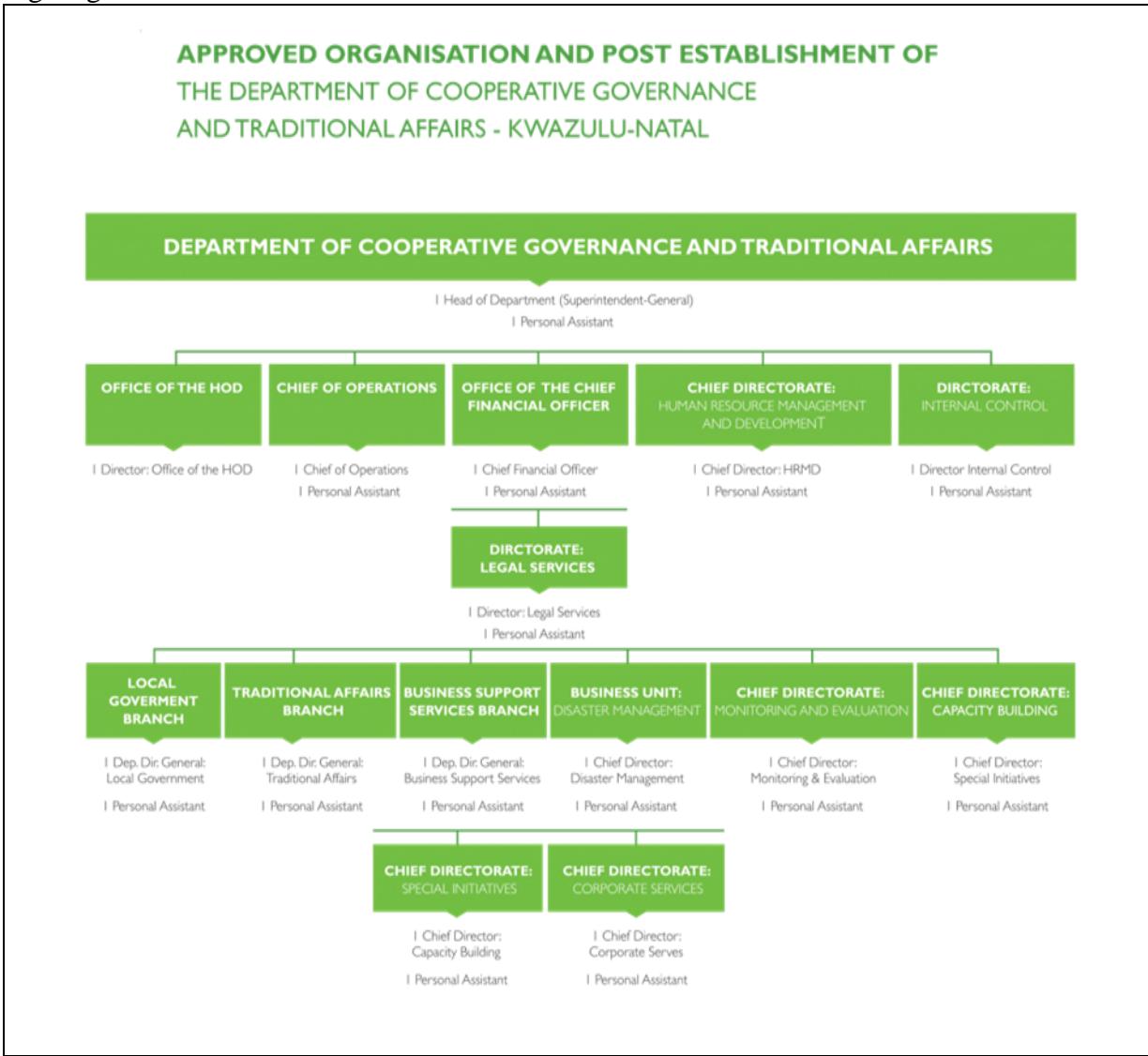
The Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) is responsible for overseeing the relationship between the three structures of government. The department's mission is to develop policy and legislation in order to promote the importance of integration in government's development programmes and service delivery (see www.cogta.gov.za). Each of the nine South African provinces have a CoGTA department for provincial planning, intergovernmental relations in the province and to oversee the functioning of municipalities. Furthermore, the local government councillor handbook, drafted by CoGTA in 2016, outlines the importance of good governance as the ability of a municipality to make decisions, strengthen accountability and communicate with the public (KwaZulu-Natal Department of CoGTA, 2011:16). This point is further emphasised by Nealer and Raga (2007:174), who state that an environment must be created which would make efficient service delivery possible, especially in the local government sphere.

Challenges such as coordination, poor financial skills resulting in fraud and corruption, and conflict between the administrative and political side have negatively affected government's ability to provide service delivery (Department of CoGTA, 2009). According to Lavhelani and Ndebele (2017:341-342), service delivery challenges facing local government come as a result of corruption and lack of public trust, which is also accompanied by frustration due to poor governance in local governance. Furthermore, the rise of 'quiet corruption', especially in local government, is evident. Basheka and Mubangizi (2012: 644) define quiet corruption as failure by the public servants to deliver goods and services. This also involves absenteeism and bending of rules for personal gain. Moreover, the issues of political interference in supply chain processes, especially in local government, has been a problem widely acknowledged across the board. The Public Service Commission report of 2011, as cited by Ramutsheli and Van Rensburg (2015:10), states that business practices within local government do not promote ethical practices, especially during recruitment processes, which leaves room for acts of nepotism and favouritism. These are some of the challenges local government faces. However, it should be observed that these challenges are not unique to local government.

2.4.1 Procurement in KwaZulu-Natal Provincial government and the centrality of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs

The Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs is one of fourteen provincial departments in KwaZulu-Natal. At the time of preparing the dissertation, the department was led by Member of Executive Council (MEC), Mrs. Nomusa Dube-Ncube, and Mr Thando Tubane, who serves as the acting HOD.

Figure 2.1. KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs organogram.



Note: Organogram accessed from the department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs website (<http://www.kzncopta.gov.za/organogram/>).

In the 2017/18 financial year, KZN CoGTA was allocated R1.4 billion from a total provincial budget of R115 billion, therefore constituting 1.4% of the overall budget (Scott, 2017). A huge part of the budget allocation was used for the department's infrastructure development projects and capacity development. Procurement and recruitment play a crucial role in governance and they have been earmarked as the two most crucial aspects of governance. As a result of this, the two units occupy a strategic position in ensuring adequate service delivery to KZN communities and the provision of adequate opportunities for historically-disadvantaged businessmen/women to engage and conduct business with the provincial government. This involves ensuring that at least 30% of projects are given to small, emerging businesses.

Challenges in procurement may involve issues surrounding the legality and binding of contracts. As stated by Roos and Harpe (2008), South African tenders are seen as an administrative process rather than a legal one, and once a tender has been awarded, it then becomes a contractual issue between both the parties involved. Furthermore, non-compliance with regulations and payments of service providers has also been noted as a challenge that continues to exist in the spaces of procurement. Legislatively, the Provincial Treasury earmarked the following issues as being problematic in public procurement, including corruption, late payment of service providers and not following of the PFMA regulations. Section 38 (1)(f) of the PFMA requires accounting officers (AOs) to settle all contractual obligations and pay all money owing, including intergovernmental claims, within the prescribed or agreed period. According to Peyper (2016), the South African national government owed a total of R2.2 billion totalling over 23 000 payments to service providers over the 2015/2016 financial year. While the Public Service Commission Report of 2014 reported that lack of payments was harming small business, it also pointed out that late payments are caused by various reasons, some of them including a lack of correct paperwork in invoices from the service providers, and the departments not doing an adequate job of monitoring the payment of invoices (Public Service Commission, 2014).

In 2015, Advocate Siza Mthethwa from the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury identified the following challenges facing supply chain management in the province: irregular expenditure due to non-compliance of supply chain management regulations, poor planning, low skill level of

supply chain management officers, not enough periodical contracts, and poor usage of infrastructure grants which comes as a result of not following supply chain management regulations (Mthethwa, 2015). Bribery has also been identified as an issue in the processing of payments to service providers by supply chain officials in government. Timm (2013) states that government officials at times refuse to process payments to service providers until they are given a bribe to do so. The most pressing issue with regard to procurement, however, is that of corruption. Williams and Quinot (2007) state that regulating corruption is a goal that procurement regulation ought to strive for, so as to ensure that contracts are awarded to the most economically viable, and avoid the possibility of tenders being awarded for any other reason other than those prescribed by the PFMA. In the 2013/14 financial year, South African national government spent approximately R500 billion on goods, services and construction, but an estimated R30 billion of this amount was lost to acts of corruption (Gedye, 2015). Wasteful expenditure, which can be defined as expenditure that could have been avoided had due care been taken (Auditor General, 2012), is also a recurring problem in supply chain spending. The expenditure incurred by KZN departments was highlighted by the Auditor General, and CoGTA along with other departments accounted for the largest wasteful expenditure, amounting to R89 million or approximately 90% of wasteful expenditure incurred in the 2011-2012 financial year (Auditor-General South Africa, 2013).

2.4.2 Recruitment in KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government with a focus on KZN CoGTA

The public sector plays an important role in the economy, due to the high number of workers it employs. As National Treasury has indicated:

“In June 2013, 1.96 million people were employed by the sector, accounting for 10.6 percent of the labour force and 14.3 percent of the employed population. Of total state employment, national government employs 23.0 percent, provinces employ 55.7 percent, local government employs 13.9 percent and other public institutions employ 7.3 percent (National Treasury, 2014). In light of this, compensation becomes an important factor in government due to its implications on the national fiscus.”

Compensation of employees is defined by Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) as “The total remuneration, in cash or in kind, payable to a government employee in return for work done during

the accounting period, except work connected with own account capital formation. It includes both wages and salaries and social contributions" (Statistics South Africa, 2016). The government wage bill has increased significantly over the past few years. The three-year multi-term wage bill signed in 2018 means that there will be an additional R30 billion onto the budget for the period of the 2018/19 to the 2020/21 financial year (Khumalo, 2018). However, it should be noted that the budget allocation is also inclusive of other expenses such as facilities, consultants and communication costs. Public service bureaucracy has been able to move away from the hierarchical rigged system that was typically found under the apartheid government, with the post-apartheid system demonstrating both flexibility and diversity in key leadership positions (Omotoye and Malan, 2011). It is generally accepted that in both developing and developed countries, an efficient public service is crucial. As a result of this, Okeke-Uzodike and Subban (2015:27) observe that human resources divisions have become one of the most paramount units in order to ensure good governance and, by extension, efficient service delivery. In saying that, Ekwoaba, Anyim and Anthony (2015) assert that it is very important that the legal and fair system is used for recruitment in order to grant every candidate an opportunity, and ensure that all potential candidates are treated fairly by the recruitment process. A poorly-planned recruitment process can be detrimental because it may cost the department or organisation the best available talent and deprive candidates of an opportunity they would otherwise have had access to. As a result, sub-optimal recruitment processes may give rise to complaints, disputes and, in some instances, legal actions taken against the department by an aggrieved candidate (Public Service Commission, 2007).

It is also acknowledged that the process of recruitment can be strenuous financially and it is important that financial measures are put in place to ensure that the process of recruitment goes as smoothly as possible and the best candidate is offered the job, taking into account AA and EE considerations. Due to the secure nature of public sector employment and the relevant legislation in place to protect the rights of workers, public sector employment is seen as both the most ideal job to have and a relatively undemanding one, due to the laws protecting the labourer and the attractive remuneration packages with a range of benefits.

Acts of corruption in the public service regarding the recruitment of personnel can have a negative impact on how the public views the public sector. In order to make for an efficient state, adequate resource allocation towards human resources is important, although a decline in this allocation has been evident, especially in African governments. Programmes created to address skills shortages, create employment and ensure efficient service delivery, such as the Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP), internship programmes, and general public sector vacancies, may not be trusted by the public to provide an equal opportunity to every candidate and eventually accomplish its goals. This view is also addressed by Majam (2005), who states that the public view government as corrupt and incompetent, resulting in human resources practitioners being trapped in a bureaucratic system that does not necessarily produce the best possible outcomes to advance service delivery. In addition, a negative attitude towards public servants is also shared by the so-called ‘old guard’, who have not embraced favourable attitudes towards AA and transformation of the public sector, and view such initiatives merely as a form of reverse racism (Maphunye, 2001). Amusan (2016) further suggests that poor implementation of policy and manipulation of programmes, which have far-reaching consequences for outcomes, also cannot be downplayed. Evans and Rauch (1999) propose that a meritocratic approach should be used for recruiting public sector officials, because it ensures that there is minimal incompetence, and relations with other bureaucrats are likely to be founded on mutual respect when patronage is minimised or eliminated. Other factors informing negative attitudes include the perceived inability to get a fair opportunity for employment, and preconceived beliefs that advertised opportunities are already reserved for the politically-connected or subject to nepotistic decision-making.

Attempts to create opportunities of employment targeting youth have been made. A study conducted by Mthembu and Govender (2015) in KZN revealed that 90% of participants supported the youth wage subsidy, with one of the leading reasons being the view that it would reduce unemployment and address socio-economic challenges such as crime. Such innovations are aimed at reducing socio-economic challenges that face the youth such as unemployment and crime. Moreover, the National Skills Development Act was created to ensure an adequate development of skills through the creation of work-based programmes such as internships and learnerships, whilst also addressing the socio-economic challenges that come as a result of youth unemployment.

Internship programmes also provide training for the incumbent interns who are likely to be public servants in the foreseeable future. Chelechele (2009:47) states that it is very important to train public servants adequately, because this plays a crucial role in ensuring that public servants are equipped with the necessary skills and competencies which enable them to deliver efficient service. Furthermore, Kroukamp (2007) states that the training would enable government not only to provide public servants and politicians with the adequate skills-set which would enable them to ensure efficient service delivery, but it would also enable them to foster institutional transformation of government as a whole. This is important, because transformation in South Africa goes beyond just economic and legislative reforms, but is also about how people interact with each other for the betterment of society as a whole (Abbott, Goosen and Coetzee, 2013). The public sector can therefore play an important role in ensuring that transformation occurs on a range of fronts.

It is also worth noting that the advert relating to the Internships is exclusively for those aged 18-35 years, meaning they are targeting the youth. Furthermore, youth unemployment in the province of KwaZulu-Natal as of 2018's first quarter was at 22% (Statistics South Africa, 2018:7). Cilliers and Aucoin (2016) argue that South Africa is facing a youth unemployment crisis, with 52% of the youth aged between 15-24% years reporting that they are unemployed. Youth unemployment continued to be a challenge during former President Zuma's administration, and is likely to be a critical issue that the administration will have to grapple with. It should nonetheless be noted that high levels of youth unemployment have a longstanding history in the South African context, with studies in the 1990s already painting a bleak scenario for the future of young citizens (Aardt, 2012). As a result of the youth's commitment to dismantling the apartheid system, political instability and the effects of these on the quality of education accessed, the employment prospects for many young South Africans in the years following the 1994 transition was not especially encouraging. The youth unemployment rate has reached alarming levels, and unemployment among both 15-24 year-olds and 24-25 year-olds has increased in every province except the Northern Cape (Menon, 2017).

The Community Work Programme (CWP) is a community-driven government programme based in the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA). The CWP has over the years been able to establish 10 key strategic partnerships in order to enhance the quality of work outputs and sustain projects initiatives. However, implementing agents enter into a number of informal partnerships or cooperation arrangements in implementing various initiatives that contribute to useful work, since work activities cut across different sectors. The CWP is currently being implemented in 208 sites covering a total of 201 municipalities countrywide. It is envisaged that by the end of the 2018/19 financial year, the programme would have been extended to cover every municipality in the country. For more information regarding the CWP, visit the national department of CoGTA (<http://www.cogta.gov.za/?p=1227>). The KwaZulu-Natal provincial CoGTA department also has a CWP and employs more than 30 000 beneficiaries from over 25 KZN municipalities. It is regarded as a safety net and not as an employment solution.

For more information regarding the CWP, visit the KZN department of CoGTA. (<http://www.kzncogta.gov.za/community-work-programme-cwp/>) These are some of the programmes that the Department of Cooperative Government and Traditional Affairs promotes as a means of addressing service delivery backlogs and challenges and ensuring the quality of services whilst improving the lives of the employees who are working on the programme.

2.5 Conclusion

Chapter Two of this dissertation focuses on various themes related to the research topic. A definition of corruption, coupled with an understanding of it, is provided for, which includes examples of how acts of corruption manifest themselves in the public sector. A wide body of literature on recruitment, procurement, affirmative action, employment equity, black economic empowerment and the structure of the South African government is also visited in this chapter. Furthermore, the neopatrimonialism theory is further discussed at length in this section, which is done to show how this theoretical framework applies to this particular research topic.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research methodology constitutes an integral part of any academic study, as it informs the appropriate approach that the researcher uses to answer the questions being investigated in a specific context and in accordance with available financial and human resources. As noted by Sarantakos (1998:15), social-based research depends on the research methodology, coupled with the research aims, that is the determining factor as to whether the research study is feasible or not. As Maxwell (2005:16) suggests, there are three different kinds of goals for initiating a research study: namely, personal goals, scholarly goals and practical goals. Being able to decide on an appropriate time to conduct research relative to ongoing and influencing factors around the subject of interest is also quite important (Lewis, 2003:53). For the purposes of this study, a case study research method is adopted, accompanied by the adoption of a mixed-methods research design. The researcher is of the view that the timing of this research is appropriate, given the current socio-economic context and challenges that the province and the country faces. Furthermore, the goal of the research being undertaken by the researcher is scholarly in character, informed as it is by clearly-defined research objectives and questions that were outlined in the introductory chapter to this dissertation. This chapter will describe the research methodology adopted, including the sample description, data collection methods, ethical considerations and the limitations of the study.

According to Thomas (2009:70), research design is the plan for the research; it has to consider the researcher's plans, objectives and the context in which the research is going to be designed. Dane (1990:5) describes exploratory research as the process undertaken to establish a link between two different phenomena and their respective outcomes. Furthermore, exploratory research arguably requires more effort in the sense that it compels the researcher to engage in critical, self-reflective thinking and engagement with the topic that goes far beyond the scope of desktop research (Reiter, 2013). The significance of an exploratory study is that it is able to explore new research avenues, identify where problems are likely to manifest themselves, and determine other relevant factors that could play a role in the emergence of these problems (van Wyk, 2017).

3.2 Mixed-Methods Design

There are two main types of research methodologies that can be found in academic studies, specifically qualitative and quantitative research. Qualitative research, according to Kalof, Dan and Dietz (2008:79), seeks to understand a phenomenon from the perspective of the people who are subjected to it. This may be done through qualitative data collection methods, such as interviews and case studies. Qualitative research has traditionally been viewed as a preferred exploratory method to be adopted during the initial stages of a research undertaking, as an empirical input into the broader research design process. However, over the last two decades there has been increasing recognition of the potential of qualitative research during the post-research design phase, because it enables the researcher to interpret the findings of the research without the need to call on quantitative research (Bauer and Gaskell, 2000:10). However, it must be noted that quantitative research methods are an end in themselves and they do not necessarily need to be contingent on qualitative research. In addition, quantitative research seeks to offer a more numerical approach towards research, more especially when it comes to the usage of numerical data. For the purposes of the research presented in this dissertation, the researcher adopted a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. This choice of a mixed-methods approach was informed by the particular type of research being conducted by the researcher. As a result, quantitative methods such as survey questionnaires were adopted and combined with qualitative methods in the form of in-depth and unstructured interviews. Moreover, the researcher relies on secondary-based survey data such as corruption prevalence.

As noted earlier, mixed-methods research in social sciences has become more common. Ngulube, Mokwatalo and Ndwendwe (2009) state that mixed-method research has been practised in disciplines such as education, health, library and information sciences since the 1960s, and has become more widespread in the social sciences since the early- to mid-2000s. The impetus for mixed research was a mounting realisation among researchers that both qualitative and quantitative research methods were important in answering their research questions (Johnson et al., 2007: 113). Similarly, Hesse-Biber (2010:15) points out that mixed-methods research design is favoured due to its ability to incorporate a qualitative approach into a primarily quantitative study, or a quantitative approach into a primarily qualitative approach. Nonetheless, conducting mixed-methods research can be time-consuming, due to the need to collect and analyse at least two separate forms of data, which requires capacity, skill and more resources (McKim, 2017).

When embarking on mixed-methods data analysis, the researcher must be mindful of the fundamentals of conducting mixed-methods research analysis. Additionally, a mixed-methods analysis involves the use of qualitative and quantitative analyses that are used simultaneously or sequentially (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005:4). Furthermore, the data analysis stage of research can either aid or harm a research study; however, if a thorough analysis has been done by the researcher, it can ensure accurate findings and quality research output. The more consistent and integrated the quantitative and qualitative analyses are, the more consistent the outcomes of the analyses will be. A failure to do this may result in interpretive inconsistency (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009:14). The adoption of a qualitative dominant mixed-research design benefits a research project in that it provides qualitative ideas while also offering access to quantitative data (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2011:121). According to Swartout (2014), good mixed-data analysis requires that both types of data are collected through accepted data collection methods and analysed using sophisticated data analysis. Moreover, the integration of both forms of data is done to enable a broader understanding of the research as a whole. This process is regarded as a critical part of the data analysis, as it usually constitutes the last stage of analysis (Dos Santos et al., 2017:6).

In this dissertation, the researcher will employ a mixed-methods analysis because this will allow for deeper insights to be inferred from the quantitative and qualitative modes of data that were collected. It is worth noting that, for all their differences, there are broad similarities between qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques. The main similarity is that both types of analysis fundamentally involve researchers using empirical evidence to reach a conclusion, based on a thorough analysis of the data and reasoning (Neuman, 2007:508). Driscoll et al. (2007: 22) observe that it is possible to compare quantitative and qualitative data, even though they are collected separately, which can aid the researcher in being able to enhance his/her understanding of the research topic. Upon conducting a mixed-methods analysis, it is important that the researcher is able to differentiate between structural and statistical associations, checks for appropriate sampling, clearly outlines qualitative codes from quantitative groupings, and conveys these steps in a clear manner to the reader (Buckley, 2018:5). An effective mixed-methods analysis enables the researcher to thoroughly analyse both sources of data without compromising the research as a whole, and also ensures that both types of data have been processed using appropriate analysis techniques.

3.3 Case Study Research

Due to the broad nature of corruption as an academic topic, it is important and instructive to narrow down the scope of investigation to a particular case study in order to ensure that contextual factors can be suitably considered. For the study presented in this dissertation, the researcher has chosen a case study approach that focuses on the KZN CoGTA Department, due to its strategic positioning within the provincial government and its service delivery mandate. Alongside this in-depth case study, the researcher conducted a random sample survey of 200 final year/postgraduate employment-seeking graduates, with participants selected from the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) College of Humanities and College of Law and Management Studies faculties. The sample was drawn exclusively from the Pietermaritzburg campus. The 2017/2018 KZN CoGTA internship advertisement served as a guide for the choosing of the two faculties. Upon inspection of the internship advert, a huge number of the opportunities required prospective interns to be in possession of qualifications that are either offered in the School of Social Sciences, the Humanities faculty or in the faculty of Management.

Using a case study method enables a direct approach and particular reference to that specific research. By using a case study, a researcher narrows his/her questions to the exact area in which he/she intends to research. In order to gain a more nuanced understanding of a problem and attempt to find suitable solutions, a research design needs to strive to establish if there are any independent variables which may have a bearing on the phenomenon being investigated (Scholz and Tietje, 2002:9). Yin (2003:4) states that a case study method is the method of choice when the phenomenon in question is difficult to distinguish from the context in which it is happening. Furthermore, Creswell (1998:213) states that in order for a researcher to be able to conduct research based on a case study approach, an emphasis needs to be placed on identifying any confirmatory or refuting information about the hypothesised argument. A case study offers the researcher a broader picture with information coming from different sources. It also acts as a guide which can offer direction to the researcher, depending on other research methods that the researcher chooses to exhaust (Thomas, 2011:21).

One of the most convincing arguments in favour of a case study is that it provides the researcher with a holistic view of the said phenomenon and allows for an understanding of broader social factors and their impact on the phenomenon in question (Orum et al., 1991:8). This is because case

study research is not designed to focus on an entire organisation or in this case the department, but rather on those particular issues relating to the specific issue at hand which, in this case, involves corruption within the respective areas of procurement and recruitment in the KZN CoGTA department (Noor, 2008). As discussed by Baxter and Jack (2008), case study research should be used to answer the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions and investigate whether there are any contextual factors which impact the phenomenon in question. Although case study research is considered to be a qualitative research method, it can also incorporate quantitative research elements. Starman (2013: 30) states that qualitative research lies in the subjective experiences on the research subject in question and, as a result of this, a case study is more qualitative than quantitative. However, the two types of research are not mutually exclusive, and a mixed research approach using a case study methodology is fitting.

3.4 Data collection methods

Sources of data

Data are not only classified as being either quantitative or qualitative, but the sources can also be broadly categorised as being primary or secondary in character (Kumar, 2013). Both primary and secondary sources of data are important for research, and for this dissertation, the researcher intends on utilising both types of data, since this will assist in strengthening the validity and reliability of the empirical findings.

Primary Data

Primary sources of data play an important role in the process of collecting data. Some primary data sources include interviews, observations and case studies. According to Hox and Boeije (2005), primary data are collected in response to a particular research problem and employ methods that best address the said problem. Primary data are concerned with obtaining data from the primary source itself, with examples including in-depth interviews and surveys. For this study, the researcher intends on utilising primary sources of data, and is of the view that such sources would benefit the research most.

Interviews are the most frequently used method of data collection in qualitative research. Mack et al. (2005) note that the collection of research data does not necessarily need to involve every

member of the community, but the researcher should rather use a sample in order to collect data from the relevant population group for that particular type of research.

3.4.1 Qualitative data collection methods

Hague (1993:23) states that face-to-face interviews allow for the interviewer to gain a much more thorough understanding of the responses that the respondents are providing, and may even take into account facial expressions and hand gestures. Furthermore, Jarbandhan and Schutte (2006) point out that there are different types of interviews, ranging from structured to unstructured interviews, and from one-on-one interviews to group discussions. Structured interviews consist of a list of questions that are asked in the same sequence and are predetermined, while unstructured interviews are open and flexible and the content, sequencing and wording are up to the interviewer (Akbayrak, 2000). A good qualitative interview essentially has two key main components: namely, that the interview needs to flow naturally and be full of information. In order for this to be possible, however, the interviewer needs to understand that he or she is there primarily to listen to the interviewee (Alshenqeeti, 2014:41). Interviews, whether formal or informal, require a certain level of preparation. More emphasis, however, is put on semi-formal interviews. According to Hancock (1998:10), semi-structured interviews should not be viewed as an easy way out, and a good interview will only come as a result of good preparation, conducting the actual interview, and careful analysis of interview data. It is very important to understand the implications of using interviews of this type. Mason (2002:64) points out that the researcher has to be able to think on his/her feet, especially in unstructured interviews. In doing so, the interviewer also needs to be able to think in accordance with the research questions that are being asked, and must ensure that the interview interactions produce as much data as possible from the interviewee. More importantly, interviewers are required to be skilful listeners, able to interact, pose questions and be able to make the interviewees comfortable enough to speak their mind on the interview subject (Marshall and Rossman, 1995:81).

Interviewing research methods do have disadvantages. As Seidman (2013:11), observes, interviewing usually takes a lot of time and, in some instances, requires financial clout. Additionally, the researcher is often required to contact the participants, conduct the actual interview and transcribe the interview, before being able to work with the data. This, of course, can be time-consuming. For the study, the researcher conducted several interviews with the

relevant stakeholders, including KZN CoGTA Department representatives from human resources management, local government and the ethics office. Furthermore, interviews were conducted with CoGTA KZN service providers who have worked closely with the department, as well as representatives from the Office of the Public Service Commission. The selected officials were chosen as study participants due to their considerable experience and knowledge in the field being researched. Details of the interviews conducted for the dissertation study are presented in Figure 3.1, with specific names and job titles removed in order to preserve anonymity.

Table 3.1. Interviewee details

Interview 1, 02/02/2018	Senior official: KZN office of the Public Service Commission.
Interview 2, 06/03/2018	Senior official: Local Government. KZN Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.
Interview 3, 08/03/2018	Senior Official: Human Resources, Recruitment and Selection. KZN Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.
Interview 4, 12/03/2018	Service Provider: KZN Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.
Interview 5, 15/03/2018	Service Provider: KZN Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.
Interview 6, 19/03/2018	Senior Official: Performance Assessment / Ethics Officer: KZN Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.

3.4.2 Quantitative data collection methods

The purpose of a survey, according to Fowler Jr (2002:1), is to produce numerical data. De Vaus (2014) goes on to state that surveys are classified as a quantitative research method and, while some regard them as stale and unimaginative in contrast with qualitative research methods, they

are nonetheless an important method for generating evidence and fact-based research. Surveys should not be confused with questionnaires, which also play an integral role in the process of data collection. The four main purposes of survey questionnaires, according to Hague (1993), are: (i) to obtain reliable data from the respondent, (ii) to give and set direction for the interviews, (iii) to provide a standard format for the interview, and (iv) to facilitate the data process. When conducting a survey, it is very important to have a clear idea of the population of interest in order to ensure that the data collection effectively samples from these targeted stakeholders. Surveys are not without their critics, and De Vaus (1986), for instance, maintains that surveys are incapable of truly establishing a causal link between two separate variables. Other criticisms levelled at surveys include concerns that the knowledge gained from survey research can be subject to influence and abuse by those in positions of power and that the knowledge obtained from the survey can be ideologically manipulated. However, it should be noted that the very same criticisms labelled against survey-based research can also be used against qualitative, in-depth discussion, interview-based research.

For the survey-based component of the research study presented in this study, the researcher conducted a survey amongst prospective KZN CoGTA Department employees. The targeted participants were final-year students or employment-seeking graduates from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Pietermaritzburg campus. The survey examines students' attitudes towards potential public sector employment upon graduation, and consisted of six themes covering attitudes towards public sector employment, affirmative action and recruitment processes. The survey was conducted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal premises, with the researcher approaching students on campus and requesting permission to conduct the survey in select classes where the sampled students would be attending lectures. The assistance of lecturers was requested in some of the classes, who assisted the researcher in fielding the questionnaire during class and collected filled-out questionnaires for the researcher to collect at the end of the lecture. On average, each survey took about 10 minutes to complete. Due to privacy and comfortability issues, the survey was self-completed, and the researcher was physically present during the administration of the survey in order to clarify and respond to any questions that the participants raised whilst completing the questionnaire.

Data Sampling

In terms of sampling methodology, Ponto (2015), indicates that sampling in survey research is designed to obtain a big enough sample that reflects the population in question, taking into consideration that it is typically not possible to collect data from an entire population. There are two main steps involved in sampling, the first being to determine population of interest which you are going to sample from, and the second involving the actual selection of the sample using either probability sampling or non-probability sampling (Lomardini, 2015). According to Mack et al., (2005), there are two main non-probability sampling methods: namely, purposive and quota sampling. Purposive sampling involves grouping participants according to pre-selected criteria which are set according to the research question, while quota sampling looks in more detail at the subgroup of the chosen sample. In addition, snowball sampling, according to Dragan and Isaac-Maniu (2013:160-161), is often used in survey and data registration. This method of sampling requires the researcher to approach a participant who meets the criteria of study and to request the participant to refer the investigator to other participants who meet the selection criteria (Burger and Silima, 2006:664). The snowballing sample method is seen to be advantageous because it provides a readily available population which meets the sample criteria, but is potentially disadvantageous because it can lead to sample error and biases (Alvi, 2016:33). Furthermore, Mack et al. (2005) also point out that, while there are similarities in purposive and quota sampling, the biggest difference lies in the specificity of the sample subgroup sizes and proportions. Quantitative research is likely to be limited to the surveys or questions asked, therefore resulting in the respondents giving a similar range of responses.

A simple random sample, as outlined by Alvi (2016:16), focuses predominantly on certain characteristics that fit the described criteria of the targeted population. In addition, random sampling ensures the possibility that everyone who fits the criteria of the targeted population has an equal chance of being selected (Barreiro and Albandoz, 2001:5). Some weaknesses associated with the simple random sample technique is that the costs of accessing the sample can be too expensive if participants are widely scattered. Furthermore, according to Sharma (2017:750), simple random sampling requires an up-to-date complete list of the entire population, which is not always possible to obtain, especially in large-scale studies. The survey was conducted over a period of four weeks at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal's Pietermaritzburg campus. A total of 200 survey questionnaires were collected over this period. The sample includes students at undergraduate and postgraduate level. Participants were either from the UKZN's School of Social

Sciences or School of Law and Management. The average age of the survey respondents was 22.3 (22 years).

Table 3.2 Characteristics of survey sample

	Number of cases	%
All respondents	200	100
Age group		
18-21 years	91	46
22-25 years	87	44
Older than 25 years	22	11
Gender		
Female	117	58
Male	83	42
Population group		
Black African	171	86
Coloured	8	4
Indian / Asian	18	9
White	3	2
Level of study		
Undergraduate (3 rd & 4 th years)	145	73
Postgraduate	55	28
Stream of study		
Commerce and management	36	18
Social sciences	164	82

Note: percentages may add up to more than 100% due to rounding off.

3.5 Data analysis methods

Data analysis refers to the breaking down of data into their significant components (Hartwig and Dearing, 1979:9). As Neumann (2007:507) states, it is not enough to merely collect data, but they must be analysed as well. Furthermore, data analysis means organising and examining data in order to look for patterns and relationships. This point is further emphasised by Rose and Sullivan (1993:6): “Above all, to put the matter slightly more technically, data analysis is concerned with explaining variance, with explaining why there is variability in some particular characteristic in a population or sample, which is of theoretical importance to social researchers.” Miles and Humberman (1994:50) point out that there are various methods which are useful for the early analysis of qualitative data. They are: contact summary sheet, codes and coding, pattern coding, memorising, case analysis meeting, interim case summary, vignettes and prestructured case. All

the above-mentioned steps help and enable the researcher to conduct effective data analysis. Moreover, the main intention behind conducting data analysis is to transform raw data which are collected in various forms and then repackage them as information which seeks to prove or demonstrate an understanding of the phenomenon in question and also assist in predicting similar events in the future (Cloete, 2007:514). It is important to be mindful of all the steps of data collection: when analysing data, the researcher should move from a general position to a more specific one and in doing so, he/she should have a guide specifying what researchers already knows about their research (Herbert, 1990: 67).

Moreover, choosing the appropriate method when undertaking data analysis is critical, because each particular method is generally suited for use in addressing a specific type of problem (Furneaux, Bynner and Murphy, 1973:144). De Vaus (2002:113) expands on this point by noting that using a “fruit salad” approach, whereby the researcher uses all the variables, can produce misleading results. This is particularly true when dealing with quantitative data and looking at the types of relationships that may exist between variables. It is not just about mixing all variables together, but rather about choosing the right variables and selecting an appropriate method of analysis.

Qualitative data analysis

There are various approaches to qualitative data analysis, which may vary from narrative analysis to phenomelogical analysis and ethnographic analysis, amongst others (Kawulich, 2005:96). Narrative analysis is the most commonly used type of qualitative analysis because it is able to determine the narrative of the data and, as a result, is able to establish the direction the data are taking. Content analysis is another key component of analysing qualitative data, and involves a process whereby the researcher analyses reports, government documents and interviews for recurring patterns and themes. Content analysis can also be applied to quantitative research (Bhattacherjee, 2012: 115). Moreover, content analysis can have as its aim the qualification and classification of data, or it can have an interpretative purpose, depending on the initial research question and existing prior knowledge of the study (Wiese, Amande and Clereq, 2013:440). The two main types of content analysis are hermeneutic content and empirical analysis. The former focuses on a largely qualitative paradigm and it is based on the researcher’s ability to translate,

interpret and explain data, while the former is based on a largely quantitative approach which includes the observing of frequency of certain themes in the data (Bos and Tarnai, 1999: 661-662).

When analysing and interpreting data, it is important for the researcher to get a contextual understanding of the data which he/she is interpreting. This requires a sound approach which the research may use to interpret the data and produce the most accurate outcomes (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). For Miles and Huberman (1994:10-11), qualitative data analysis consists of three elements: specifically, data reduction, data display and the drawing and verification of conclusions. Data reduction refers to the process of choosing data and packaging them into relevant pieces of information that may be needed for the research. Data display involves getting a better understanding of what is happening, and to act or not act, based on the newly-received information. Lastly, the process of conclusion-drawing and verification involves what the data means, which is done by observing any patterns, propositions and possible changes that can be made.

The methods applied to the analysis of data ultimately depend on the type of data generated during the research process. Accordingly, since the research informing this dissertation was based on a mixed-methods approach, the data analysis methods used will need to be tailored to the different types of data produced during the research study. As Bazeley (2013) states, one of the most useful ways of collecting qualitative data is the recording and taking notes of conversations. Bearing in mind that not all data can be recorded or taped, due to the preferences of key informants, written notes of interviews will play an important supporting role and source of qualitative data. During this research, the relevant data analysis methods will be used to ensure that all the data collected and analysed are as accurate as they can be. From a qualitative standpoint, the researcher has opted to use thematic analysis, which is defined by Braun and Clarke (2006:6) as a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within one's data. Moreover, as discussed by Jugder (2016:2-3), the thematic analysis method allows the researcher to identify themes from the interview data, which in turn capture key concepts about the data in relation to the research questions. This particular method allows for the researcher to easily identify the different themes that emerge when conducting analysis.

Quantitative data analysis

Analysing quantitative data analysis involves various procedures which are important for an adequate analysis of data. According to Lutabingwa and Auriacombe (2007:528), data analysis through usage of statistical methods investigates certain variables, their effect and relationship with other variables. Moreover, quantitative data analysis aids in creating relationships between two different variables, although it is not as strong in providing an explanation for the difference (Aluko, 2006:207). In addition, this allows the researcher to make relative and valid conclusions based on the different tested variables (Webb and Auriacombe, 2006:594). Beyond that, quantitative data analysis, as argued for by Croucamp (2009), is important because large data are produced and available for scholarly work, but are not always fully understood from an analytical standpoint. Conducting quantitative analysis can be done through the usage of software programmes such as SPSS and STATA which are able to capture and analyse the data. Furthermore, software programmes are used to retrieve and analyse numeric data, such as the distribution of responses to different questions on a questionnaire (Turner and Lambert, 2014:321). The researcher will use STATA as the data analysis software programme to examine quantitative patterns from the survey data collected. This software programme is well suited to enable the researcher to get an idea of how particular variables are distributed (Longest, 2012:91). This can be done by displaying how many cases belong to a certain category of a variable, for example.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

When conducting research, ethical considerations remain critically important, as researchers need to consider various ethical issues relating to the research process, which involves human subjects, as well as any potential sensitivities likely to be raised by the topic of investigation itself. According to Akaranga and Makau (2016), research ethics is important because it holds the researcher accountable and liable to protect the dignity of the research subjects and information obtained from the research. Ethical considerations remain important in mixed-methods research because, in order for researchers to be able to produce ethical research findings, they are required to understand the implications of their research and maintain a high level of integrity in how they obtain their data and how they protect all their research participants. Ethical considerations in qualitative research involve issues of informed consent and the relationship between the researcher and the participants (Houghton et al., 2010). The onus is on the researcher to protect the research participants.

As Coetzee (2003) states, the researcher has to put the interests of the participants above the interests of the research itself, and the participants should not be used as a means to an end. The researcher must carefully consider all ethical issues that may arise, and then take the necessary steps to ensure the protection of participant information. In doing this, the research will ensure that all data is locked away in a secure cabinet and shredded after five years, and that electronic data are password-protected and destroyed after five years. For the research presented in this dissertation, the researcher obtained ethical clearance to conduct the study from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's ethics committee. On the 10th of January 2018, protocol reference number HSS/1211/017M was granted full approval to conduct the study after the full committee reviewed the protocol. This is coupled with two letters of authority obtained from the KZN CoGTA department's office of the HOD and the head of local government respectively, granting the researcher permission to conduct the study.

3.7 Study limitations

While this study may be able to explore challenges of corruption within the KZN CoGTA Department as set out in the objectives of the study, it does also face limitations. The first major limitation for this research study is that it does not cover all the KwaZulu-Natal provincial departments, and is limited to only one department. The researcher would have loved to conduct the study across all 14 provincial departments (including the office of the Premier). However, due to a lack of time and resources, this proved to be a task beyond the scope of this dissertation. The quantitative segment of the study is made up of an attitudinal survey conducted on the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Pietermaritzburg campus. As such, the findings are reflective of the particular campus and not necessarily of all other University of KwaZulu-Natal campuses, since these were not included in the sample.

The qualitative section of the study also faces limitations. The researcher only interviewed seven respondents from the CoGTA department, Public Service Commission and business sector. This means that the findings may also not tell a full picture of the research question. Apart from the evidence generated by the researcher during the study, the question of the "impact of corruption" may require more quantitative and statistical output, involving such methods such as forensic and audit trails. The interviewer attempted to interview representatives from the KZN CoGTA Department's supply chain management unit, but selected respondents were unavailable due to a

busy schedule mainly caused by the 2017/2018 financial year-end period. Lastly, due to the sensitivity of the research subject, willing participants who were comfortable with partaking and airing their views were few and far between, and the information gathered was from the perspectives of these participants and not necessarily the perspectives of all the relevant stakeholders. This type of gatekeeping, however, is to be expected in the light of the nature of the topic and the organisation that the researcher is working with.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the importance of giving due consideration to the research methodology when conducting research, which is done by highlighting the adoption of mixed-method research in the social sciences and the usage of case study as a form of research approach as well. Moreover, it has provided detailed methodological steps that the researcher undertook in relation to the data collection, including the types of data and sampling strategies used. Furthermore, the researcher has also described the data analysis process which includes a clear outline of the methods adopted for the qualitative and quantitative data analysis. In addition, the importance of ethical consideration along with study limitations are also covered in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and preliminary interpretation of results for both the qualitative and quantitative components of the research study. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, the investigator speculates on what some of the results could mean and in interpreting the results seeks to offer explanations of what the results could mean. The presentation of the results is divided into two sections. The first of these sections outlines the quantitative outcomes of the study, examines the extent to which these findings differ or remain the same by respondent characteristics, and offers reflective comments on the results. The second section focuses on the qualitative outcomes of the study. In this section, the researcher relies on the data obtained from interviews that he had conducted with the research participants. This is done in order to enrich the thematic interpretive analysis of the case study material. This presentation and initial interpretation of the findings of the two research components is then taken forward and discussed in more detail in Chapter Five.

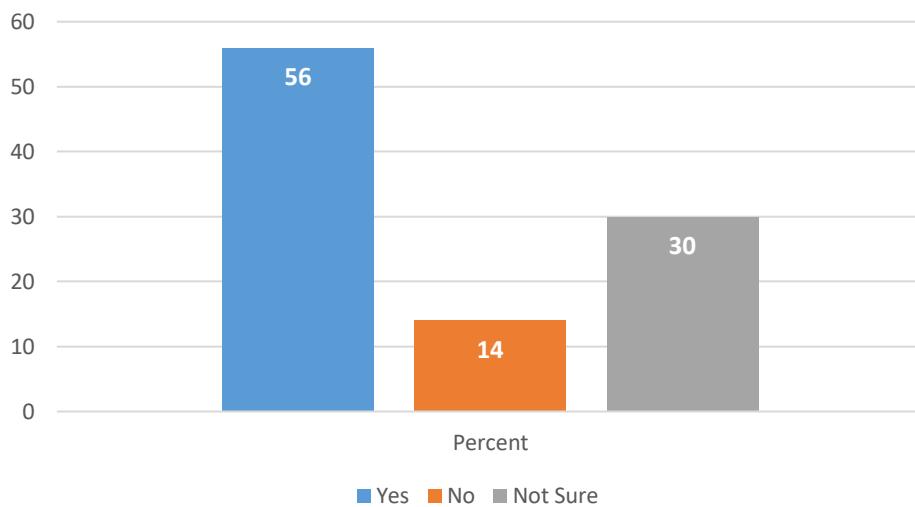
4.2 Quantitative results analysis

This section presents the results of the survey, along with an interpretation of what the results mean and possible factors influencing the results.

4.2.1 The public service as a preferred sector of employment

Survey respondents were asked a question intended to capture the perceived desirability of public sector employment as a career pathway of choice. More specifically, the students were asked the following question: ‘Upon graduating, do you plan on working in the public sector?’ Responses were captured using a simple ‘yes’ / ‘no’ coding scheme. As shown in Figure 4.1, slightly over half (111 out of 200, or 56%) of the research participants indicated that they intend working in the public sector upon graduating. Only 14 percent (28 students of 200) clearly said that this was not an envisaged sector of work for them, while a substantial 30 percent (60 students) were unsure about their sector of choice.

Figure 4.1: The desirability of public sector employment among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus, 2018 (%)



Source: Own survey of student preferences

In the estimation of the researcher, these figures represent quite a strong demand for public sector employment among senior tertiary-level students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus. There may be various reasons underlying this demand. According to De Jongh, Meyer and Meyer (2016: 48), South Africa is ranked globally as having the fourth highest youth unemployment rate. This means that any form of employment opportunity is likely to be met with strong interest and demand from students. Furthermore, the government is tasked with creating an environment that enables youth activity. As a result, various programmes have been introduced, such as internships and learnerships, which aim to offer young graduates employment opportunities in government departments. As youth unemployment continues to plague the country, it is plausible that young people see the public sector as a potential career pathway which could provide them with ample opportunities, including job security and attractive remuneration packages. In addition, South African Graduates Development Association points out that social sciences graduates are likely to struggle with finding employment, especially in the private sector (News 24, 2016). As a result of this, the public sector is likely to become very appealing. Furthermore, Mngoma (2016) states that most companies in South Africa tend to offer more opportunities to students with qualifications in the hard sciences such as computer science, geology and chemistry. Therefore, public sector opportunities in fields such as education are becoming increasingly popular career choices among social sciences students, with young people leaning towards teaching as a potential source of

employment. It is also worth noting that social sciences degrees mainly offer opportunities in the public sector or non-governmental organisations sector.

It is important to note from Figure 4.1 that a high share (30%) of participants signalled that they were uncertain as to whether or not they would pursue a career in the public sector. Further analysis in Table 4.2 shows that this uncertainty seems to diminish as the age of a student increases. More than a third (37%) of 18-21 year-old students expressed uncertainty about public sector employment, compared to 25 percent of those aged 22-25 years and 18% of those older than 25 years. According to Ismail (2017:4), career concern can be defined as the extent to which future employees are future- and goal-orientated in their pursuit of a better career. Moreover, this may be a case of career indecisiveness, as members of these age groups are mostly third and fourth years in their undergraduate degrees. In addition, student awareness on matters concerning employability tends to be overlooked in the discussion of graduate employment prospects (Harry, Chinyamurindi and Mjoli, 2018:2). The significant drop in uncertainty for postgraduate participants and also for those aged 25 years and older could mean that older students are more aware of their preferred career paths. This could result in a reduced percentage providing ‘do not know’ responses in relation to the desire to pursue a career in the public sector.

Table 4.2: Desirability of public sector employment, by student characteristics (row %)

	Yes	No	Not Sure	Total	N
All respondents	56	14	30	100	200
Age group					
18-21 years	49	13	37	100	91
22-25 years	59	16	25	100	87
Older than 25 years	73	9	18	100	22
Sex					
Male	54	19	27	100	83
Female	57	10	32	100	117
Population group					
Black African	56	14	30	100	171
Other population groups	55	14	31	100	29
Level of study					
Undergraduate (3 rd & 4 th years)	53	14	32	100	145
Postgraduate	64	13	24	100	55
Type of study					
Commerce	50	28	22	100	36
Social Sciences	57	11	32	100	164
Range in values across subgroups examined (%)	49 - 73	9 - 28	18 – 37

Source: Own survey of student preferences

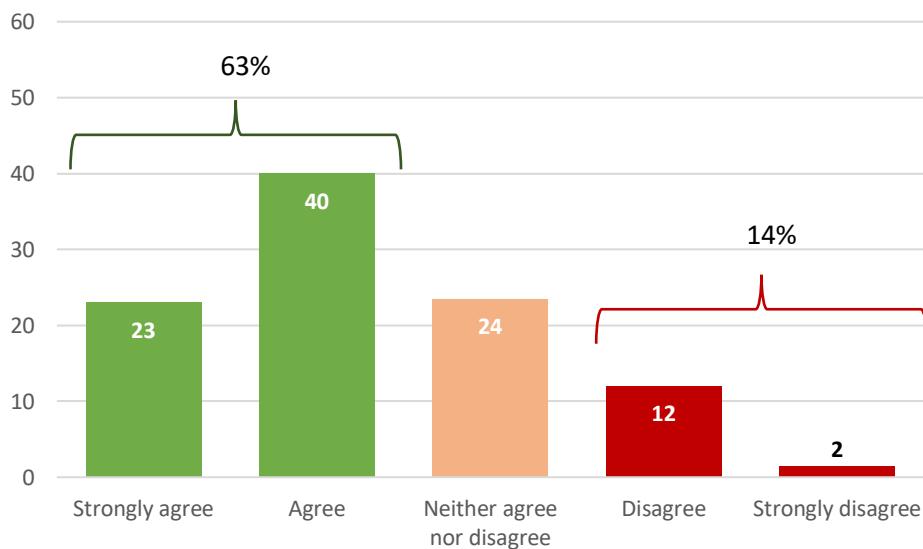
Public sector employment offers a wide range of opportunities for social sciences graduates. These students, who constitute a sizeable proportion of the sample, are likely to express a keen interest in public sector employment. Of the social sciences students who took part in the survey, 93 of the 163 participants (57%) indicated that they would like to pursue a career in the public sector upon graduating. This can be compared to 18 of the 163 (11%) who said they would not want to work in the public sector, with the remaining 52 students (32%) indicating that they were not sure. From a social sciences student perspective, the results show that public sector employment is definitely regarded as a viable career option. This is further substantiated by the fact that social sciences employment has been on an upward trajectory in the public sector. The social sciences cluster in government comprises of, amongst others, the public administration, education and social development departments. The social cluster assumed the lead in terms of public sector employment between the periods 2010-2014, with job opportunities in this sector increasing by 773,000, which makes it the largest form of government employment compared to the other sectors

(Reddy et al, 2016:63). In contrast, there was a bigger proportion of commerce students who either said ‘no’ or ‘not sure’ about working in the public sector upon graduation. Of the commerce students who participated in the survey, 48% indicated that they would be willing to work in the public sector upon graduation. A further 26% of the students said they would not, and the remaining 26 % provided uncertain responses. There could be various reasons behind this. Students from commerce are likely to have more options in the labour market due to the demand for the skills they possess, and their employment prospects in both the private and public sectors remain high.

4.2.2 Support for affirmative action in public sector employment

Having established the demand for public sector employment, respondents were then asked about their preferences for affirmative action policy in public sector recruitment. The specific question posed to students was as follows: ‘To what extent do you agree with affirmative action in public sector employment?’ Answers to this question were recorded using a standard five-point agreement scale, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. The results presented in the bar graph below suggest that there is general agreement with the usage of affirmative action as a recruitment tool in the public sector.

Figure 4.2: Preferences for affirmative action policy in public sector employment among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus, 2018 (%)



Source: Own survey of student preferences

Of the surveyed students, 40% indicated that they ‘agree’ with the policy of affirmative action, and an additional 23% stated that they ‘strongly agree’. Therefore, total agreement with affirmative action among the surveyed tertiary students stood at nearly two-thirds (63%). Nearly one-quarter (24%) of the survey participants indicated that they ‘neither agree nor disagree’ with affirmative action. Moreover, a little over an eighth (12%) of the participants further indicated that they ‘disagree’ with the policy of affirmative action and 2% indicated that they ‘strongly disagree’.

Table 4.3: Support for affirmative action in public sector employment, by student characteristics (row %)

	Total agreement	Neutral	Total disagreement	Total	N
All respondents	63	24	14	100	200
Age group					
18-21 years	63	25	12	100	91
22-25 years	62	23	15	100	87
Older than 25 years	68	18	14	100	22
Sex					
Male	67	19	13	100	83
Female	60	27	14	100	117
Population group					
Black African	63	25	13	100	171
Other population groups	66	17	17	100	29
Level of study					
Undergraduate (3 rd & 4 th years)	63	24	13	100	145
Postgraduate	64	22	15	100	55
Type of study					
Commerce	64	17	19	100	36
Social Sciences	63	25	12	100	164
Intend to work in public sector					
Yes	66	24	10	100	112
No	61	18	21	100	28
Not sure	58	25	17	100	60
Range in values across subgroups examined (%)	58 – 68	17 – 27	10 – 21

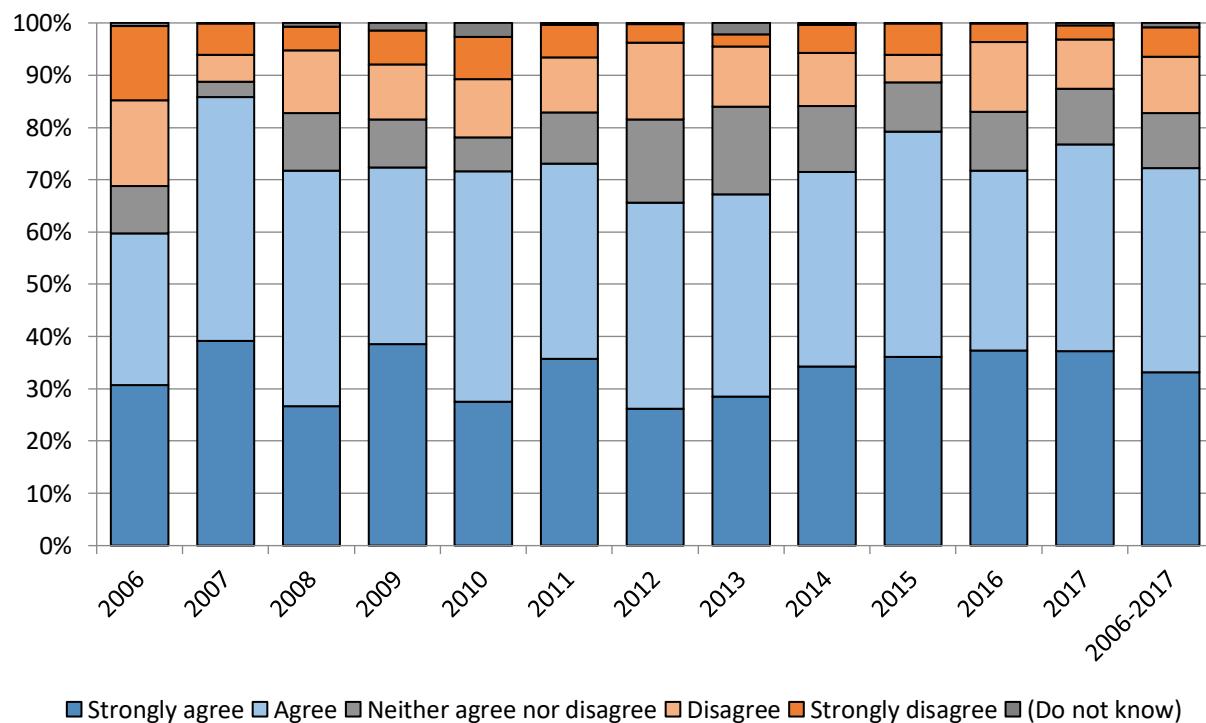
Note: Total agreement represents a combination of the ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ categories, while similarly total disagreement is the combination of the ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ categories

Source: Own survey of student preferences

The results also show that there is a relationship between Question 3 which is whether or not students would like to work in the public sector and Question 4 which asks whether or not students agree with affirmative action as a recruitment policy in public sector employment. Students who would like to work in the public sector appear to be in favour of affirmative action. Of the 111 students who said they would like to work in the public sector, two-thirds of them (66%) either agreed or strongly agreed with this use of affirmative action policy. About three-fifths (58%) of the students who said they were not sure about working in the public sector agreed or strongly

agreed with the usage of affirmative action policy and 57% of the students who said they were not interested in working in the public sector either ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ with affirmative action. Students who are interested in working in the public sector are also likely to be in favour of affirmative action and students who have said they do not plan on working in the public sector are less likely to be in favour of the policy. Overall, students have responded favourably to the affirmative action policy, regardless of whether they would like to work in the public sector or not. Reasons behind the positive response to affirmative action policy may be due to the fact that the sample size predominantly consists of black African students. This type of student may still be feeling the negative effects of the apartheid regime in terms of inequality in the work place and socio-economic challenges that they may be constantly exposed to, whether directly or indirectly.

Table 4.4 SASAS KwaZulu-Natal data on attitudes towards affirmative action employment, 2006-2017 (%)



■ Strongly agree ■ Agree ■ Neither agree nor disagree ■ Disagree ■ Strongly disagree ■ (Do not know)

Source: HSRC South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS), 2006-2017.

The South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) is a national study conducted by the HSRC on various societal issues in South Africa. The study is nationally representative and the sample is

reflective of the national population¹. The question posed to the respondents read: “Preferable hiring and promotion of black South African employees in employment”, and a five-point rating scale ranging from ‘agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’ was used to capture the responses of the participants.

The results from the survey conducted are also in agreement with the much larger SASAS national study conducted by the Human Sciences Research Council. Above are the results of the question about attitudes towards affirmative action in the province. The results show a consistent approval of affirmative action over a 10-year period, with an average of 72% of the respondents who either agreed or strongly agreed with the usage of affirmative action as a recruitment policy. Furthermore, minority respondents favoured affirmative action when compared to the black African majority and, in addition to that, support for affirmative action was widespread amongst the black African youth in South Africa.

Affirmative action has gone a long way towards addressing the socio-economic imbalances of the past and as a result, it is with such reason that it can be viewed favourably by prospective employees who were previously disadvantaged, albeit indirectly. The Commission for Employment Equity’s 2016 report indicated a rise in representation of top black management in the public sector. Almost three-quarters (73.2%) of the top management positions in the public sector are occupied by black Africans (Commission for Employment Equity, 2016: 19). This can be seen as an unwavering commitment by the public sector to lead transformation of the public service bureaucratic structures through the usage of affirmative action and employment equity.

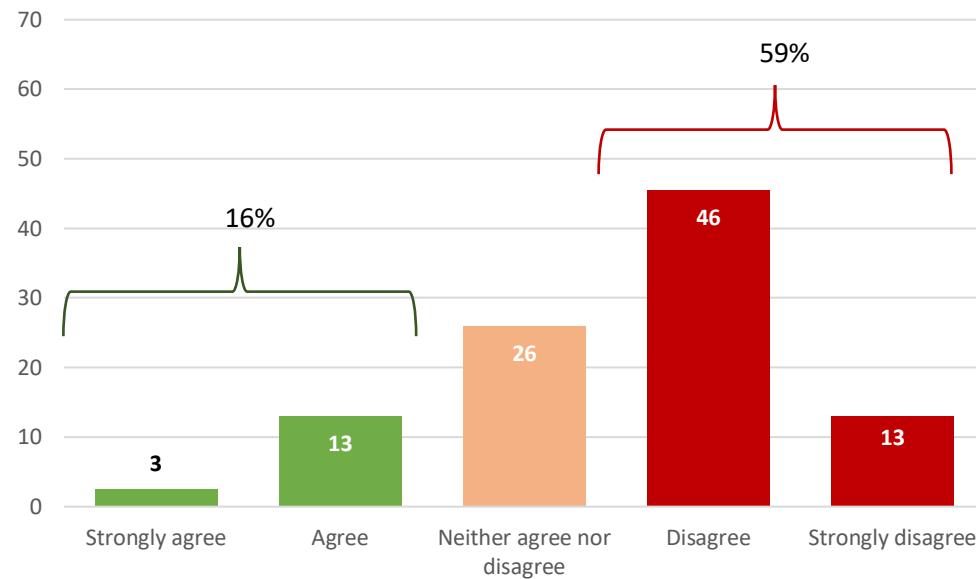
4.2.3 Views on recruitment in the KwaZulu-Natal Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs Department

¹ South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). Primary sampling units: 500 census enumerator areas (EAs), stratified by province, geography type and majority population group
Secondary sampling units: 7 household visiting points randomly selected per EA.
One respondent 16+ years randomly selected per household
In 2016 the realised sample size would be 3,079.
Responses to the survey voluntary and confidential, collected by face-to-face interview
Data collection: November-December annually.

A question about the fairness of the recruitment processes at the department was posed by the researcher. The phrasing of the question presented to the students was as follows: ‘Do you believe that the recruitment process in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Co-Operative Governance & Traditional Affairs is free and fair?’ A five-point agreement scale was used, ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. There are strong beliefs that recruitment processes at the department are actually not free and fair. Approximately three-fifths (59 %) of the respondents disagreed with the notion that recruitment processes in the department are free and fair. In addition, only 14 % of the respondents were in agreement with recruitment processes being free and fair.

Results obtained from the respondents regarding whether or not recruitment processes from the department are free and fair seem to indicate that there is a lack of trust in the public sector recruitment processes. Almost half of the participants (46 %) indicated that they disagree that the recruitment processes were free and fair. An additional 13 % said that they strongly disagree with the recruitment processes being free and fair. There seems to be a perception that the recruitment processes in the department are unfair. These perceptions negatively affect the level of trust between the department and the local citizens. It should be noted that not every perception is true, but at the same time, one cannot shy away from the impact such perceptions tend to have on citizens’ attitudes.

Figure 4.3: The perceived freeness and fairness of recruitment processes in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus, 2018 (%)



Source: Own survey of student preferences

Table 4.5: The perceived freeness and fairness of recruitment processes in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department, by student characteristics (row %)

	Total agreement	Neutral	Total disagreem ent	Total	N
All respondents	16	26	59	100	200
Age group					
18-21 years	16	23	60	100	91
22-25 years	13	26	61	100	87
Older than 25 years	23	36	41	100	22
Sex					
Male	16	33	52	100	83
Female	15	21	63	100	117
Population group					
Black African	16	27	57	100	171
Other population groups	14	17	69	100	29
Level of study					
Undergraduate (3 rd & 4 th years)	15	25	60	100	145
Postgraduate	16	29	55	100	55
Type of study					
Commerce	14	14	72	100	36
Social Sciences	16	29	55	100	164
Intend to work in public sector					
Yes	20	27	54	100	112
No	11	18	71	100	28
Not sure	10	28	62	100	60
Affirmative action in public sector employment					
Support	15	30	55	100	126
Neutral	19	21	60	100	47
Oppose	11	15	74	100	27

Note: Total agreement represents a combination of the ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ categories, while similarly total disagreement is the combination of the ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ categories

Source: Own survey of student preferences

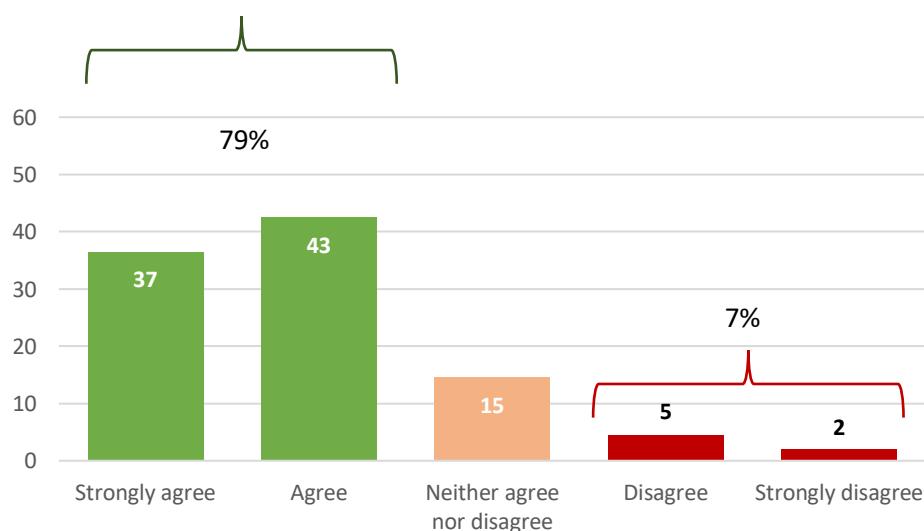
There is a relationship between the belief that recruitment processes are not fair and the unwillingness to work in the public sector. From the students who said they would work in the public sector, more than half (53%) of them either disagreed or strongly disagreed with recruitment processes in the department being free and fair. The number increases with the students who are

not sure about working in the public sector, so that 63% of them either disagreed or strongly disagreed with recruitment processes being free and fair. Of the students who said they are not planning on working in the public sector, 70% of them said they either strongly disagree or disagree with the notion of recruitment processes being free and fair. Therefore, students who are not willing to work in the public sector are more likely to believe that recruitment processes in the public sector were not free and fair. Furthermore, the survey data further show that a belief in the existence of free and fair recruitment practices in the department positively affects the participants' willingness to work in the public sector. This positive correlation continues to hold, regardless of age and gender differences.

4.2.4 Views on corrupt recruitment practices in the KwaZulu-Natal department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs

A final attitudinal question posed to survey respondents related to their views on possible corrupt practices in recruitment decisions in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department. The phrasing of the question posed to the students was as follows: 'Are you of the view that corruption acts such as nepotism exist in public sector recruitment, specifically at the KwaZulu-Natal Department of CoGTA?' Consistent with the preceding items, a five-point agreement scale was again employed, and the overall results are presented in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4 Perceived corruption in recruitment practices in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Co-Operative Governance & Traditional Affairs Department among senior tertiary students at the UKZN Pietermaritzburg Campus, 2018 (%)



Source: Own survey of student preferences

Survey respondents believed that there was corruption in the recruitment practices of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of COGTA. Just under half of the research participants (43%) indicated they strongly agree with the statement that acts of corruption do exist in the recruitment practices of the department and 37 % agreed. Approximately a sixth (15%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement and only 7% either disagreed or strongly disagreed that there was corruption in the recruiting practices of CoGTA in KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 4.6: The perceived corruption in recruitment practices in the KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department, by student characteristics (row %)

	Total agreement	Neutral	Total disagreem ent	Total	N
All respondents	79	15	7	100	200
Age group					
18-21 years	84	12	4	100	91
22-25 years	77	15	8	100	87
Older than 25 years	68	23	9	100	22
Sex					
Male	78	16	6	100	83
Female	79	14	7	100	117
Population group					
Black African	80	14	6	100	171
Other population groups	76	17	7	100	29
Level of study					
Undergraduate (3 rd & 4 th years)	79	14	7	100	145
Postgraduate	78	16	5	100	55
Type of study					
Commerce	89	8	3	100	36
Social Sciences	77	16	7	100	164
Intend to work in public sector					
Yes	80	13	7	100	112
No	79	14	7	100	28
Not sure	77	18	5	100	60
Affirmative action in public sector employment					
Support	79	14	6	100	126
Neutral	74	19	6	100	47
Oppose	85	7	7	100	27
Freeness and fairness of CoGTA recruitment					
Agree	77	10	13	100	31
Neutral	63	35	2	100	52
Disagree	86	7	7	100	117

Note: Total agreement represents a combination of the ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ categories, while similarly total disagreement is the combination of the ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ categories

Source: Own survey of student preferences

The overwhelming majority of the students who took part in the survey indicate that there is corruption in the recruitment processes of KwaZulu-Natal CoGTA Department. These sentiments, however, are not only shared by student participants of this survey. The Special Investigative Unit in 2006 revealed that KwaZulu-Natal was widely affected by acts of bribery and dishonesty in various provincial departments (Naidu, 2006). Over the years, such reports have also affected citizens' perceptions of corruption in and around the country. Data collected by the Human Sciences Research Council showed a concern about corruption nationally. According to nationally representative data from 2011, "around three-quarters (74%) of all South Africans believe the incidence of corruption has increased in the past three years, while 10% feel it has declined and 12% report that it has remained unchanged over the period" (Gordon, S. et al., 2012). Furthermore, public trust in local, provincial and national government had decreased significantly with political leaders being the least trusted by citizens for the 2014/2015 period (Chingwete, 2016).

The results of this study are a further indication of the general sense of corruption perception that is revealed by larger studies that have been conducted. SASAS data revealed that corruption was listed third behind crime and unemployment as the country's three biggest problems (Roberts et al., 2017). Moreover, there has been a general decline in public faith in some of the country's key institutions. As a result, the loss of trust in the state and politicians has led to a feeling of discontent around the prevalence of corruption. This loss in public confidence may explain the high portion of respondents in the KZN Pietermaritzburg survey who have indicated that they believe corruption practices exist in the department of CoGTA. Furthermore, sentiments around corruption prevalence are likely to filter down from the tax-paying middle class to the lower working class and students who may attribute their lack of employment opportunities to corruption. This point is further illustrated by Grobler and Joubert (2004:93) who argue that South Africa is not an exception when it comes to nepotism, political affiliation or reward for political loyalty being used as a basis of recruitment instead of merit.

4.2.5 Further exploration of variables regarding attitudes towards public sector employment

In this section, the researcher examines the relationship between attitudes towards corrupt acts in the public sector and whether an individual thought that the recruitment processes at KZN Department of COGTA were free and fair. Using a pairwise correlation matrix, the researcher

detected a moderate negative coefficient (-0.222) at the 1% significance level between these two types of attitudes.

This suggests that if an individual has a favourable opinion of the KZN Department of COGTA recruitment process, then that individual will be less inclined to believe that corruption exists in the public sector. In order to investigate this correlation further, the researcher used multivariate regression analysis. Given that the dependent variable is ordinal, the researcher employed an ordered logistic regression model. Alongside attitudes towards free and fair recruitment processes, the researcher included the following as independent variables in the model: gender (0=male, 1=female), age, population group (0=minority, 1=African) and current academic qualification (0=undergraduate, 1=post-graduate). Results of this regression model are depicted in **Table 4.7** where a positive coefficient shows a greater likelihood of agreeing that corruption exists in the public sector.

Table 4.7: Ordered Logistic Regression Model of Attitudes towards Corrupt Acts in the Public Sector

	Coef.	Std. Err.		[95% Conf. Interval]	
Age	-0.128	0.057	*	-0.239	-0.017
Gender (ref. Male)	-0.293	0.292		-0.865	0.279
Population Group (ref. Minority)	0.896	0.379	*	0.154	1.638
Current Qualification (ref. Undergraduate)	0.511	0.340		-0.156	1.177
Recruitment Processes	0.619	0.149	***	0.326	0.911
/cut1	-4.061	1.440		-6.883	-1.239
/cut2	-2.820	1.378		-5.521	-0.120
/cut3	-1.427	1.356		-4.085	1.232
/cut4	0.664	1.356		-1.993	3.321
Number of obs.	200				
LR chi ² (5)	26.43				
Prob > chi ²	0.000				
McFadden's pseudo R ²	0.054				

Note: * p<0.01, ** p<0.001, *** p<0.0001

Source: Own survey of student preferences

Reviewing the chi-square distribution, it is possible to reject the null hypothesis is that all of the regression coefficients in the model are equal to zero. Looking at attitudes towards recruitment

processes, it can be found that if an individual moved up the agreement scale on this issue by one point, his/her ordered log-odds of agreeing that corruption occurs in the public sector would increase 0.619 (SE=0.149) if the other variables in the model are held constant. This ordered log-odds estimate is statistically significant at the 0.1% level. This confirms the validity of the pairwise correlation matrix described above. Other interesting findings to emerge from the table include the role of age and population group. A one-year age difference decreases the ordered log-odds of believing that corruption exists in the public sector by 0.128 (SE=0.057). The ordered logit for Black African students thinking that corruption occurs in the public sector is 0.896 (SE=0.379) more than minority students when the other variables in the model are held constant.

Table 4.8: Ordered Logistic Regression Model of Intention to Enter Public Sector Employment

	Coef.	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Age	-0.128	0.057	-0.060	0.172
Gender (ref. Male)	0.350	0.320	-0.278	0.977
Population Group (ref. Minority)	-0.093	0.416	-0.909	0.722
Current Qualification (ref. Undergraduate)	0.370	0.366	-0.348	1.088
Recruitment Processes	0.312	0.158	*	0.326
Number of obs.	200			
LR chi ² (5)	7.28			
Prob > chi ²	0.201			
McFadden's pseudo R ²	0.027			

Note: * p<0.01, ** p<0.001, *** p<0.0001

Source: Own survey of student preferences

To further explore the relationship between intention to enter public sector employment and evaluations of the recruitment processes at the KwaZulu-Natal Department of COGTA, the researcher turned to multivariate analysis. The researcher constructed a binary intention to enter public sector variable (0=no intention/unsure, 1=intention to enter) and then used a logistic regression model to examine the determinants of this variable. The model included the following independent variables: gender (0=male, 1=female), age, population group (0=minority, 1=African) and current academic qualification (0=undergraduate, 1=post-graduate). The outcomes of this model are portrayed in 4.8 where a positive coefficient indicates a willingness to seek employment in the public sector. Appraising the chi-square distribution, it is not possible to reject the null hypothesis that all of the regression coefficients in the model are equal to zero. It is possible,

however, to detect a positive correlation ($r= 0.312$; $SE=0.158$) between a belief that the recruitment processes at KwaZulu-Natal Department of COGTA are free and fair and a willingness to enter the public sector. This suggests that a student's evaluations of the recruitment process influences whether he/she would be eager to seek employment in that sector. However, it is important to note that the model produced here has relatively poor explanatory power. This implies that there other, more important, factors that act as determinants on whether a student would pursue public sector employment.

4.3 Qualitative results analysis

This segment presents the qualitative analysis of the study. The researcher conducted six interviews, three of which were conducted with officials from the KwaZulu-Natal department of CoGTA, one with an official from the KwaZulu-Natal Public Service Commission and two interviews with service providers who have conducted business with the department. The analysis is further divided into four subsections looking at corruption challenges in the department and causes of corruption, including greed and lack of transparency. Moreover, this chapter looks at how corruption in the public sector impacts on the department's ability to meet its service delivery mandate.

4.3.1 Corruption challenges in procurement in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of CoGTA

The challenge of corruption in procurement has remained a thorny issue for the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government. Manipulation of tender processes or irregularities in the procuring of certain goods and services compromise supply chain processes and create distrust between government and the public. On the matter of interference in procurement processes, interviewee two (06 March 2018) said:

“...it was found years ago that even political interferences in the SCM [Supply Chain Management] processes in municipalities was a problem. So today there is a regulation that says councillors may not be involved in the SCM processes. However, there are practical ways and means of avoiding that. I mean a counsellor or mayor or the speaker does not have to sit on the bid committees, but the mayor

or the speaker merely has to issue the instructions of the officials who do sit on them. By making sure you've got the right officials in place, you are just facilitating that element of collusion.”

These interferences tend to have a negative impact on the processes and more often than not tend to lead to acts of corruption in this unit and opportunities are reserved for an élite few. When asked about the main challenge service providers face, interviewee four (12 March 2018) stated that:

“...It is the corruption, the corruption is there. We can't deny it, we can't hide from it, and its there. Sometimes a person gets a certain tender simply because they are associated with certain individuals when your company has better credentials. They have got a long way to go, but the fact that, you know, there are some people who are eating its good and they are black people. It is just that some are eating more than others. I am not saying everyone should eat the same, but people must get. They have to, because that is how people turn to crime and may say ‘government is not working for us’ so if they are offering this service there must be a service for everyone, not just a select few.”

These sentiments are also shared by interviewee five (15 March 2018) who says:

“...Competition and corruption. Corruption is the biggest problem. For example, Indian service providers pay kickbacks due to the fact that they already have money, so they pay kickbacks to access tenders, so there is no fairness in terms of the tendering process.”

The irregularities of the processes in the department seem to be evident as well and the issue of service providers having to pay bribes is also mentioned by interviewee four who states:

” ...I do not know how it works but it happens, whether they pay upfront or whatever, it happens. It happened to me just recently at CoGTA. My tender document was thrown away. They messed up because they threw it away after it was recorded that I had submitted.”

Such an act, by its very nature, compromises the SCM processes of the department and creates a lack of trust between service providers and the departments, and the public at large. Issues around procurement have also manifested themselves in key municipalities in the province that the KwaZulu-Natal Department of COGTA oversees. The eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality was involved in a procurement scandal in which R36 million was paid to four companies to provide toilets for impoverished communities in rural KwaZulu-Natal (Zungu, 2018). While in the Msunduzi Municipality, tender irregularities continue to involve senior municipal officials.

Former deputy municipal manager, Dr Ray Ngcobo, for instance, has been under investigation for over a year for alleged payment of R7 million for a company tasked with overseeing the implementation of the Jika Joe project (Pillay, 2017). At the time of writing, the company had still not delivered on the project. This has created a sense of élitism in how the department goes about dealing with its business, especially around issues of procurement. Moreover, these issues of political meddling seem to be a municipal issue that the department is having to deal with and it is not only unique to ANC-led municipalities, but rather a province-wide problem even in municipalities that are not necessarily governed by the ANC. To further expand on this, interviewee two says:

“...Just to clarify, when I talk about dominant political parties you will appreciate that I am saying these things because they apply equally. Whether it is in ANC controlled municipality or IFP controlled municipality, the same applies to the recruitment that I was talking about right now.”

Political interference from counsellors and other political appointees are likely to impede on the work done by professionally-appointed individuals. This point is also elaborated in Zondi (2018:15), who states that political interference in supply chain processes has severely undermined the integrity and reliability of supply chain processes. This can be seen to be particularly true when it comes to matters of procurement. A good governance relationship between all members of government, political appointees or bureaucratically-motivated appointments is of utmost importance. Acts of corruption from either party are likely to have an adverse effect on the wellbeing of the general public who rely on government for services. To put it in a national context, while there is no evidence of acts of corruption within the Department of Social Development over the handling of the social grant distributing contract, the Constitutional Court did find the contract between SASSA and Cash Paymaster Services (CPS) to be illegal (CCT 48/17, 2017) . It is important also to note the government structures and to ensure that good governance is in place. However, the adequate implementation of this remains questionable and as a result challenges of corruption, especially those of political corruption, remain a challenge.

4.3.2 Causes of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial department of CoGTA

This subsection outlines the causes of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal department of CoGTA.

4.3.2.1 Greed

There are a variety of reasons advanced as potential influences behind the causes of corruption. Greed is one of the main reasons given for rampant acts of corruption. This point is further substantiated by interviewee one (02 February 2018) who stated that:

“...I was telling you about officials in Supply Chain, I was telling you about school principals, so you wonder... I mean, basically you have to get less institutional when you answer this question and blatantly moralistic and say greed.”

Furthermore, interviewee one went on to say:

“...But reasons? Greed, as I say. I take my institutional hat off and I basically say there is nothing that you can suss out in the pattern except greed and institutionally, the lack of the promotional element from school level even, to continue promotional programmes within the public service around the kind of culture we want to create and a public servant is behind the kind of society we have that commits corruption easily. And by the way, if you thought that what you often read around politicians being corrupt is an issue and is disgusting enough, because there is that perception in this country, wait until you get into public service. It is amazing. It is only the tip of the iceberg that you hear of - the hou-hah around it and it's not acceptable either. If that is true, it is not acceptable, but public servants are a mission that really needs to be looked at currently.”

Moreover, personal greed plays a role in the manifestation of corruption in the public sector (Prozesky, 2013:14). Interviewee two also seems to agree with this notion and says the following:

“...You know, people will advance many reasons. The first reason would be the question of poverty, so poverty is always advanced as the reason for corruption. However, equally so, other people will advance the argument that greed is. I mean, if you were poor when you started and you've got enough money now, why would you continue to be corrupt? It could be that poverty turns into greed. I'm not sure.”

The reason of greed being the main cause of corruption is also advanced by interviewee four who said:

“...I believe corruption will always be there. It may be maintained, it may decrease, but completely gone? I do not believe it. People have too much greed.”

This point is further backed by interviewee six (19 March 2018) who also cites greed as the main reason behind corruption by saying:

“...Greed is number one, and it is number one because people tend to think about themselves and they forget what they have been deployed to do, so that is the primary reason for being involved in corrupt activities.”

The component of greed can be seen to be widespread across the structures of the department and municipalities. On this matter, interviewee two further went on to say:

“...We have got a problem of self-serving councillors. The motive behind the death of councillors in KZN is greed-based.”

The prevalence of greed as the main source behind continued corruption activities in the department can also be supported by the belief among interviewees that corruption seems to be prevalent across all units of management. On this point, interviewee one said:

“...The observation that I can make is that there are ... people who do these kinds of things in all levels. There is no excuse that can be attributed to ‘the person was poor’ because there are a lot of low-level people who will not do these kinds of things. There are a lot of rather well-paid public servants that are engaged in corruption.”

Furthermore, interviewee two goes on to say:

“...Maybe this is more a perception on my side, but the perception is that it is relatively widespread and covers a broad base. And then again, if I go back to that element of collusion that I was talking about, you know you cannot have a councillor and the MM in the municipality being corrupt by themselves. They would need to be a whole trail, right down possibly to even the SCM clerk who would need to collude to be able to do it in a way which would be considered to be legitimate. In other words, there is a proper paper trail etc., otherwise they would be picked up quicker.”

While this is certainly true, the role of the political and bureaucratic and political élite in being protagonists of corruption cannot be ignored. Interviewee five stated:

” ...For example, officials are under pressure. They have to bow down to the pressure and they may even lose their jobs, because sometimes pressure comes from above. They are sometimes forced to give this person a tender, taking instructions from above and sometimes they take instruction from politicians, which is not supposed to be the case. The moment there is a politician’s interference, a politician dictates to the official which company should be picked.”

An expansion of that point is made by interviewee three (08 March 2018) who says:

“...It is not easy to point out and how it transpires here at CoGTA is that there are always committees and selections are made. Those who have been awarded are put on the departmental notice and we all see them, so from where I am sitting I am not stressed. It has been officially awarded, but when investigators trace it, they reveal that the tender was actually awarded to the manager’s sister, for example. When

you are sitting here, you are thinking everything is transparent, but they are human beings as well. You do not know what is happening, but the administration looks as if everything is going according to plan. It is not just people from finance who sit in on those committees, some managers from other units also sit in. Even our directors sit in on those committees and managers from other units also sit in.”

There is an acknowledgement across all stakeholders that the main reason behind corruption in the department could be greed. This view is shared by internal and external stakeholders from the department.

4.3.2.2 Lack of oversight

Oversight from a local government is hindered by a lack of local citizen participation. At this present moment, there is a gap in governance between the people and government officials. Active citizen participation is lacking because people do not have a voice and are unable to express their views on local government. A consultative approach is the process of consulting with the citizens and information-sharing occurs whereby people participate by answering questions on a form. Active citizen participation is created through a willingness from all relevant stakeholders to create an environment which makes effective citizen participation possible. Furthermore, for citizens to be able to actively engage in participation, it is a prerequisite that they feel engaged.

In South Africa, there have been a lot of questions asked about the importance of democratic institutions and institutions established to protect democracy (i.e. the Chapter 9 institutions). State organs such as the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) have recently come under the spotlight due to the perceived political interference involving their running. The same can be said about the Hawks as well, who have come under scrutiny due to issues regarding their senior management and usage of courts to settle issues of leadership within the institution. The importance of oversight in the KwaZulu-Natal is further stressed by interviewee one who thought that:

“...Yes, there is a need for oversight, for sure. The clear answer is yes, there is a need and the second level to that question is that there is oversight. We can talk about the efficiency of it, which is another subject altogether, but a provincial government will have executive authorities that obviously form the cabinet, together with the premier, who are people that are already providing some form of oversight over their respective departments. Then you have parliament, which is a whole layer of oversight over those executive authorities and is providing some level of removed, less biased mechanisms, to oversee those through various

committees to oversee what's going on in various departments and of course even operationally, the office of the premier coordinates. I mean, in itself it is an office of oversight, because offices of the premier have a DG that is supposed to look into the operation of the entire province, so there is an inbuilt oversight layer in provincial government, then there is a host of constitutional bodies of which the Public Service Commission is a part. They have a presence in each province, so actually, structurally, we have sufficient oversight models. As I said, we can talk about how well this is working.”

Regarding the importance of oversight from a local government standpoint, interviewee two said:

“...Oversight is necessary in any institution, just to make sure we are on the same page. The oversight that CoGTA performs is the oversight role over municipalities and that is one of the six mandates that the constitution gives to provincial government in respect of local government.”

There is no lack of institutions of oversight, although lack of coordination is proving to be problematic, and interviewee one speaks about this and says:

” ...You will even see what is happening in local government. You will see local government and province coordinating in the so-called IGR structures. Those things are weak – with whom does the buck stop? Ok, you now have the structure, but the structures that are even a small step towards coordination are formed, then what clout do they have? Who has been designated as the person? That is the issue. So public administration without strong coordination, with authorities that have sufficient delegation to take action, as well as discretion of those particular authorities, is just pouring. It's like pouring more resources on something. Actually, you are not prescribing the responsibility sufficiently, so there is a relationship between how strong public administration is and corruption on the other side and all of it implicates oversight, because no matter how many levels of oversight you have, if those people can't bite, if those structures can't bite, then there is something missing that is the glue.”

In terms of what oversight seeks to do, it is now clear where the challenges are and how those challenges directly impact on the ability to create an environment that is conducive to oversight. There is acknowledgement amongst the interviewees that the measures to ensure that oversight and checks and balances are in place in the KZN department of COGTA are, however, ineffective. Interviewee two expands on this by saying:

“...A check and balance was put in place. However, in practice, what happens is that political parties have what they call deployment committees who may not even be part of the municipal councils. They are external bodies, but it is those external bodies that decide for the council who should be appointed, so in essence, even the recruitment process is perceived by many to be going through the motions because

there is a predetermined outcome. Now one needs to sit back and ask what is the purpose of doing that, and in many cases what happens is that it facilitates the concept, if you like, of collusion, which is a major problem.”

Furthermore, the lack of oversight in the department leads to an evasion of laws and regulations that have been put in place. Interviewee four laments the lack of decisive action taken by claims:

“...You always hear that so and so got fired because they spent money, then you find that they have been moved into another department. As long as there are systems, people will always find a way of rigging the system, as sad as it is. I have accepted it, but I believe corruption will always be there, because, you see, a man-made thing already has loopholes.”

More of the same is also said by interviewee five who also lambasts the lack of oversight in the department and believes:

“...because there is no oversight and policing. The systems are there to police things like corruption, but the problem is that people who are tasked with policing are not doing their jobs. Somebody is not doing their job.”

Political will is seen as the key towards ensuring oversight and both the political and bureaucratic élite need to act. On this matter, interviewee five says:

“... There must be a political will to curb corruption, from top to bottom.”

This can be seen as an indication that corruption in the department is seen to be driven by the élite and, as a result, they have to take the lead in curbing it.

4.3.2.3 Lack of transparency

In the interviews that were conducted, a great emphasis was placed on the negative impact that corruption has on service delivery. Government officials have acknowledged that the challenge of corruption remains one that they continue to battle against. Interviewee one acknowledges that corruption is secretive and officials do not always have an idea of the goings-on in and around the department. This participant states:

“...Corruption in its very nature is clandestine, Practitioners of corruption are not doing it so that they can be caught, so it is a clandestine form of activity that is done by people knowing very well that they are transgressing ethics. So in its nature

it requires us to be vigilant in a specific way. It requires a specific set of expertise and the set of expertise must balance the making of the public servant, as well as the investigative part.”

Interviewee two also acknowledges that there is not enough knowledge on the extent of the challenge of corruption by saying:

“...We don’t really know the magnitude of the problem.”

The inability of government to be able to at least have a gauge of the extent of the problem may also be problematic when it comes to the measures that are being taken by government to address the challenge of corruption. Moreover, lack of transparency and withholding of information in municipalities and the department in procurement processes and project funding also negatively affects the department’s ability to fight corruption. Interviewee five stated that:

“...I am not happy with the tender process. It is not transparent firstly, and if you had bid for a tender, you just get an SMS informing you that you did not get the tender. It is not transparent.”

The issue of transparency (or lack thereof) seems to be a common feature across local government, regardless of the political party in office. This point is raised by interviewee two who clarified that:

“...when I talk about dominant political parties you will appreciate that I am saying these things because they apply equally, whether it is in an ANC-controlled municipality or an IFP-controlled municipality. The same applies to the recruitment that I was talking about right now.”

The lack of transparency is evident and can be seen as one of the reasons why government battles in establishing exactly where the problem lies. A culture of transparency ought to be created where access to information is easily accessible across all the structures of government. Furthermore, interviewee one laments the lack of transparency of senior government officials regarding asset disclosure of senior managers by saying:

“...We ask government officials, and for now we focused on mainly the senior management to declare things they do outside public service, to declare even their properties, to declare cars, to declare remunerative work outside of public service. Why? Because we want to track whether there is potential conflict or there is actual conflict, in which case if there is actual conflict the responsible executive authorities must act. If you just take that example, people sometimes think that this

is done because government is nit-picking in their business and because government is such a difficult space, but it is done so that you declare it., It is not a crime necessarily to do other things in life, but it must be declared so that there is tracking of potential interest and some authority is able to monitor and say, 'You know what, you have a business of buses and you are working in the transport section of the department of education, so there is a potential conflict of interest."

On this matter, interviewee one also goes on to argue that:

"... before we even talk corruption that has been identified, you can see even in things like financial disclosures, things don't add up, and maybe you want to say I'm rather harsh because things don't add up and I don't know the background of these people. They have four cars and eleven properties and they are merely a director at a particular place, but sometimes you find that okay. Fine, if you think I'm harsh, you find that that was not disclosed. We had, as the public service commission, to dig, to go into this for cars, to go to directors CIPC for... and then eventually we find out that this person also owns companies, this person has so many cars. They had declared one, so between the fact that it does not add up which can be explained in other ways, and the fact that this person did not disclose, something is dodgy."

If government itself, as well as institutions, are not able to ensure transparency at an administrative level, it becomes difficult to reinforce it externally because the culture of non-transparency is already created and is something in which all the stakeholders partake.

4.3.3 Corruption in recruitment, procurement and its impact on service delivery

The existence of corruption is seen to be most prevalent in the two respective units and special emphasis is often placed on ensuring that there is a sound recruitment procedure or ensuring that all tender processes are followed. Such emphasis becomes important because of what is at stake: the delivering of efficient service delivery to the people. Since the beginning of the democratic dispensation, the most important function of government has been to ensure efficient service delivery. Any policy created has been designed with the objective of achieving that goal. Corruption in mostly developing countries denies citizens access to basic services such as water, education and, in some instances, health care (Graycar, 2016:88). Such an instance is also mentioned by interviewee two who states:

"...We have cases or allegations at this stage where in a particular municipality you would find that there are allegations of cases where the political principals would instruct the workers on the water pipelines to close certain valves so that

this area would run dry and then there is a fleet of privately-owned water tankers that are now hired by that municipality to deliver water.”

The participant further goes on to say:

“...The water is freely available, it’s just that the valve has been closed. So you can immediately see that there is an element of corruption there which is certainly impacting on service delivery and again it’s the community that are the biggest losers.”

Even the senior leadership of KZN COGTA has acknowledged the dangerous effect that corruption can have on public services. When commenting on a corruption scandal involving a senior official in the department, which involved embezzling an amount estimated to be close to 7 million rand, MEC Nomusa Ncube-Dube acknowledged that fraud and corruption hurts service delivery and the upliftment of the community (Khoza, 2015). Furthermore, there seems to be an awareness of the negative impact of corruption on service delivery from interviewee six who states:

“...See, corruption compromises service delivery. Two, corruption has a direct impact on the economy of the country, coming back to the issue of compromising service delivery. You will know that one. When people are driven by corruption, you may find yourself appointing people who are not credible to do the work for government. I am referring to consultants or service providers, because they are already driven by the goal to gain something in return. So that compromises government. Also, there is a social and economic responsibility by government. With corruption, all the monies that are used for service delivery are diverted to something other than doing what they are primarily reserved for, hence I am saying it has an inevitable impact on the economic and social responsibility of the government.”

A common challenge for developing economies is that resources are always at a premium, so there is hardly an oversupply of resources to assist in ensuring adequate service delivery. As a result of this, corruption takes away from the already limited resources that could have been better used elsewhere. Moreover, in most instances, the benefactors of corruption are hardly people in need. In addition, interviewee two reaffirms the notion of corruption’s negative impact on service delivery by noting that:

“...Certainly, in many ways, corruption must have an impact on service delivery. So if your tender processes are interfered with, the community may not be getting the right contractors for the job, they may be paying far too much for the work that is being done, so in other words you’re not getting value for money, There are issues

of specifications possibly not being adhered to in the actual implementation of the project, so you end up with substandard roads, reservoirs that might crack after six months etc. and in many many cases you can take that back to the fact that there was corruption in the SCM process.”

In saying this, not only does corruption cripple infrastructure and service allocations for the poor, but it also negatively affects government’s relationship with service providers who are supposed to be able to work hand in hand with government in ensuring adequate service delivery. On this matter, interviewee five states that:

“...It has a very negative impact on service delivery because they take companies with very little experience, when there are other companies with experience and that hurts service delivery because the person who ends up getting the tender does not have experience. They only got the opportunity because they paid a kickback.”

Then further continues to say:

“...A qualified person would have rendered the service the way it is supposed to be.”

There is general agreement from various stakeholders that corruption does indeed negatively impact on service delivery. Moreover, corruption has both a direct and indirect impact on service delivery. The direct impact is in the shortage of infrastructure and denial of access to resources which ultimately means that essential services are not delivered or the quality of the service is compromised. The indirect impact is more of a monetary nature, as corruption costs the national government billions of rands annually, and provincially KwaZulu-Natal also has acknowledged that corruption is costing the province. The province of KwaZulu-Natal accounted for the highest irregular expenditure for the 2016-2017 financial year with an estimated 7.8 billion rands in irregular expenditure (Shange, 2017). While it is not possible to fully measure the extent of corruption or the cost of corruption, it is certainly possible to see how corruption affects service delivery, as well as efforts to uplift the poor. Moreover, open acknowledgement of corruption and its effect from a government perspective is also an indication of how corruption is hindering service delivery in provincial and local governments. Another effect of corruption can be seen in the form of a ‘brain drain’ in the public sector. As a result of this ‘brain drain’, government is not able to attract the best talent or skills available in the labour market. Perceptions of unfair processes and corruption in the recruitment procedures hurt government efforts to recruit the best people. If

government is unable to attract the cream of the crop when it comes to skilled professionals, service delivery is in that way indirectly compromised.

4.3.4 Measures in place to curb corruption

This subsection presents measures in place to curb corruption in the public sector.

4.3.4.1 Recreating culture in the public service

The KwaZulu-Natal department of CoGTA and relevant stakeholders acknowledge that corruption is indeed a challenge and has many negative effects on the department's ability to deliver adequate service delivery. Any strategy that seeks to curb corruption must include good governance, because good governance (or lack thereof) can have a direct impact on whether or not institutions are able to curb corruption and get rid of the culture of impunity (Hoseah, 2014:388). On this point, interviewee one also acknowledges the importance of a culture of honesty in the public service by saying:

“...Corruption is a challenge because we don’t have a culture in the first place that prescribes what kind of person we want. Therefore people still think that being messy and being unaccountable in the first instance, which is the first step actually, or at the extreme, being blatantly corrupt or doing dodgy things, are options, so it is a challenge.”

The effects of the culture created are further lambasted by interviewee one who also says:

“...No, they are not afraid to be incompetent, they are not afraid to be corrupt and when they are caught they think it’s just bad luck actually, because they think it’s normal to do it.”

The participant also goes on to add that:

“...we haven’t created the right professional ambience around who are you if you are a public servant, regardless of whether you are in education or health or public works or what values you must embody as the public servant. We haven’t done that. I think that is a major major thing.”

Organisational culture is an important factor when dealing with corruption. This extends beyond the local or provincial administrative but rather comes from the top. Interviewee six further expands on this by claiming:

“... I think people need to be reminded of why they are employed and why they are in these positions that they are holding. So the first should be ongoing training on Batho-Pele principles because Batho-Pele principles play a fundamental role in

terms of reminding us of why we're in the positions we're in and the importance of the positions we holding in the department. It talks about courtesy, people first and all those standards of service being provided, so I think for me, constant and continuous training in terms of Batho-Pele principles is key, but also to enforce compliance to the policies that have been introduced by both departments as a whole. We have, for example, developed through the OTP (Office of the Premier) a policy on conflict of interest, that needs to be enforced in terms of implementation, because it minimises corrupt activities because people are slowly becoming aware of what is right and what is not right."

Interviewee one also reiterates the importance of culture in government by saying:

"...we need to be less reactive and more proactive in the promotion of professional ethics, which is where the Public Service Commission is really now trying to zoom its energies to. Let's change the culture to promoting... such that last year, 2017 for example, we worked quite hard to workshop everyone in the OTP (Office of the Premier) because that office is important for us, to understand constitutional values and principles, this thing that we call CVPs around professional ethics. We think that before we extinguish fires around corruption, let us work with them, to work with the rest of the departments, to try and formulate the type of a public servant that we want. We say this to a public servant through induction programmes and the ongoing promotion of professional ethics."

The commitment to a culture change has also been seen through the Back-to-Basics initiative that the provincial government has created. The Back-to-Basics initiative is guided by the Batho-Pele Principles outlined by the department, with the aim of ensuring that service delivery objectives are met and there is a people-centred public service. On this matter, interviewee one states that:

"...a lot still needs to be done around just changing the culture."

4.3.4.2 Strengthening of oversight institutions

In order to effectively deal with corruption, as noted in subsection 4.3.2.2, oversight plays an important role in making that remotely possible. Not only is oversight needed to prevent corruption, it is needed to ensure that those who have committed corruption are effectively dealt with. On this point, interviewee four says:

"...there is corruption everywhere. It is just about proper implementation of the measures so that people will be hindered. It is the only way."

The participant further goes on to contend that government should:

“...make examples out of the people that get caught, because corruption, you'll never take it away, but you can instil fear in them.”

Interviewee two expands on the oversight role the department of CoGTA plays in installing measures that prevent corruption from happening by stating that:

“...we as a province, KZN, actually drafted the first terms of reference and composition of what is today known as MPACT (Municipal Public Account Committees) which were put in place. Although they have no legislative base at this stage, they were put in place to improve the question of oversight.”

The participant further goes on to mention the various measures that have been taken in the department, saying:

“...We have taken quite a number of measures. Let us start with the pre-emptive measures. We have a programme currently underway, in which we are putting in place sort of anti-corruption programmes in each municipality that would include also a fraud risk register, so in essence we are trying to pull together within each of the municipalities a preventative process, dealing with anti-corruption etc. We have also ensured that in every municipality there are functional audit committees in place. I've already alluded to the MPACTs that are in place, and again we are just going back to the portfolio committees to improve that side of things. Those are all preventative measures, if I can call them that. If you have got that properly in place, it makes taking part in corruption a lot more difficult, if you have proper oversight. However, of course, there will be those cases that slip through the nets, so we have established an investigative unit within the department, so where we receive allegations of fraud or corruption or maladministration, the MEC will use section 106 of the systems act and we will launch formal forensic investigations. Sometimes there are far too many of them, but we do have those processes in place and we follow them through. In other words, we go through a process where we will investigate the allegations, we will have a report with findings and investigations. The MEC is briefed on that.”

The importance of oversight lies in the fact that if there is coordination between all relevant stakeholders, it becomes possible to enforce oversight. Moreover, each oversight body in its respective capacity is able to play a role. CoGTA plays a role of oversight at the local municipal level, the Public Service Commission plays a role at the provincial level and the legislative committees in parliament play an oversight role from a legislative standpoint. All the respective oversight bodies work towards ensuring that there is adequate oversight and that a system of checks and balances is created.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented the results of the study. The results section was further divided into two sections consisting of a quantitative section and a qualitative section. Survey results indicated that graduates would like to work in the public sector upon graduation. In addition, although survey participants indicated that they would like to work in the public sector upon graduation, a huge chunk of the participants indicated that they do not believe the recruitment processes of the department to be free and fair. Moreover, a huge majority of the survey participants said that they believe corruption is prevalent in the recruitment processes of the department. In the qualitative segment of the study, causes of corruption which included greed and lack of oversight were cited as reasons why corruption continued to exist in the department. In addition, the impact of corruption on service delivery from the participants' perspective was also looked at in this chapter, including overpricing of services and companies getting tender opportunities they do not meritiously deserve.

CHAPTER FIVE

OVERALL DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

Public sector corruption has become an issue that South Africans have continued to express concern about. Furthermore, scholarly research on the subject of corruption has attracted traction from the general public and the academic community at large. In this chapter, the researcher provides a contextual discussion of the results and its implications on service delivery, along with other factors that may affect service delivery such as politicisation of services and political violence in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, measuring attitudes towards service delivery satisfaction from a citizen's perspective, along with trust in public institutions tasked with providing service delivery.

5.2. Overall discussion of results

Recruitment in the public service remains a key component of the government's long-term strategic vision. If the right people in terms of skill, experience and expertise are hired to fill vacant positions, then each department will be better able to meet its institutional and service delivery objectives (Phago, 2016:620). As discussed in the literature review chapter, public servants, according to Masenya (2017:150), play an important role in their respective positions as policy-makers, gate-keepers and implementers. These public officials, in other words, help ensure that the government is able to distribute resources adequately and efficiently. Historically, some public sector appointments have been riddled with recruitment irregularities. Even ministers and senior government officials are hired without their ability to perform the task at hand having been assessed (Koenane and Mangena, 2017:71). As a result, and in order to avoid this occurrence, it is of utmost importance that the recruitment processes in the public sector offer fair opportunities for all citizens. In addition, these processes also need to attract the best skilled personnel in the labour market.

It is essential that the public sector is seen as a good career destination for young professionals. It is not enough for the public sector to create an environment of transparency and trust, which means giving assurance to the public about recruitment processes; the image of the public service

recruitment process needs to be protected. The public sector is the main driver behind service delivery and therefore a public service that thrives on an efficient and accountable public service with Batho-Pele principles can ensure that service delivery is a realistic, attainable goal (Franks, 2014:51). Through the usage of Batho-Pele principles such as consultation, openness and transparency, one is able to ensure that there is adequate communication between the public service and members of communities.

Transparency can be achieved by informing the public about the functioning of the municipality and the costs of certain municipal services (Mofolo and Smith, 2009:493-438). In order to do this, government has to constantly recruit and deploy skilled personnel in order to ensure that service delivery objectives are met. Skills shortage remains a challenge in every South African sector, but government feels the pinch of a severe skills shortage in and around the public sector (Plant and Padotan, 2017:36). Moreover, Kock and Burke (2008:5) notes that because there is already a skills shortage in the country, the public service faces more competition from the private sector. This presents a huge challenge, because high-level professionals are critical in providing service delivery. Corruption in the recruitment processes further undermines government progress. For example, a recruitment process riddled with irregularities compromises the credibility of the said appointment, and in addition, this may result in the loss of skilled technocrats who may not want to apply for public sector vacancies because of the perceived unfairness of the recruitment processes. Such a point is also observed by Fourie and Poggenpoel (2017:171), who state that service delivery hindrances involve incompetent public servants, along with bad human resources practices, in the public sector. Consequently, this has resulted in public protests against local municipalities in some instances. In the province of KZN, there have been a series of high profile community protests against corruption and nepotism in local municipalities (Mantzaris and Pillay, 2017:69).

Upon appointing public servants, whether senior or junior, critical or non-critical, the culture of being public service delivery-orientated can make for an efficient public service, regardless of rank or occupation. It is important to note that the trust that citizens bestow on government is significantly different from other types of trust. The foundation of political trust, according to Pillay (2017:33), is formed on the basis of good governance and ethical integrity of public servants

and government officials across all levels of society. If there is trust, it is likely to exist across all spheres and units of government, and that lack of trust is also likely to be across all units within government. This is important because it is not merely enough to ensure that citizens trust in recruitment processes in the public sector, but rather to ensure that citizens trust any public sector-led process, whether it is participation, recruitment or procurement.

Corruption has affected the relationship between the public and government. Evidence of this can be seen in the overwhelmingly negative response to questions about trust in the recruitment processes in the public sector, as observed in the previous chapter. Acts of corruption such as nepotism in the recruitment processes and the use of recruitment as a tool for private gain undermines public faith in the public sector (Bruce, 2014:25). As a result, the recruitment process is not spared from this lack of trust. There is a broken relationship and a lack of public confidence in the local governance system which is further demonstrated by the rise of municipal protests over service delivery (Ndevu and Muller, 2016:16). Furthermore, corruption causes a pessimistic attitude towards public service and a strong distrust in the services provided by the public sector (Uslaner, 2008:186). Such an occurrence is not only common, but also answers one of the research questions posed in this chapter regarding the relationship between service delivery and corruption.

In the labour market, workers have a choice of either working in the private or public sector. In most instances, public sector remuneration packages tend to be lower than those in the private sector, and this is especially common with skilled workers and middle management positions (Morton and Blair, 2016). Moreover, corruption acts in the public sector may motivate workers to partake in such schemes due to the lure of instant cash injection and potentially better living conditions (Coolidge and Rose-Ackerman, 2000:65). Administrative patrimonialism sees recruitment and remuneration being based on political affiliation and political patronage. According to Yanguas and Bukenya (2016:138), this can be understood as an extension of the neopatrimonialism phenomenon that had crept into the public sector.

Dysfunctional structures in government allow corruption to flourish and this may include lack of accountability and political involvement in the appointing of key figures in democracy-protecting institutions (Forson et al., 2016:566). Human resources departments, as structures, are critical in government because these departments ensure the recruiting, skilling and maintenance of good

labour relations conditions. If recruitment in the public sector is infested by acts of corruption, then it creates a relationship of distrust between the citizens and government. It is worth mentioning that recruitment, especially of senior staff in government, is likely to be more affected by acts of corruption because of the lucrative nature of the posts and the influence that comes with occupying such positions. This has severe implications for the relationship between the state and the citizens. Senior officials are often viewed as being part of an élite class of workers, rather than as part and parcel of the general public sector workforce whose primary duty is to serve the people. In addition, trust is ruined by corrupt activities in recruitment processes which result in a lack of credibility in the entire procedure of hiring (Chêne, 2015:2).

As discussed in both the literature review chapter and the analysis section, there is a clear relationship between corruption in the procurement unit and service delivery. Legal procurement procedures can aid government in being able to provide quality service delivery, according to Zitha, Sebola and Mamabolo (2016:72). Additionally, public procurement plays an important role in the public sector, because any public institution that requires resources ought to go through a procurement process. If those procurement processes are unethical or corrupt, it impedes the government's ability to meet its deliverables (Mazibuko and Fourie, 2017:109). Due to the high amount of money spent on procurement, corruption within this unit cripples a public institution in terms of its ability to provide adequate service delivery. In addition, this type of corruption also hampers the institution financially because of the unaccounted money that would have been lost due to the corrupt procurement procedure. This point is further made by Mantarazis (2017:124-125), who states that “[c]orruption in South Africa SCM and procurement has occurred throughout the public spectrum and at all government layers.”

The absence of transparency and accountability in procurement systems leads to corruption and misuse of funds. Such abuse can cost the country's taxpayers billions of rands. The financial implications of corruption in the supply chain processes are mostly felt by citizens who are deprived of services they otherwise would have been able to access, had it not been for acts of corruption in the processes. An illustration of this is provided by Steyn-Kotze (2018:110), who points out that an Auditor-General report in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipality showed that the municipality accounted for more than 65% of irregular expenditure related to procurement and 17

instances of tenders awarded to close families totalling over R7 million. Through such instances of neopatrimonialism, it can be observed that families who are closely connected to the political and government élite end up benefiting from such relationships. In saying this, the relationship between corruption and service delivery lies in the fact that when corruption occurs, service delivery is the biggest loser. As discussed in the literature review section, any act of corruption that occurs in the public sector detracts from potential service delivery. Moreover, as can be seen in the previous chapter, even if there was an availability of resources enabling service delivery, it is taken away by the act of corruption.

A municipal study conducted by Mphele (2012:223) revealed that there was a feeling amongst officials in municipalities that BEE status was being abused by élites, mainly through procurement contracts, to accumulate wealth for themselves. Such sentiments, unfortunately, have become a common feature in procurement deals at the municipal level. Such deals are often riddled with irregularities and unethical acts such as bribery, fraud and corruption. The procurement units are usually the weakest link in most municipalities, because these units are where most acts of fraud and corruption usually occur (Mle and Maclean, 2011:1373). As previously observed, procurement has been used as a tool to correct past injustices by providing business opportunities for previously-disadvantaged groups and also service delivery to citizens at large. The two otherwise noble acts are undermined by acts of corruption, which in turn has a ripple effect on service delivery and government efficiency.

Causes of corruption, as discussed in the previous chapter, have been attributed to greed. According to Van der Merwe (2006:38), greed was one of the main reasons behind corruption, accompanied by a lack of ethics and, moreover, it is mostly evident in developing countries that greed tends to be the main driver behind corruption (Graycar, 2015:89). The lure of instant financial wealth through corrupt dealings can seem too tempting to turn down. The widespread nature of corruption from low-level workers to senior management means that greed is the common causal factor. A lack of oversight results in ineffective accountability which leaves the country effectively vulnerable to acts of corruption (Malapane, 2015:864). Mubangizi and Tshishonga (2013:306) state that “oversight in the political science sense refers to the process of monitoring and safeguarding a political process”. Lack of oversight enables corrupt acts to spread

within an organisation. Instances of élitist practices can be observed mainly through the lack of accountability. Senior government and political figures are, by virtue of being affiliated to certain individuals, able to get away with unethical acts of corruption. The supervisory and surveillance functions attached to political oversight are paramount in preventing the abuse of power, especially by politicians and the politically-connected élite. This is discussed in the previous chapter where the lack of oversight was described as a corruption enabler. This was a sentiment that was shared by stakeholders from the department of CoGTA, officials and business.

Enforcing oversight is a crucial aspect of any democracy, as it enables accountability and transparency. If that element of oversight is lost, then acts of corruption are likely to take advantage of it. Patronage networks and élite political-government relationships thrive on the lack of oversight in government. The CoGTA Department itself is an oversight body which is required to exercise oversight over municipalities. This is made difficult, however, if the department itself has its own challenges of corruption. In a democratic context, political oversight plays a pivotal role in safeguarding democracy, while at the same time maintaining democratic ideals. Furthermore, lack of transparency in local government is also given as a possible reason for the cause of corruption. By its very nature, corruption thrives on secrecy and evasiveness. All three causes of corruption are discussed in detail in the previous chapter which answer one of the research questions posed in the introductory chapter.

Measuring attitudes towards societal issues helps to determine and understand the scope of what citizens view as a challenge or hindrance in South Africa today. SASAS data indicated that corruption is now a top-three problem. Looking at Table 5.1, the data indicates that there has been an increase in concern regarding service delivery in South Africa. Nearly a quarter of the population (24.5%) lists service delivery as a major challenge, which is the highest it has been since the survey began in 2003. Alexander (2010) states that since 2004, South Africa has seen a rise in service delivery protests and on the surface it looks as if the protests are about lack of service delivery, and against self-serving leaders in municipal offices. In early 2017, the Nquthu Municipality was dissolved as a result of the 2016 elections where no local political party could obtain a majority vote. Ngubane (2017), states that the Nquthu municipality was left without a mayor or deputy mayor after six failed attempts to elect a council, including a failed attempt

through intervention by the KZN department of CoGTA. The biggest losers of a dissolved municipality are the residents of it, who may not have their service needs provided because of political and administrative affairs beyond their control.

Table 5.1. Tabulation of Multiple Responses on the Three Most Important Challenges Facing South Africa Today:

Tabulation of Multiple Responses on the Three Most Important Challenges Facing South Africa Today													
Year	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
HIV/AIDS	48.5	49.9	45.7	47.0	49.6	51.3	46.0	39.3	46.8	30.9	23.5	22.0	16.9
Unemployment	78.4	80.3	82.3	72.1	72.2	69.6	74.4	68.9	76.7	76.2	75.5	73.5	77.7
Racism	5.1	4.0	3.0	4.2	4.7	4.8	4.1	4.0	7.0	4.7	5.0	5.2	4.1
Xenophobia	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.7	2.2	5.5	3.8	4.9	5.6	4.8	3.0	4.9	4.8
Crime and safety	46.7	47.6	42.2	48.5	50.1	46.9	47.2	45.2	42.7	48.1	50.3	45.4	45.7
Service provision/delivery	11.9	10.9	20.9	19.2	15.9	12.7	14.5	18.6	14.9	16.6	21.7	19.6	24.5
Affordable housing	12.7	13.0	14.2	14.3	11.7	10.0	8.6	9.8	8.9	9.4	10.6	7.3	10.6
Land reform issues	2.3	1.6	2.2	2.6	2.6	2.1	1.7	2.7	2.7	1.9	2.3	2.9	3.2
Human rights	2.1	2.1	2.7	3.7	4.3	4.1	2.7	3.5	3.8	3.2	3.0	4.0	2.6
Education	9.4	8.4	9.2	11.5	8.2	8.1	9.5	15.3	12.4	13.1	11.4	15.1	16.6
Economic and financial issues	5.2	4.5	4.9	5.0	6.0	7.6	7.7	4.5	4.6	6.1	5.9	7.3	7.0
Work-related issues	2.0	2.6	4.2	2.3	2.8	2.2	2.0	3.0	4.6	3.4	2.0	3.4	3.6
Family and youth issues	1.8	2.5	1.5	3.0	4.4	2.5	2.2	3.2	2.2	2.2	3.2	5.8	3.4
Religion and culture issues	0.6	0.7	0.5	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.4	1.1	1.1
Environmental issues	3.1	2.5	3.7	2.1	2.6	2.8	1.8	3.3	1.9	2.5	3.5	3.2	4.1
Political issues	2.2	1.3	3.1	1.7	4.6	7.5	4.5	4.9	4.4	4.1	4.6	6.3	5.4
Corruption	9.3	11.2	11.5	12.6	14.6	13.8	17.5	19.0	25.7	27.5	25.1	24.4	30.0
Poverty	38.4	39.3	36.5	31.3	30.2	41.4	42.3	39.7	26.9	33.2	31.7	31.5	24.6
Other	6.4	4.9	5.6	6.5	2.4	3.0	2.3	3.6	2.3	6.4	8.9	5.8	9.0
(Do not know/irrelevant)	3.7	1.5	1.2	2.2	2.0	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4

Source: South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) 2003-2015

Note: Data are weighted to be nationally representative of the adult (16 years and older).

The province of KwaZulu-Natal has a dark past regarding political violence in the country. During the political transition between 1985 and 1994, the country experienced violent tensions between the IFP and ANC. Over the course of this nine-year period, political violence resulted in an estimated death of 15,000 people as a result of this conflict nationally (Schuld, 2013). The period between 1987-1990 saw political violence between the IFP and the United Democratic Front (UDF) which resulted in the deaths of more than 4,000 across the country (Johnston, 1997). It is also worth noting that political violence in South Africa was not something unique to the province of KwaZulu-Natal only, but the conflicts in that province have attracted more attention. This could be due to the fact that the violence in KwaZulu-Natal is seen as endemic and could be more politically de-stabilising due to the historic implications (Johnston, 1997:79). As observed earlier, the province of KwaZulu-Natal is only one of two provinces in South Africa to have gone through provincial government regime change since 1994. The province was governed by the IFP from 1994 until 2004 and has been governed by an ANC-led government from 2004 until the present day.

Political violence in KZN is significant because it poses questions around politicisation of service delivery in a province that is a two party-dominated province, with the IFP and the ANC asserting their dominance. On the days leading up to 2016 local elections, there was a spate of service delivery protests in and around the province. Singh (2016) states that one of the service delivery protests was dismissed as being politically motivated by one of the ANC councilors who was responding to the protests in North of Durban. IEC results from 2016 local elections indicate that there are three main political parties in KZN: the ANC obtained 57.48% of the support, the IFP obtained 18.39% and the Democratic Alliance (DA) obtained 15.16% (IEC elections leaderboard (Table 5.2)). It should also be noted that, from a local municipal election standpoint, the province of KwaZulu-Natal has always been dominated by these three political parties who have consistently gained double figure percentage of the electoral votes. This is an indication that there has been a lot of political opposition within the province which makes the politicisation of service delivery more or less unavoidable due to the level of competition, especially within the opposition.

Politicisation in relation to service delivery can take place in two ways: intra-political infighting and inter-political infighting. Considering the province's history and with both the ANC and IFP still having governance interests within the province, politicised service delivery may still be a factor. The rise of the National Freedom Party in the 2011 local elections presented a new dynamic to the KZN political landscape. Its formation resulted in the deflection of senior IFP members, including 49 of the 62 IFP councilors who defected to the NFP just days after it was created, including and arguably the most controversial one being the defection of Mrs. Sanelisiwe Audrey Mncwango who is married to IFP national organiser, Mr. Albert Mncwango (Sithole, 2011). Violence broke out in 2012 between the NFP and IFP supporters in kwaMashu in the build-up to a by-election in the area. This violence resulted in NFP leader Zanele kaMagwaza Msibi being barred from entering the kwaMashu A-section area (Mail and Guardian, 2012). Furthermore, it should be noted that, although this outbreak of violence cannot be compared to the magnitude of the violence that took place in the 1990s involving the IFP, ANC and UDM, tensions between the NFP and the IFP serve as a reminder of the political bloodshed that was once experienced in KZN.

Table 5.2 KZN Local municipal elections results

KZN LOCAL MUNICIPAL ELECTIONS							
YEAR 2000	Results	YEAR 2006	Results	YEAR 2011	Results	2016	Results
IFP	45.44%	IFP	35.61%	IFP	15.8%	IFP	18.39%
ANC	35.13%	ANC	47.56%	ANC	56.79%	ANC	57.48%
DA	14.78%	DA	9.24%	DA	11.88%	DA	15.16%
NFP	N/A	NFP	N/A	NFP	3.57%	NFP	N/A

*Data accessed from IEC official website

The table above displays three-party domination and strict competition amongst the opposition, especially during the 2011 and 2016 elections. It should also be noted that the emergence of the NFP in the 2011 local elections may have played a role in the decline of the IFP, while their absence in the 2016 local elections signalled an increase for both the IFP and the DA.

Observers saw a resurgence of the political killings in the province in 2016. The importance of this cannot be ignored, as political violence and threats of intimidation can play an indirect role in the provision of service delivery for citizens. There were an estimated 36 politically-motivated killings in KZN leading up to the 2016 local elections (Matiwane, 2017:2). While most of the reported killings have been from the ruling party, there have been few arrests made in connection with these cases. Conflict resulting in bloodbaths within the ANC is nothing new, however, as many well-publicised internal party conflicts have resulted in deaths of ANC members. After the expulsion of Sifiso Nkabande from the ANC in 1997, a fresh wave of political violence in the Richmond area broke out. This outbreak resulted in the deaths of 120 people (Bruce, 2013). KZN violence monitor and analyst, Mary de Haas, further pointed out that factions and killings in the party are an historic occurrence. She stated that:

“[f]or example, Senzo Mchunu’s supporters were opposed to Willies Mchunu’s. There was speculation at the time that Phillip Dlamini who died in Ntshanga took the bullet for the eThekwini mayor, James Nxumalo, who was due at the meeting at which he was killed, or the preferred candidate for the area” (Mail and Guardian, 2016).

Furthermore, De Haas (2016: 48) notes that in the inter-political violence that was observed in the province in the lead-up to the 2016 local elections, there were twenty political deaths, three from the NFP, three from the IFP and fourteen from the ANC.

The politicisation of service delivery not only leads to a lack of service delivery, but also results in the loss of valuable lives due to differences in political opinions. It is important that such factors are taken into due consideration in the political landscape because service delivery cannot be attainable in a hostile political environment. Furthermore, these factors only compound the challenges that make service delivery unattainable. The KwaZulu-Natal department of CoGTA in the province ought to play a leading role in ensuring that the corruption that is crippling the province is dealt with and obstacles that stand in the way of service delivery are addressed. Political tension in the province can only have a negative effect on service delivery. It is also worth noting that all political parties involved in the municipal governance of the province should collaborate, regardless of political differences, and ensure that those political tensions do not interfere with the running of the municipalities.

5.3. Conclusion

South Africa as a country has faced several societal challenges of which some, through various interventions of government, have been successfully navigated. Corruption, much like other societal issues, needs similar interventions, which ought to be done through government, and a main requirement of this is political will. Furthermore, citizen sentiments on these societal issues are important because citizens are the primary stakeholders in any democracy. Without citizens, there is no democracy and legitimacy. In order also to deal adequately with the challenge of corruption, there must be a measurement of it and its impact on service delivery. Moreover, corruption in the long term affects the state's ability to control its finances and maintain fiscal prudence which is always encouraged when it comes to government expenditure.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This presents the last chapter of the research. The purpose of this study was to look at the impact of corruption and recruitment within local government and its impact on service delivery, using the department of Cooperative Governance as a case study. As this is the concluding chapter of the research, all chapters are brought together, which will be done to in order to show how the respective sections managed to fulfil the objectives of the study which are outlined in the introductory chapter and provide a holistic view of the topic in its entirety. Moreover, recommendations for future studies are also made in this chapter.

6.2 Summary

This research consists of six chapters. Chapter one presents an overview of the study, detailing the research objectives and research questions to be answered in this research. The second chapter provides the literature review of the study, including similar studies that have been conducted on the research subject. A broader conceptual underpinning of corruption is also emphasised in the second chapter. The third chapter is used to detail the research methodology that is used to conduct this research, including the data collection methods and analyses that are used in this study, and it includes both the qualitative and quantitative research methods of data collection and data analysis. The fourth chapter detailed the analysis of results of the data collected. As this was a mixed study, the data analysis was divided into two sections, the quantitative and qualitative segments. Chapter five provided a discussion of the findings. In this section, the researcher provided an interpretative analytical perspective of what the results mean going forward. Furthermore, this chapter concluded by providing recommendations for the improvement of service delivery and the curbing of corruption in the public sector. Lastly, the concluding chapter of this research provided concluding reflections from the researcher, along with potential future studies that could be looked at in relation to this academic topic and details the contributions a study of this nature can make in the field of research.

6.3. Recommendations on how to improve service delivery and curb corruption in the public sector

6.3.1 Revisiting the current decentralisation model

The public sector is the major role player in ensuring service delivery and its efficiency can ensure that services are delivered at a much quicker rate to those who need to access them. It is generally accepted that in developing countries, people tend to feel as if they have no control over the government and this therefore makes decentralisation important, in order to make for good resource allocation and get the government closer to the people (Mahwood, 1993:13). According to Curristine, Lonti and Joumard (2007: 9), a key component of public sector service delivery is decentralisation, which works best in ensuring efficient services using fiscal and political decentralisation and makes it easier for local governments to provide services to local communities. This is based on the premise that decentralisation makes for effective democracy because there is more direct accountability from citizens to the local politicians, therefore creating room for effective citizen engagement in the local government sphere (Cheema and Rondinelli, 2007:60). In South Africa, decentralisation occurs through the three spheres of government which are national, provincial and local government. Political interference within all three aspects undermines any decentralisation because the point of decentralisation is not only to ensure lack of interference administratively, but politically it is also to ensure independence, which enables each arm of government to meet its respective mandate.

According to Jackson (2016:750), local government resources take a strain because they tend to be captured by the political élite, which therefore creates room for corruption and a lack of local government accountability. In South Africa, however, decentralisation has not yielded the positive results desired, the main reason behind this being an overly complex design which does not enable good efficient service delivery (Koelble and Siddle, 2014: 1118). Moreover, “in South Africa, the process of fiscal decentralisation has yet to produce the expected results. Specifically in recent years, South Africa has been experiencing growing dissatisfaction with service delivery at the local level. In fact, local municipalities in South Africa have hitherto been plagued by significant service delivery and backlog challenges, poor financial management, corruption and poor capacity due to lack of skills. This situation has resulted in a great number of local municipalities being in financial distress and a loss of confidence and trust in local governments.” (Monkam, 2014:275). The

failures of decentralisation in South Africa are the main reason cited for the challenges in local government and as a result the challenges in service delivery. Perhaps revisiting the decentralisation model that is currently practised may be worthwhile in ensuring adequate service delivery and corruption limitation.

Intergovernmental relations have been earmarked as a key component of South Africa's new democracy. According to Venter (2007:85), intergovernmental relations describes the relationship between national, provincial and local governments. Moreover, intergovernmental relations looks to create an efficient state that is able to deliver services to the people using the three spheres of government. The KZN department of CoGTA through the intergovernmental relations framework ought to play a more involved role in ensuring that there is clear coordination between the three spheres of government. As can be noted in Nene (2016:31), there is significant overlap in the roles and functions between provincial and local governments, together with district and local municipalities, which often leads to issues over coordination and responsibilities. Through the coordination of the department, maintenance of good intergovernmental relations would enable an adequate resource and capacity split, especially between local and provincial government. In addition, the department would play a role in ensuring that there is a clear distinction in the roles of both local and provincial government. It is imperative that a good intergovernmental relationship needs local government under the guidance of the department of CoGTA to develop an intergovernmental relations policy which can enable service delivery (Mathebula, 2011:1426).

6.3.2 Improving Public Participation

Public participation is a crucial element of a democracy such as South Africa's, because it enables the citizens to express themselves and communicate their grievances or satisfaction to their elected government (Draai and Taylor, 2009:112). Section 7 152 of the South African constitution sets out the following Objectives of Local Government: (1) The objects of local government are (a) to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities; (b) to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; (c) to promote social and economic development; (d) to promote a safe and healthy environment; and (e) to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government. (2) A municipality must strive, within its financial and administrative capacity, to achieve the objects set

out in subsection (1). 16.1 Of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 32 of 2000 (the Municipal Systems Act) which encourages direct participation in decision-making: A municipality must develop a culture of municipal government that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance. It must, for this purpose, encourage and create conditions for the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality (and) contribute to building the capacity of (1) the local community to enable it to participate in the affairs of the municipality and (2) councillors and staff to foster community participation.

An environment of governmental accountability is also created, because through public participation, citizens get to hold government directly accountable and government gets to account directly to the citizens. Masango (2002) defines public participation as the process of getting citizens to be involved and to actively participate in the issues at stake. He further states that in public participation it is important to appreciate the dynamics involved in participation, because not every issue of participation will involve the entire community. In order for citizens to be able to exercise their power, they ought to actively participate in the decision-making through democratic processes in governance (Masango, 2009:124). It is through active participation that citizens are able to play a meaningful role in a democratic process. As stated by Boyseen (2009), electoral participation is the foremost most crucial form of participation that can legitimise a democracy and, in South Africa, citizen participation has remained credibly high when it comes to elections, both at national and local level. However, electoral participation occurs once over a period of time, therefore it cannot be sustainable in a democracy that encourages accountability and citizen engagement.

The ‘ladder of participation’ by Sherry Arnstein is a famous citizen participation model which outlines the different levels of participation that can be found in most democratic societies. There are various methods in which citizens can effectively participate and engage with a government, which include Izimbizo, public forums and community meetings. One of the most common methods of public participation in the South African democratic landscape is that of Imbizo. The Izimbizo forums were first created in 1999 and are viewed as a highly effective way of consulting with the community through democratic measures (Kondlo, 2010: 385-386). Citizen participation

can happen in various other forms as well, Tau (2013) distinguishes between passive participation, consultative participation and information-sharing participation.

Active citizen participation, according to Mayekisa et al. (2013), allows for communities to be able to think for themselves, propose their own solutions to their own problems and encourages a bottom-up approach to planning instead of the more traditional top-down approach. Leader accessibility is one way in which citizens can pursue participation. This also falls in line with the Batho-Pele principle which talks about access to information which enables citizens to be informed about services rendered by a public institution, be it a local or district municipality or a provincial and national government department. Participation can also be seen to be overcoming a democratic deficit between electoral representation and promotion of sound governance (Kwame, 2015:174).

6.3.3 Re-emphasising the Batho-Pele principles in the public service

The Batho-Pele principles play an important role in guiding public service in order to ensure the effective delivery of services to communities. Furthermore, Batho-Pele principles such as redress, value for money and access to services enable both the citizens and public servants, whether in local, provincial or national government, to benefit from a relationship that creates an environment that enables adequate service delivery. Accessing a public service should not be seen as a favour, but rather as a prerogative of any public servant in any capacity to provide it to citizens. As a result, citizens may feel encouraged to use public services because of the professional treatment that they receive from public servants.

It is acknowledged that public service resources are often strained and there is often a shortage of either human capital or infrastructure. However, that should not be a reason for inadequate service delivery. A concerted effort ought to be made to ensure a deliverance of these services. Information-sharing is an important Batho-Pele principle. According to Dikotla, Mahlatji and Makgahlela (2014:851), individual barriers in public service delivery include lack of trust, bad communication and lack of knowledge-sharing and a different culture which negatively affects knowledge-sharing. This may be due to the fact that there is a severe lack of trust between citizens and public servants amongst themselves. Batho-Pele principles not only act as a guide to public

servants regarding the delivering of services, but they also benefit the citizens because they are made aware of how public service should be rendered and empowers them to be able to voice out dissatisfaction if the services rendered are not of good quality. The Department of CoGTA's Back to Basics programme showed a need for change in how the department was able to meet its service delivery objectives. The programme outlined various steps that municipalities must take in order to ensure the delivery of adequate services to the citizens in local municipalities. Such steps include a people-first approach to service delivery and creating an environment of efficient service delivery which promotes planning and delivery of services in record time (National Department of CoGTA, 2016:6).

Provincially, the KZN department of CoGTA identified key problems such as lack of response to service delivery challenges by municipalities. Furthermore, there was poor public-centred citizen participation, along with non-existent ward committees, to ensure the implementation of Batho-Pele principles and avoid excessive corruption, especially at local government level (KZN Department of CoGTA, 2015:8). The manifestation of these problems largely comes as a result of the breakdown in relationships between the citizens and the public service. The usage of Batho-Pele principles protects this relationships because if the Batho-Pele principles are followed to the tee, the problems that local governments face may be avoided and service delivery may be improved. This is also further emphasised by Nzimakwe and Mpehle (2012:286-287) who state that bad implementation of Batho-Pele principles has led to bad service delivery and various challenges across the local governance structures.

It is very important that Batho-Pele principles are implemented, especially in local government, because this is the sphere of government that is closest to the people. It is also the sphere that is primarily responsible for delivering services to the people in respective communities. If the inability of local government to adequately provide service delivery through policy and legislative mandate is not dealt with, it could negatively affect the country's stability democratically in the long run (Roux and Nyamukachi, 2005:703). It is also worth noting that the successful implementation of all policies and legislative frameworks that deal with service delivery is a wholesome effort which involves various stakeholders, and it is the responsibility of the KZN Department of COGTA to ensure that all the stakeholders are on board. The oversight role that the

department plays in the functioning of municipalities should be effectively used to create an environment that not only makes the promotion and usage of Batho-Pele principles possible, but also ensures that municipalities fully comprehend the significance of the implementation of such policies. It should not be something that municipalities do for the sake of doing it, but rather there ought to be a purpose and a vision that all stakeholders are able to buy into and work with, as a collective towards achieving that purpose and seeing that vision come to life.

Working hand-in-hand with think-tanks would enable the provincial government to better understand the challenges of corruption, especially from a citizen point of view. Collaborative work with other institutions, including universities, would make for better service delivery because of the expertise that such institutions have at their disposal. Service delivery is not a once-off transaction, but rather should be viewed as a continuous effort which ensures that there is a consistent supply of knowledge resources which put the government in a much better position of understanding where the problems of service delivery are and how they can be tackled.

6.3.4 Increasing institutional capacity to fight corruption

There is an acknowledgement that corruption is able to erode and weaken institutions in the public sector. There are various corruption institutions tasked with fighting corruption in South Africa, some of which are the Public Service Commission, the Public Protector and the Hawks. The department of CoGTA anti-corruption framework further emphasises the importance of capacity, especially at local municipal level, by stating that “all municipalities should have the capability to navigate the pitfalls and technicalities to ensure that investigations and disciplinary procedures are conducted in a procedurally correct manner. Not all municipalities will have internal investigative capacity, but they should all have standard procedures for ensuring sound resolutions, which may include working with external agencies “(National Department of CoGTA, 2015). Lack of capacity also includes the inefficiency and inability to carry out investigations, mainly due to being poorly trained (De Sousa, 2012:12). The weakness of investigative capacity has led to poor cooperation with whistle-blowing mechanisms which also negatively hinder corruption-preventing measures. Strengthening capacity in the public sector requires coordination and collaboration with all the sectors of the government, not only certain sectors. Furthermore, the prevention of corruption

cannot be undertaken in isolation, but rather through an integrated approach which includes institutional coordination (Balia, 2003:37). This has been a weakness in South Africa which is cited in Webb (2005:156), who states that there is an absence of coordination in public service and no clear coordination and delegation of responsibilities in these institutions.

The Public Service Commission and The Public Protector are South Africa's two most prominent corruption-fighting Chapter 9 and 10 institutions. However, the Public Service Commission as an institution is not independent from the executive. It is allocated a budget from the Department of Public Service and Administration, which is a member of the executive. However, the institution is unable to enforce its findings, but can only work on a recommendation basis. Such institutions ought to be independent and should not be said to be part of a department which is part of the administrative arm of government. The independence of these institutions effectively means they are not part of government and their independence requires them to be independent of any other government department (Parliament of South Africa, 2007). It is worth noting that the Public Service Commission is strategically placed not only to exercise oversight, but also to play an active role in the training and strengthening of capacity. Institutional capacity ought to be institutionally driven and led by the public, yet independent from the executive institutions. An emphasis starting from national government all the way to local government on institutional capacity-building is critical. Moreover, while all three arms of government are independent from one another, they should not be seen as working in isolation. They ought to work in coordination with each other to ensure that institutional capacity is not accessible to certain sectors of government, but rather in government as a whole, regardless of the different levels of it.

6.3.5 Measuring of corruption on a frequent basis

Corruption has many complexities which make drawing up plans for combating it difficult. It is not enough to merely come up with resolutions for fighting corruption, but it is important also to understand the extent of the challenge before resolving to find any measures of dealing with it. The first step in development of a successful Anti-Corruption strategy begins with understanding what the citizens think as far as corruption is concerned. This element of an Anti-Corruption Programme is less concerned with the accurate statistics of corruption, but revolves around the feelings of those who live in a particular country. It is imperative that any government should strive

to measure the perceptions of citizens about the extent of public corruption in government. “A good knowledge is critical in developing strategies aimed at combating corruption.” (Dintwe, 2013:559).

Through the usage of data from both public and private institutions, the KZN provincial government would be able to adequately measure the extent to which corruption is not only perceived to be prevalent in the public service, but also how to best curb it. Infrastructural investment on corruption data is seen to be critical in dealing with corruption. Moreover, corruption-fighting is a global phenomenon where various corruption-measuring mechanisms are taken. These may include the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), Survey of Public Sector Corruption 1997, the Global Integrity Index 2006, Worldwide Governance Research Indicators 1996-2006, Global Corruption Report 2007 (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2007:291). These are all internationally-recognised reports that have collected data about corruption in the past from countries all across the globe. Making usage of such data allows for a comparative approach when looking at how other countries deal with corruption and the successes and failures of previous programmes that have been implemented.

If there is an annual assessment of corruption patterns, trends and changing views from the citizenry on corruption, it would enable the government to create an updated policy which is in touch with the latest trends on corruption. This is important because it acknowledges the ever-changing intricacies that come with corruption. However, it is not always possible to amend legislation in place to deal with corruption, thus coming up with legislative frameworks that reflect the current changes that are happening may prove to be difficult. In essence, government as a whole needs to strategically position itself in order to win the war against corruption. There needs to be a political will from the very top down to the very bottom, which would make way for the creation and promotion of innovative ways of fighting corruption. The responsibility of fighting corruption cannot, however, rest with authorities only, because citizens also have to play an active role in speaking out against corruption and refusing to partake in any corrupt activities.

6.4 Contribution to research knowledge

This study has explored four themes that are independent academic topics. Service delivery, recruitment, procurement and corruption are all academic topics that have been explored substantially in the past. These academic subjects have all been looked at either in relation to one another or independently. This research has looked to view these research academic topics in relation to one another, which provides a unique contribution to the academic landscape. Moreover, youth attitudes towards public sector corruption and public sector employment prospects are not studies that have been explored enough in the current academic environment. Moreover, quantitative public opinion-based studies about public sector recruitment prospects, perceptions and views on corruption in public sector institutions have also not been explored enough. A study of this nature should provide a contribution towards the improvement of service delivery from a local government standpoint, along with the exploration of the different types of relationships that exist and their impact on corruption in the public sector. The researcher is of the view that this research can make a meaningful contribution in the field of research and academic knowledge.

6.5 Recommendations for future studies

A great deal of academic work has been done in the field of corruption. Scholars from all over the country and the continent at large have extensively covered the subject and have produced some outstanding work on the subject. Moreover, the field of corruption has contributed immensely towards the creation and implementation of policy relating to curbing corruption. It is for that reason that the researcher recommends the following scope of focus as academic research topics:

- Corruption in state-owned enterprises and its effects on the economy
- Corruption in KwaZulu-Natal government: perceptions and reality
- The role of a business and government relationships in providing service delivery
- Public sector recruitment procedures and youth employment: does the government appeal to the youth as a prospective employer?
- Procurement challenges in the public sector and their negative effects on the empowerment of historically-disadvantaged businesses.
- Attitudes towards service delivery, citizens and public sector servants' perspective

6.6 Closing remarks

This research has looked at corruption in local government through the provincial government lenses, but also on a national scale. The literature visited in this study covers a broad spectrum of the research subject which is inclusive of corruption as an area of study internationally, regionally and locally. Furthermore, the literature visits corruption within the units of recruitment and procurement. The reason behind this choice is based on trends and patterns in the occurrence of corruption in the public sector, which usually occurs in the two respective units. This is not to say that there is no existence of corruption in other units, but rather to give an acknowledgement of the nature of corruption and how it takes place.

The arguments presented in the previous chapters show an acknowledgement of corruption by participants recruited to partake in the study and, more importantly, office bearers also show an appreciation of the extent to which corruption affects service delivery. In saying that, there is also a commitment and willingness to resolve corruption and improve service delivery from government stakeholders. The challenges that government faces in providing adequate service delivery stem from corruption and lack of institutional capacity to deal with corruption. It is, however, encouraging to see that the relevant stakeholders are able to acknowledge these challenges and work towards dismantling them.

The legacy of apartheid is still felt in the democratic South African dispensation and as a result government across all levels is constantly battling towards decreasing socio-economic inequality and improving the lives of historically-disadvantaged citizens who are still impoverished today. In order to do this, government has invested heavily on socio-economic programmes such as social grants, free health care and, more recently, free higher education for deserving students from mainly historically-marginalised backgrounds .

All these efforts require strong state intervention across all levels, in order to ensure the roll-out of such programmes. In doing so, it is able to address the challenges of poverty and socio-economic upliftment. This further expands to the empowerment of previously-disadvantaged businesses through creating supply chain regulations that ensure that previously-marginalised groups actually

have a chance not only to conduct business with the state, but also to be assisted by government through providing the platform for them to conduct their businesses. Moreover, youth employment, especially in the public sector, can play a role in ensuring that there is continuation, innovation and skill retention in the sector. Government across all levels must be able to attract the best talent in the labour market, which would ensure that there is enough capacity in the public sector to enable government to meet its service delivery mandate.

None of the socio-economic upliftment programmes can succeed while the country battles to deal with public sector corruption, because state efficiency is a core part of the state being able to deliver services to the people. Corruption erodes that efficiency and incapacitates the state, therefore corruption must be dealt with to ensure that the state is able to function efficiently and provide services adequately. This is not to say, however, that corruption is the reason for all problems that exist within government, but it is a main obstacle that South Africans in their entirety must work towards curbing, led of course by the elected government of the day.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, P., Goosen, X. and Coetzee, J., 2013. The human resource function contribution to human development in South Africa. *South African Journal of Human Resources Management*, 11 (1), pp.1-14.
- Adisa, W.B., 2013. Political opportunism, corruption and under development in Africa. *Africa Insight*, 43 (3), pp.42-62.
- Akaranga, S.A. and Makau, B.K., 2016. Ethical consideration and their application to research: a case study of the University of Nairobi. *Journal of Educational Policy and Entrepreneurial Research*, 3 (12), pp.1-9.
- Akbayrak, B., 2000. *A comparison of tow data collecting methods: interviews and questionnaires*. [Online]. Available at: <<http://www.efdergi.hacettepe.edu.tr/yonetim/icerik/makaleler/1051-published.pdf>> [Accessed 02 August 2017].
- Akinola, A. O. and Ndawonde, N., 2016. NEPAD: Talking from the South, governing from the West. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies -Multi-, Inter- and Transdisciplinary*, 11 (2), pp.38-51.
- Alexander, P., 2010. Rebellion of the poor: South Africa's service delivery protest – a preliminary analysis. *Review of African political economy*, 37 (123), pp.25-40.
- Alexander, P., 2010. Rebellion of the poor: South Africa's service delivery protest – a preliminary analysis. *Review of African political economy*, 37 (123), pp.25-40.
- Alshenqeeti, H., 2014. Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English Linguistics Research*, 3 (1), pp.39-45.
- Aluko, F.S., 2006. Social science research: a critique of quantitative and qualitative methods and proposal for an eclectic approach. *IFE PsychologIA : An International Journal*, 14 (1), pp.198-210.
- Alvi, M., 2016. *A Manual for Selecting Sampling Techniques in Research*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/70218/>> [Accessed 28 April 2018].

- Amusan, L., 2016. Spoils and meritocracy: post-apartheid challenges in the South African public service. *Journal of Public Administration*, 51 (2), pp.293-305.
- Asha, A., 2014. Capacity challenges for local government efficiency for development planning and implementation. *Journal of Public Administration*, 49 (3), pp.803-812.
- Asmah-Andoh, K., 2015. Can the reporting of local government performance enhance citizens' engagement? A perspective. *Africa Insight*, 44(4), pp. 169 - 185.
- Auditor-General South Africa. 2012. *General report on the audit outcomes of the provincial government PFMA 2012-2013*. [PDF]. Pietermaritzburg: Auditor-General South Africa.
- Auditor-General South Africa. 2013. *General report on the provincial audit outcomes of KwaZulu-Natal PFMA 2013-2014*. [PDF]. Pietermaritzburg: Auditor-General South Africa.
- Azfar, O., Lee, Y. and Swammy, A., 2001. The causes and consequences of corruption. *The annals of the American Academy*, 573, pp.42-56.
- Azfar, O., Lee, Y. and Swammy, A., 2001. The causes and consequences of corruption. *The annals of the American Academy*, 573, pp.42-56.
- Balia, D., 2003. Institutional imperatives to reduce corruption. *Auditing SA*, 22, pp.37-38.
- Barreiro, P.L. and Albandoz, J.P., 2001. *Population and sample sampling techniques. Management Mathematics for European Schools*. [Online]. Available at <http://optimierung.mathematik.unikl.de/mamaeusch/veroeffentlichungen/ver_texte/sampling_en.pdf> [Accessed 29 June 2018].
- Basheka, B.C. and Mubangazi, B.C., 2012. Citizen-driven approaches in fighting corruption: A comparative analysis of Uganda's and South Africa's local government systems. *Journal of Public Administration*, 47 (3), pp. 636 - 655.
- Bauer, M.W. and Gaskell, G., 2000. *Qualitative researching with text, image and sound*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Baxter, P. and Jack, S., 2008. Qualitative case study methodology: study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The qualitative report*, 13 (4), pp.544-559.
- Bazely, P., 2013. *Qualitative data analysis: practical strategies*. London: SAGE publications.

Bendile, D., 2017. Frustrated social development DG resigns over SASSA crisis. *Mail & Guardian*. [Online] 04 March. Available at :< <https://mg.co.za/article/2017-03-04-frustrated-social-development-dg-resigns-over-sassa-crisis> > [Accessed 17 July 2017].

Bennington, J. and Moore, M.H., eds. 2011. *Public value theory & practice*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Beresford, A., 2015. Power, patronage and gate-keeper politics in South Africa. *African Affairs*, 1 (23), pp. 226–248.

Bhattacherjee, A., 2012. *Social Science Research: Principles, Methods and Practises*. 2nd edition. Florida: University of South Florida.

Black Sash Trust v Minister of Social Development and Others [2017] ZACC 8.

Booysen, S., 2009. Public participation in democratic South Africa: from popular mobilisation to structured co-optation and protest. *Politeia*, 28 (1), pp.1-27.

Bos, W. and Tarnai, C., 1999. Content analysis in empirical social research. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 31 (8), pp.661-662.

Botha, A., 2014. KZN secures key position in SA economy. *Fin24* [Online]. July 2014. Available at:< <https://www.fin24.com/Economy/South-Africa/KZN-secures-key-position-in-SA-economy-20140724> > [Accessed 11 February 2017].

Bratton, M. and Van de Walle, N., 1994. Neopatrimonial Regimes and Political Transitions in Africa. *World Politics*, 46 (4), pp.458.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V., 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3 (2), pp.77-101.

Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment 2003 [C.1]. Cape Town: Government Gazette.

Bruce, B., 2014. Control, discipline and punish? Addressing corruption in South Africa. *SA Crime Quarterly*, pp.49-62.

Bruce, D., 2013. A provincial concern? Political killings in South Africa. *South African Crime Quarterly*, 45, pp.13-24.

Buckley, R., 2018. Simultaneous Analysis of Qualitative and Quantitative Social Science Data in Conservation. *Society & Natural Resources an International Journal*, 31(7), pp. 865-870.

Burger, A. and Silima, T., 2006. Sampling and sample design. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41 (3.1), pp. 656 - 668.

Business Tech., 2014. *SA government's massive provincial salary bill*. [Online]. Available at :< <https://businessstech.co.za/news/government/98459/south-africas-massive-provincial-government-salary-bill/> > [Accessed 14 July 2017].

Cheema, G.S. and Rondinelli, D.A., 2007. *Decentralizing Governance: Emerging Concepts and Practices*. Washington D.C: Ash Institute for Democratic Governance and Innovation.

Chelechele, T., 2009. Skills development in the South African public service, problems and solutions. *Journal of public administration*, 44 (1), pp. 44 - 57.

Chen, L., Dean, J., Frant, J. and Kumar, R., 2014. What does “service delivery” really mean? *World policy blog*. [Online]. Available at :< <https://www.cfr.org/blog/south-africa-what-does-service-delivery-really-mean> > [Accessed 23 February 2017].

Chêne, M., 2015. *Corruption and anti-corruption practices in human resource management in the public sector*. [Online]. Available at: < <https://www.u4.no/publications/corruption-and-anti-corruption-practices-in-human-resource-management-in-the-public-sector.pdf> > [Accessed 19 July 2018].

Chipkin, I. and Swilling, M., 2018. *Shadow State The Politics of State Capture*. Wits University Press: Johannesburg.

Chingwete, A., 2016. *In South Africa, citizens' trust in president, political institutions drops sharply*. Cape Town: Afrobarometer.

Cilliers, J. and Aucoin, C., 2016. Rainbow at Risk: improving South Africa's prospects. *Institute for Security Studies policy brief*, 83.

Cloete, F., 2007. Data analysis in qualitative public administration and management research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (6), pp. 512 - 527.

Coetzee, M. and Bezuidenhout, M., 2011. The fairness of affirmative action: in the eyes of the beholder. *Southern African Business Review*, 15 (2), pp.75-96.

- Coetzee, S., 2003. Research ethics: A strategy for promoting professional ethics. *Perspectives in Education*, 21 (2), pp.113-125.
- Coolidge, J. and Rose-Ackerman, S., 2000. Kleptocracy and reform in African regimes: theory & examples. In: K. Hope Sr and B. Chikulo, ed. 2000. *Corruption and development in Africa lessons from country case studies*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. Ch.3.
- Crawford-Browne, T., 2004. The arms deal scandal. *Review of African Political Economy*, 31 (100), pp.329-342.
- Creswell, J.W., 1998. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among five traditions*. California: SAGE Publications.
- Croucamp, P. 2009. Teaching software technology in the social sciences – quantitative (data) analysis and solutions. *Journal of Public Administration*. 44(4.2), pp.885–896.
- Curristine, T., Lonti, Z. and Joumard, I., 2007. Improving public sector efficiency: challenges and opportunities. *OECD Journal on Budgeting*, 7(1), pp.1-41.
- Dane, F., 1990. *Research methods*. California: Brooks/Cole publisher.
- Dassah, M.O., 2008. Is there a hole in the bucket? Identifying drivers of public sector corruption, effects and instituting effective combative measures. *Journal of Public Administration*, 43 (3.1), pp.37-32.
- De Haas, M., 2016. The killing fields of KZN. *SA Crime Quarterly*. No.57, pp.43-53.
- De Jongh, J.J., Meyer, N. and Meyer, D.F., 2016. Perceptions of local business on the employment tax incentive act: The case of the Vaal triangle region. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9(2), pp.409-432.
- De Sousa, L., 2010. Anti-corruption agencies: between empowerment and irrelevance. *Crime Law Social Change*, 53(1), pp.5-22.
- De Vaus, D., 2002. *Analysing social sciences data*. London: SAGE Publications.
- De Vaus, D., 2013. *Survey in social research*. 5th edition. New South Wales: Routledge.

Department of CoGTA, 2015. *Local Government Anti-Corruption Strategy*. PDF. Pretoria: Department of CoGTA.

Department of CoGTA, 2016. *The presidential local government summit back to basics serving our communities better*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Department of CoGTA.

Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2009. *State of Local Government in South Africa*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.

Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2017. *CWP Aiming to Expand to More Municipalities*. [Online]. Available at :< <http://www.cogta.gov.za/?p=1227> > [Accessed 14 September 2017].

Department of Labour, 2016. *Annual Commission for Employment Equity Annual Report*. Pretoria: Department of Labour.

Department of Public Service and Administration. 2003. *The Machinery of government: structures and functions of government*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Department of Public Service and Administration.

Dikotla, M.A., Mahlatji, M.R. and Makgahlela, L.A., 2014. Knowledge management for the improvement of service delivery in South Africa's municipalities. *Journal of Public Administration*, 49 (3), pp. 847 - 859.

Dintwe, S., 2013. The [In] effectiveness of anti-corruption programmes in addressing public sector corruption: a corporate governance perspective. *Journal of Public Administration*, 48 (4), pp.553 - 567.

Dos Santos, J.L.G., Erdmann, L., Meirelles, S., Lanzoni, M., Cunha,V. and Ross, R., 2017. Integrating qualitative and quantitative data in mixed methods research. *Texto contexto Enferm*, 26 (3), pp.6.

Draai, E. and Taylor, D., 2009. Public participation for effective service delivery: A local government perspective. *Journal of Public Administration*, 44(1.1), pp.112 - 122.

Draai, E., 2010. Collaborative Government for Improved Public Service Delivery in South Africa. *Africa Insight*, 40 (2), pp. 131 - 140

Dragan, I.M. and Isaac-Maniu, A., 2013. Snowball Sampling Completion. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences*, 5 (2), pp.160-161.

Driscoll, D.L., Appiah-Yeboah, A., Salib, P. and Rupert, D.J., 2007. Merging Qualitative and Quantitative Data in Mixed Methods Research: How To and Why Not. *Ecological and Environmental Anthropology*, 3 (1), pp.19-28.

Duthie, S.R., 2015. Beyond the Rhetoric: A Theoretical Analysis of the Effects of Neopatrimonialism on the Integration Process in Africa. *Africa Insight*, 45 (1), pp.112.

Ekwoaba, J.O., Anyim, F.C. and Anthony, I.D., 2012. The role of human resource planning in recruitment and selection process. *British Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 6 (2), pp.68-78.

Employment Act 1998. [C.1]. Cape Town: Government Gazette.

Evans, P. and Rouch, J.E., 1999. Bureaucracy and growth: a cross-national analysis of the effects of “Weberian” state structures. *American Sociological Review*, 64 (5), pp. 748-765.

Feagin, J., Orum, A.M. and Sjoberg, G., 1991. *A case for the case study*. North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press.

Forson, A.J., Baah-Ennumh, T.Y., Buracom, P., Chen, G. and Peng, Z., 2016. Causes of corruption: evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 19 (4), pp.562-578.

Forson, A.J., Baah-Ennumh, T.Y., Buracom, P., Chen, G. and Peng, Z., 2016. Causes of corruption: evidence from sub-Saharan Africa, *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 19 (4), pp.562-578.

Fourie, D. and Poggenpoel, W., 2017. Public sector inefficiencies: are we addressing the root causes? *South African Journal of Accounting of Research*, 31 (3), pp. 169- 180.

Fowler, F.J., 2002. *Survey research methods*. 3rd ed. London: SAGE Publication.

Franks, P.E., 2014. The Crisis of the South African Public Service. *The Journal of the helen Suzman Foundation*, 74, pp. 48-56.

Friedman, S., 2014. Economic exclusion feeds the politics of patronage in South Africa. *The Conversation*. [Online]. Available at <<http://theconversation.com/economic-exclusion-feeds-the-politics-of-patronage-in-south-africa-69996>> [Accessed 26 June 2017].

Furneaux, D., Bynner, J. and Murphy, J., 1973. *Data analysis*. Buckinghamshire: Open University Press.

Gedye, L., 2016. Government to cut public sector wages. *Mail & Guardian*, [Online] 26 February. Available at :<<https://mg.co.za/article/2016-02-25-government-to-cut-public-sector-wages>> [Accessed 17 July 2017].

Glazier, D., 2007. Corruption and futility in BEE. *Web Brainstorm*. [Online]. Available at <<http://www.brainstommag.co.za/personality-profile/10905-corruption-and-futility-in-bee>> [Accessed 19 June 2017].

Gordon, S., Roberts, B., Struwig, J. and Dumisa, S., 2012. Business unusual: Perceptions of corruption in South Africa. *Human Sciences Research Council*. [Online]. Available at :<<http://www.hsrc.ac.za/en/review/june-2012/business-as-usual-perceptions-of-corruption-in-south-africa>> [Accessed 24 April 2018].

Graycar, A., 2015. Corruption: classification and analysis. *Policy and society*, 34 (2), pp. 87-96.

Grobler, E. and Joubert, S.J., 2004. Corruption in the public sector: the elusive crime. *Acta Criminologica*, 17 (1), pp. 90 – 102.

Gumede, W., 2017. The democracy of Africa's liberation movement turned governments. *Politikon*, 44 (1), pp.32-33.

Gyimah-Brempong, K., 2002. Corruption, economic growth and income inequality. *Economics of Governance*, 3, pp.195-186.

Hague, P., 1993. *Interviewing*. London: Kogan Page.

Hague, P., 1993. *Questionnaire Design*. London: Kogan Page.

Hancock, B., 1998. *An introduction to qualitative research*. [Online]. Available at: <<http://classes.uleth.ca/200502/mgt2700a/Articles/Qualitative%20Research.pdf>> [Accessed 03 August 2017].

- Hansen, K., 2003. The Politics of Personal Relations: Beyond Neopatrimonial Practices in Northern Cameroon. *Africa: Journal of the International African Institute*, 73 (2), pp.203.
- Harry, T., Chinyamurindi, T. and Mjoli, T., 2018. Perceptions of factors that affect employability amongst a sample of final-year students at a rural South African university, *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 44(0), pp. 1-10.
- Hartwig, F. and Dearing, B.E., 1979. *Exploratory Data Analysis*. Newbury: SAGE Publications.
- Herbert, M., 1990. *Planning a research project: a guide for practitioners and trainees in the helping professions*. London: Cassell.
- Hesse-Biber, S.N., 2010. *Mixed methods research merging theory with practise*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Hope Sr. R., 2008. *Poverty, livelihoods and governance in Africa: fulfilling the development promise*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hoseah, E.G., 2014. Corruption as a global hindrance to promoting ethics, integrity and sustainable development in Tanzania: the role of anti-corruption agency. *Journal of Global Ethics*, 10 (3), pp. 384-392.
- Houghton, C.E., Casey, D., Shawn, D. and Murphy, K., 2010. Ethical issues in qualitative research. *Nurse research*, 18 (1), pp.15-25.
- Hox, J.J. and Boeije, H.R., 2005. Data collection, primary vs. secondary. *Encyclopaedia of Social Measurement*, 1, pp.593 - 599
- Human Sciences Research Council, 2017. *South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS)*. [Online]. Available at :<<http://www.hsrc.ac.za/en/departments/sasas>> [Accessed 17 May 2017].
- Human Sciences Research Council, 2018. *SASA KZN data on attitudes towards affirmative action employment*. [Online]. Available at :<<http://www.hsrc.ac.za/en/departments/sasas>> [Accessed 07 May 2018].
- Human, L., 1993. Affirmative Action in action expanding the skills pool. *Track Two*, pp.10.

Idoniboye-Obu, S.A. and Uzodike, O.U., 2013. Curbing bureaucratic corruption in Africa. *Ubuntu: Journal of conflict and social transformation*, 2 (1&2), pp.21-46.

IEC elections leaderboard, 2016. [Online] Accessed from : <
<https://www.elections.org.za/lgedashboard2016/leaderboard.aspx> > [Accessed 12 May 2017].

Ismail, S., 2017. Graduate employability capacities, self-esteem and career adaptability among South African young adults, *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 43 (0), pp.1-10.

Jackson, P., 2016. Local government and decentralisation in post-conflict context. *Third world thematic: a TWQ journal*, 1 (6), pp. 747-762.

Jacobs, J.A., 2007. A broad-based approach: black economic empowerment. *IMESA*, 32 (3).

Jacobs, S., 2002. About turn the ANC & economic empowerment. *Indicator South Africa*, 19 (1), pp. 313-328.

Jadoo, Y., 2017. Prasa's Molefe calls for prosecution over costly locomotives blunder. *The Citizen*. [Online]. Available at :< <http://citizen.co.za/news/1560429/prasas-molefe-calls-prosecution-involved-locomotives-scandal/>> [Accessed 19 July 2017].

Jarbandhan, D.B. and Schutte, D.W., 2006. Using the survey procedure and interview data collection technique. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41 (3.1), pp. 669-681.

Johnson, R.B., Onwuegbuzie, A.J. and Turner, L.A., 2011. Toward a Definition of Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1 (2), pp.112-133.

Johnston, A., 1997. *Politics and violence in KwaZulu-Natal*. In: W. Gutteridge and J.E. Spence. Eds. 1997. Violence in Southern Africa. London: Frank Cass. Ch.5.

Jordaan, Y., Wiese, M., Amade, K. and Clereq, E., 2013. Content analysis of published articles in the South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 16 (4), pp.435-441.

Judger, J., 2016. *The thematic analysis of interview data: an approach used to examine the influence of the market on curricular provision in Mongolian higher education institutions*. [Online]. Available at :<<http://hpp.education.leeds.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/131/2016/02/HPP2016-3-Jugder.pdf>> [Accessed 13 September 2017].

Kalof, L., Dan, A. and Dietz, T., 2008. *Essentials of Social Research*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Kawulich, B.B., 2004. Data analysis techniques in qualitative research. *Journal of Education*, 1, pp.96-113.

Kgosimore, D.L., 2001. White-collar crime: a phenomenon of post-apartheid South Africa? *Politeia*, 20 (3), pp.91-103.

Khan, M.M., 1999. Political and administrative corruption: concepts, comparative experiences and Bangladesh case. *A paper prepared for transparency international-Bangladesh chapter*. [Online]. Available at :< http://www.ti-bangladesh.org/oldweb/index.php?page_id=373 > [Accessed 17 May 2017].

Khoza, A., 2015. KZN Cogta employee in court for allegedly embezzling R7.5m. *News 24*. [Online]. Available at: < <https://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/kzn-cogta-employee-in-court-for-allegedly-embezzling-r75m-20151211> > [Accessed 22 April 2018].

Kock, R. and Burke, M., 2008. Managing talent in the South African public affairs. *Public Personnel Management*, 37 (3), pp.1-14.

Koelble, T.A. and LiPuma, E., 2010. Institutional obstacles to service delivery in South Africa. *A Journal of African Studies*, 36 (3), pp. 565-589.

Koelble, T.A. and Siddle, A., 2014. Institutional complexity and unanticipated consequences: the failure of decentralisation in South Africa. *Democratisation*, 21 (6), pp. 1117-1133.

Koenane, M.L. and Mangena, F., 2017. Ethics, accountability and democracy as pillars of good governance. *Journal of Public Administration Development Alternatives*. 1, pp.61-73.

Kondlo, K., 2010. Making participatory governance work re-inventing izimbibizo forums in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 45 (2), pp.385-386.

Kotze, J.S., 2018. Delivering an elusive dream of democracy lessons from Nelson Mandela Bay. Sun Press: Stellenbosch.

Kroukamp, H., 2007. Public sector training in South Africa: vehicle towards good governance: fact or fallacy? *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (5), pp.71-81.

Kroukamp, H., 2011. The single public service and local government turnaround strategy: incompatible or complementary for improved local government service delivery? *Journal for New Generation Sciences*, 9 (2), pp. 32 - 42.

Kumar, M.K.M., 2013. *Source of data in research*. [Online]. Available at :< <https://www.slideshare.net/manukumarkm/source-of-data-in-research> > [Accessed 29 July 2017].

KwaZulu-Natal department of CoGTA, 2015. *Service Delivery Improvement Plan (SDIP)*. [PDF]. Pietermaritzburg: KwaZulu-Natal Department of CoGTA.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2017. *Welcome*. [Online]. Available at: < <http://www.kzncogta.gov.za/welcome/> > [Accessed 18 August 2017].

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2011. *Everything You Need To Know About Being A Councillor*. [PDF]. Pietermaritzburg: KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Government and Traditional Affairs.

KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2017. *Organogram*. [Online]. Available at: < <http://www.kzncogta.gov.za/organogram/> > [Accessed 02 September 2017].

KwaZulu-Natal of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2017. *Community work programme*. [Online]. Available at :< <http://www.kzncogta.gov.za/community-work-programme-cwp/> > [Accessed 14 September 2017].

Labuschagne, P., 2017. Patronage, state capture and oligopolistic monopoly in South Africa: The slide from a weak to a dysfunctional state? *Acta Academica* , 49 (2),pp. 51-67.

Lægreid, P. and Christensen, T., 20005. Trust in government: the relative importance of service satisfaction, political factors and demography. *Management Review*, 28 (4), pp. 487-511.

Lavhelani, P.N. and Ndebele, C., 2016. Performance management systems and productivity: an analysis of the perceptions of stakeholders of the Vhembe district municipality in Limpopo, South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 51 (3), pp.341-342.

Lawal, G., 2007. Corruption and development in Africa: Challenges for political and economic change. *Humanity & Social Sciences Journal*, 2 (1).

Lewis, J., 2003. Design Issues. In: J. Ritchie and Lewis. eds. 2003. *Qualitative Research Practice*. London: SAGE Publications LTD, pp. 47-76.

Lodge, T., 1998. Political corruption in South Africa. *Indicator South Africa*, 15 (1), pp.157-187.

Lodge, T., 2005. Provincial Government and State Authority in South Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 31 (4), pp. 737-753.

Lomardini, S., 2015. *Planning survey research*. [Online]. Available at: <<http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/planning-survey-research-578973>> [Accessed 04 August 2017].

Longest, K.C., 2012. *Using STATA for quantitative analysis*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Lutabingwa, J. and Auriacombe, C.J., 2007. Data analysis in quantitative research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (6), pp. 528-548.

Lutran, D., 2014. The importance of good governments for youth employment. *The World Bank*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://blogs.worldbank.org/youthink/importance-good-governments-youth-employment>> [Accessed 29 March 2018].

Mack, N., Woodsong, C., MacQueen, K.M., Guest, G. and Emily, E., 2005. *Qualitative research methods: a data collector's field guide*. North Carolina: Family Health International.

Mail and Guardian, 2012. *Violence between IFP, NFP supporters erupts in KwaMashu*. [Online]. Available at :<<https://mg.co.za/article/2012-11-25-violence-between-ifp-nfp-supporters-erupts-in-kwamashu>> [Accessed 21 May 2017].

Majam, T., 2005. Linking human resource development to effective service delivery in the South African public sector. *Journal of Public Administration*, 40 (3.2), pp.442 – 452.

Malapane, A.T., 2015. Effective oversight in the South African legislative sector: a demand for accountability? *Journal of Public Administration*, 50 (4), pp. 863 – 872.

Maluleke, T., 1996. Do I, with my excellent PhD, still need affirmative action? The contribution of Black Theology to the debate. *Missionalia*, 24(3), pp. 303 - 321.

Mangcu, X., 2009. *The democratic moment, South Africa's democratic prospects under Jacob Zuma*. Johannesburg: Jacana Media.

Mantzaris, E. and Pillay, P., 2017. Corruption and the erosion of citizens of trust in Brazil and South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9 (8), pp. 63 - 77.

Maphunye, K.J., 2001. The South African senior public service: roles and structures in post-1994 departments. *Journal of Public Administration*, 36 (4), pp.312 – 323.

Marais, H., 2011. *South Africa pushed to the limit the political economy of change*. Claremont: UCT Press.

Marshall, G. and Rossman, G.B., 1995. *Designing qualitative research*. 2nd ed. London: SAGE publications.

Masanago, R., 2002. Public participation: a critical ingredient of good governance. *Politeia*, 21 (2), pp.52-65.

Masango, R., 2009. Public participation: An imperative for sustainable democracy and effective service delivery. *Journal of Public Administration*, 44 (1.1), pp. 123 - 132.

Masenya, M.J., 2017. Neo-Patrimonialism, Corruption and Governance in South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, (9), pp.146-156.

Mashele, P., 2009. *The death of our society*. Pretoria: CPR Press.

Mason, J., 2002. Qualitative researching. 2nd ed. London: SAGE Publications.

Mathebula, L.F.M., 2011. Interactive and transactive nature of the South African intergovernmental relations practice - A local government practice. *Journal of Public Administration*, 46 (4), pp. 1415 - 1430.

Matiwane, Z., 2017. Political killing will scare off new political leaders. *The Mercury*. 18 May. p2.

Mawhood, P., 1993. *Local Government in the Third World: Experience of Decentralisation in Tropical Africa*. Pretoria: The Africa Institute of South Africa.

Maxwell, J.A., 2005. *Qualitative research design: an interactive approach*. London: SAGE publications.

Mayekiso, T., Taylor, D. and Maphazi, N., 2013. A public participation model for enhanced local governance. *Africa Insight*, 42 (4), pp.186 – 199.

Mazibuko, G. and Fourie, D.J., 2017. Manifestation of unethical procurement practices in the South African public sector. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9 (9), pp. 106 – 117.

McGregor, M., 2003. Affirmative action and efficiency in the public service: how to strike a balance between representivity and efficiency? *SA mercantile Law Journal*, 15 (1), pp 82 - 94.

McKim, C.A., 2017. The value of mixed methods research: a mixed methods study. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 11 (2), pp.202-222.

Menon, S., 2017. SA's unemployment rate hits a 13-year high. *Times Live*. [Online] 01 June. Available at :< <https://www.timeslive.co.za/news/south-africa/2017-06-01-sas-unemployment-rate-hits-a-13-year-high/> > [Accessed 19 July 2017].

Miles, M.B. and Huberman, A.M., 1994. *Qualitative data analysis*. 2nd ed. California: SAGE Publications.

Milne, C., 2009. Affirmative action in South Africa: from targets to empowerment. *Journal of Public Administration*, 44 (4.1). pp.969 – 990.

Milner-Smyth, P., 2017. Consequences of corruption. *HR Future*, 2017 (7), pp.30 – 31.

Mle, T.R. and Maclean, S., 2011. Ethics, integrity & good governance: the case of South Africa's local sphere government. *Journal of Public Administration*, 46(4), pp. 1364 - 1383.

Mngoma, N., 2016. Graduates are ‘begging’ for jobs. *IOL News*. [Online]. Available at :< <https://www.iol.co.za/news/opinion/graduates-are-begging-for-jobs-2034214> > [Accessed 30 March 2018].

Moeti, K.L.B and Khalo, T., 2007. Restructuring the provincial sphere of government in South Africa: Exploring options for sustainable reform for improved service delivery. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (5), pp. 129 - 142.

Mofolo, M.A and Smith, W., 2009. Making use of ‘batho-pele’ principles to improve service delivery in municipalities. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 6, pp. 430 - 440.

Mondlane, T.C., Claudio, F. and Khan, M.A., 2016. Remedyng Africa's self-propelled corruption: the missing link. *Politikon*, 43 (3), pp. 345-370.

Monkam, N.F., 2014. Local municipality, productive efficiency and its determinants in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 31 (2), pp. 275-298.

Morara, A., 1992. Causes of corruption, *WAJIBU*, 7 (1), pp.2-4.

Morton, M. and Blair, C., 2016. *Private vs. public pay practices*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://www.21century.co.za/private-vs-public-pay-practices/>> [Accessed 18 July 2018].

Mottiar, S., 2004. The turnover of power in KwaZulu-Natal a growing commitment to and engagement with the democratic process. *Journal of African Elections*, 3 (2), pp.47-48.

Mpehle, Z., 2012. Are service delivery protest justifiable in the democratic South Africa? *African Journal of Public Administration*, 47(1.1), pp. 213 - 227.

Mthembu, V.N. and Govender, L.N., 2015. Perceptions of employers and unemployed youth on the proposed youth employment wage subsidy incentive in South Africa: A KwaZulu-Natal study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13 (1), pp 1 – 9.

Mthethwa, S., 2015. Current trends in public procurement in KZN. *KwaZulu-Natal procurement Indaba*. [Online]. Available at <<http://www.kzntreasury.gov.za/ResourceCenter/Guideline%20Documents/advocate-mthethwa.pdf>> [Accessed 18 July 2017].

Mubangazi, B.C. and Tshishonga, N., 2013. Political and community oversight for good governance in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 48 (2), pp. 299 - 320.

Naidoo, G., 2012. A critical need to curb corruption and promote good governance. *Journal of Public Administration*, 47 (3), pp. 656 – 683.

Naidoo, V., 2009. The Provincial Government Reform Process in South Africa: Policy Discretion and Developmental Relevance. *Politikon*, 36 (2), pp. 259-274.

Naidoo, V., 2012. Expenditure volatility and provincial government reform in South Africa. *Politeia*, 31 (2), pp. 49 - 69.

Naidu, R., 2006. Corruption and bribery rife in KZN. *IOL News*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://www.iol.co.za/news/south-africa/corruption-and-bribery-rife-in-kzn-296560>> [Accessed 29/03/2018].

National Treasury. 2014. *Budget Review 2014*. [PDF]. Pretoria: National Treasury.

Nawaz, F., 2008. Corruption and resource distribution in neopatrimonial systems. Transparency International. [Online]. Available at :<<https://www.u4.no/publications/corruption-and-resource-distribution-in-neopatrimonial-systems.pdf>> [Accessed 7 September 2018].

Ndevu, Z. and Muller, K., 2017. A conceptual framework for improving service delivery at local government in South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9 (7), pp.13-24.

Nealer, E. and Raga, K., 2007. Nature and extent of local governance in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (5), pp. 171 - 182.

Nene, S., Enhancing service delivery: A review of South Africa's dual government system. *Poletia*, 35 (1), pp. 19–40.

Nengwekhulu, R.H., 2009. Public service delivery challenges facing the South African public service. *Journal of Public Administration*, 44 (2), pp. 341 - 363.

Neuman, L., 2007. *Social research methods*. 7th ed. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

News 24, 2016. *Young, jobless and desperate degrees with no guarantees*. [Online]. Available at :<<https://www.news24.com/Archives/City-Press/Young-jobless-and-desperate-Degrees-with-no-guarantees-20150429>> [Accessed 29 March 2018].

Ngubane, N., Seven months without local government in Nqutu. [Online]. *Ground Up*. Available at: <<http://www.groundup.org.za/article/seven-months-without-local-government-nquthu/>> [Accessed 27 May 2017].

Ngulube, P., Mokwatlo, K. and Ndwandwe, S., 2009. Utilisation and prevalence of mixed methods research in library and information research in South Africa 2002-2008. *South African Journal of Libraries and Information Science*, 75 (2), pp 105 – 116.

Noor, K.B.M., 2008. Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5 (11), pp.1602-1604.

Nzimakwe, T.I. and Mpehle, Z., 2012. Key factors in the successful implementation of batho-pele principles. *Journal of Public Administration*, 47 (1.1), pp.286-287.

Okeke-Uzodike, O.E. and Subban, M., 2015. Public sector recruitment policies: efficiency, effectiveness and consequences. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 13 (1), pp.26-34.

Omotoye, A.M.T. and Malan, L.P., 2011. Conceptualising labour turnover and retention management in the senior management. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 4(1), pp 1 – 11.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J. and Leech, N.L., 2005. On Becoming a Pragmatic Researcher: The Importance of Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methodologies. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8 (5), pp.375-387.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Dickinson, W.B., Leech, N.L. and Zoran, A.G., 2009. A Qualitative Framework for Collecting and Analysing Data in Focus Group Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Method*, 8 (3), pp.1-21.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Slate, J.R., Leech, N.L. and Collins K., 2007. Conducting mixed analyses: A general typology. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches*, 1 (1), pp.4-17.

Orjuela, C., 2014. Corruption and identity politics in divided societies. *Third World Quarterly*, 35(5), pp.753-769.

Pande, R., 2007. Understanding political corruption in low income countries. *Faculty of Research working paper series*. [Online]. Available at :< <https://ideas.repec.org/h/eee/devchp/5-50.html> > [Accessed 11 July 2017].

Parliament of South Africa, 2007. *Summary of report of the ad hoc committee on the review of chapter 9 and associated institutions with the executive summary, chapter one and recommendations contained in the 2007 AD Hoc committee Report*. [PDF]. Cape Town: Parliament of South Africa.

Peters, G., 1989. *The politics of bureaucracy*. 3rd ed. New York: Longman Incorporated.

Peyper, L., 2016. *Government's late payments to service providers add up to R2.2bn*. [Online]. Available at :< <https://www.fin24.com/Economy/govts-late-payments-to-service-providers-add-up-to-r22bn-20161117> > [Accessed 12 September 2018].

Phago, K.G., 2016. Editorial: Public Human Resources Practices and Performance Management Development Systems in the public sector. *Journal of Public Administration*, 50 (3.1), pp.620-622.

Picard, L.A., 2005. *The state of the state institutional transformation, capacity and political change in South Africa*. Johannesburg: Wits University Press.

Pillay, K., 2017. A year of scandals. *The Witness*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://www.pressreader.com/south-africa/the-witness/20170109/281612420084079>> [Accessed 21 April 2018].

Pillay, P., 2017. Public trust and good governance: a good comparative study of Brazil and South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9(8), pp. 31 - 47.

Plant, K. and Padotan, R., 2017. Improving skills development in the South African public sector: an internal audit perspective. *Southern African Journal of Accountability and Auditing Research*, 19 (1), pp.35-48.

Ponto, J., 2015. Understanding and evaluating survey research. *Journal of the Advanced Practitioner in Oncology*, 6 (2), pp.168–171.

Pring, C., 2015. People and corruption: Africa survey 2015. *Global Corruption Barometer*. Cape Town: Transparency International.

Prinsloo, J. and Naude, B., 2001. Corruption in Southern Africa. *Acta Criminologica*, 14 (1), pp. 40 - 49.

Prozesky, M., 2013. Corruption as the New Treason: Global Ethics, Africa's Moral Wisdom and the Corrupting of the Future. *Ubuntu: Journal of Conflict and Social Transformation*, 2 (1&2), pp. 7 - 19.

Public Protector South Africa. 2016. *State of Capture*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Public Protector South Africa. Available at :<http://www.pprotect.org/library/investigation_report/2016-17/State_Capture_14October2016.pdf> [Accessed 19 May 2017].

Public Service Act 1994. [C.1]. Cape Town: Government Gazette.

Public Service Commission. 2007. *A toolkit on recruitment and selection*. [PDF] Pretoria: Public Service Commission.

Public Service Commission. 2014. *Consolidated report on public hearings on compliance with government's 30 day payment period to service providers*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Public Service Commission.

Ramutsheli, M.P. and Van Rensburg, J.O., 2015. The root causes for local government's failure to achieve objectives. *Southern African Journal of Accountability and Auditing Research*, 17(2), pp. 107 - 118.

Reddy, V., Bhorat, H., Powell, M., Visser, M. and Arends, F., 2016. *Skills supply and demand in South Africa*. Pretoria: LMIP Publications.

Reiter, B., 2013. The epistemology and methodology of exploratory social science research: Crossing popper with Marcuse. *Government & International Affairs faculty publications*. Paper 99.

Roberts, B., Struwig, J., Gordon, S. and Mchunu, N., 2017. Changes in the public recognition of corruption as a societal priority in South Africa. Results from the South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS). *Human Sciences Research Council*. [Online]. Available at: < <http://www.hsrc.ac.za/en/review/hsrc-review-june-2017/results-from-sasas> > [Accessed 24 April 2018].

Rock, M.T., 2008. Corruption and democracy. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 45 (1), pp. 55-75.

Roos, R. and De la Harpe, S., 2006. Good governance in public procurement: A South African case study. *PER*, 11 (2), pp. 1 – 47.

Rose, D. and Sullivan, O., 1993. *Introducing data analysis for social scientists*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Rossi, E.H., Wright, J.D. and Anderson, A.B., 2013. *Handbook of Survey Research*. San Diego: Academic Press.

Roux, N.L. and Nyamukachi, 2005. A reform model for the improvement of municipal service delivery in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 40 (41), pp.687-705.

Ruhiiga, T.M., 2009. Costing the impact of corruption on service delivery in South Africa: an expository overview. *Journal of Public Administration*, 44 (4), pp.1090-1101.

Sarantakos, S., 1998. *Social Research*. 2nd ed. London: Macmillan Press LTD.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A., 2009. *Research methods for business students*. 5th ed. London: Pearson Education Limited.

Savides, M., 2016. KZN only province where ANC grew its support. *Times Live* [Online]. 6 August. Available at :< <http://www.timeslive.co.za/elections/2016/08/06/KZN-the-only-province-where-ANC-grew-its-support?platform=hootsuite> > [Accessed 22 February 2017].

Schneiderman, D., 2009. Promoting equality, black economic empowerment and the future of investment of investment rules. *South African Journal of Human Rights*, (2), pp.246 – 279.

Scholz, W.R. and Tietje, O., 2002. *Embedded case study methods, integrating qualitative and quantitative knowledge*. London: SAGE Publications.

Schuld, M., 2013. Voting and violence in KwaZulu-Natal's no-go areas: Coercive mobilization and territorial control in post-conflict elections. *African Journal of Conflict Resolutions*, 13 (1).

Scott, B.F., 2017. Budget speech 2017/18. *KZN Treasury*. [Online]. Available at :< http://www.kzntreasury.gov.za/Newsroom/Speeches/treasury%20budget%20speech%20high%20res%20corrected_2.pdf > [accessed 17 July 2017].

Sebeka, B.K. and Sebola, M.P., 2014. Growing trends and tendencies of corruption in the South African public service: negative contribution to service delivery, *Journal of Public Administration*, 49 (3), pp.744 – 755.

Sebola, M., 2009. Affirmative action policy: the administrative efficiency and socio-cultural impact on the South African society. *Journal of Public Administration*, 44 (4), pp. 102 – 1113.

Seidman, I., 2013. *Interviewing as qualitative research: a guide for researchers in education & the social sciences*. 4th ed. New York: Teachers College Press.

Shange, N., 2017. Guess which province spent 218% more in irregular expenditure? *Times Live*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://www.timeslive.co.za/news/south-africa/2017-11-02-guess-which-province-spent-218-more-in-irregular-expenditure/>> [Accessed 22 April 2018].

Sharma, G., 2017. Pros and cons of different sampling techniques. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 3(7), pp. 749- 752.

Shava, E., 2016. Black Economic Empowerment in South Africa: Challenges and prospects. *Journal of Economics and Behavioural Studies*, 8 (6), pp. 161-170.

Singh, K., 2016. KZN service delivery protest political- ANC councilor. [Online]. *News24*. Available at: <<http://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/News/kzn-service-delivery-protest-political-anc-councillor-20160222>> [Accessed 07 May 2017].

Sithebe, K., 2014. Chapter 9 institutions: for the sake of accountability and constitutional democracy. *Africa Law*. [Online]. Available at <<https://africlaw.com/2014/03/31/chapter-9-institutions-for-the-sake-of-accountability-and-constitutional-democracy/>> [Accessed 03 June 2017].

Sithole, J., 2011. Inkatha Freedom Party-National Freedom Party dynamics in the KwaZulu-Natal province. *Journal of Public Administration*, 46 (3.1), pp. 1169 – 1181.

Skills Development Act 1998 [C.1]. Cape Town: Government Gazette.

Starman, A.B., 2013. The case study as a type of qualitative research. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies*, 1/2013, pp.28-43.

Statistics South Africa, 2018. *Quarterly Labour Force Survey*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa., 2016. *Financial statistics of consolidated general government 2014/2015*. [PDF]. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Swartout, K., 2014. Analysing and interpreting mixed methods research. [Online]. Available at :<<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/presentation/0b01/b7ba434bdb0d2b30f20bb9b6a7faca2eb073.pdf>> [Accessed 22 February 2018].

Szeftel, M., 2007. Between governance & under-development: accumulation & Africa's 'catastrophic corruption'. *Review of Political Economy*, 27 (84), pp. 287-306.

- Tangri, R. and Southall, R., 2008. The politics of black economic empowerment in South Africa in South Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 34 (3), pp. 699-716.
- Tanzi, V., 2002. Part I causes and consequences of corruption. In: S.Gupta, eds. 2002. *Governance, corruption & economic governance*. Washington, D.C: International Monetary Fund. Ch.2.
- Tau, S.F., 2013. Citizen participation as an aspect of local governance in municipalities. A South African local government perspective. *Journal of Public Administration*, 48 (1), pp. 52 – 160.
- Taylor-Powell, E. and Renner, M., 2003. *Analysing qualitative data*. [Online]. Available at: <<https://learningstore.uwex.edu/assets/pdfs/g3658-12.pdf>> [Accessed 07 August 2017].
- Tella, O., 2013. Corruption and economic development: Africa and East Asia in comparative perspective. *Ubuntu: Journal of conflict and social transformation*, 2 (1&2), pp. 47 – 67.
- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996. Cape Town: Juta.
- Thebe, T.P., 2017. Political education for good governance in South Africa's local government communities, *Journal of Public Affairs*, 9 (5), pp. 123 – 135.
- Theobald, R. 1999. So what really is the problem about corruption? *Third World Quarterly*, 20 (4), pp.491-502.
- Theunissen, C.A., 1998. *Administering National Government*, in Government and Politics in the New South Africa, edited by A. Venter. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Thomas, G., 2009. *How to do your research project*. California. SAGE Publications.
- Thomas, G., 2011. *How to do your case study: a guide for students and researchers*. California: SAGE Publications.
- Timamy, M.H., 2005. African leaders and corruption. *Review of Political Economy*, 104 (5), pp. 383-393.
- Timm, S., 2013. Government departments fail to pay on time. *Mail & Guardian*, [Online] 27 September. Available at :<<https://mg.co.za/article/2013-09-27-00-government-departments-fail-to-pay-on-time>> [Accessed 11 July 2017].

Tooley, R. and Mahoai, K., 2007. The impact of corruption in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (3), pp. 366 – 373.

Treisman, D., 2000. The causes of corruption: a cross-national study. *Journal of Public Economics*, 76, pp. 399–457.

Tshishonga, N. and Mafema E.D., 2010. Policy development for service delivery through community development workers programme in South Africa: exploring the implications of placing the cart before the horse. *Journal of Public Administration*, 45 (4).pp. 561 - 58.

Tshishonga, N., 2014. Cadre deployment and its implications on service delivery in South Africa: A human development capability approach. *Journal of Public Administration*, 49 (3), pp. 891 – 908.

Turner, K.J. and Lambert, P.S., 2014. Workflows for quantitative data analysis in the social sciences. *International Journal on Software Tools for Technology Transfer*, 17 (3), pp.321-338.

Twala, C., 2004. Affirmative action 1994-2004: a viable solution to redress labour imbalances or just a flat spare tyre? *Journal of Contemporary History*, 29 (3), pp.128 - 147.

Twala, C., 2014. The African National Congress (ANC) and the cadre deployment policy in post-apartheid South Africa: A product of democratic centralisation or a recipe for a constitutional crisis. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 41 (2), pp. 159-165.

Uslaner, E.M., 2008. *Corruption, inequality, and the role of law*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Uzodike, U.O., 2009. Editorial: Leadership and governance in Africa. *Afrika Journal of Politics, Economics & Society*, 1 (1), pp. 3 – 9.

Van Aardt, I., 2012. A review of youth unemployment in South Africa, 2004-2011. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 36 (1), pp. 54 – 68.

Van Der Merwe, A., 2006. The nature and causes of corruption: the perceptions. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41 (1), pp. 32 - 46.

Van Vuuren, H., 2006. *Apartheid grand corruption: assessing the scales of crimes of profit in South Africa from 1976 to 1994*. Cape Town: Institute for Security Studies.

Van Vuuren, H., 2014. South Africa: democracy, corruption and conflict management. In: *CDE (Centre for Development and Enterprise), democracy works conference paper*. Johannesburg, South Africa 13 May 2014. Johannesburg: center for development and enterprise.

Van Vuuren, H., 2017. *Apartheid, guns and money: a tale of profit*. Jacana Media: Johannesburg.
Van Wyk, B., 2017. *Research design and methods*. [Online]. Available at: <
https://www.uwc.ac.za/Students/Postgraduate/Documents/Research_and_Design_I.pdf>
[Accessed 27 July 2017].

Van Zyl, E. and Lazenby, K., 2002. The relation between ethical behaviour and work stress amongst a group of managers working in affirmative action positions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 40 (2), pp. 111-119.

Venter, A., 2007. Local government and its external environment. In: G. Waldt, ed. 2007. *Municipal Management*. Cape Town: Juta and Company. Ch.5

Venter, J., 2015. “Power tends to corrupt, and absolute power corrupts absolutely.” South Africa 2015. *Word and Action*, 54 (428), pp. 19 - 22.

Verba,S., Kelman, S., Green, G.R., Miyake, I., Kabashima, I. and Ferree, D.G., 1987. *Elites and the idea of equality. A comparison of Japan, Sweden and the United States*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Vyas-Doorgapersad, S., 2007. Corruption in the public sector: a comparative analysis. *Journal of Public Administration*, 42 (5), pp. 285 - 299.

Webb, W. and Auriacombe, C.J., 2006. Research design in public administration: critical considerations. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41 (3.1), pp. 588-602.

Webb, W., 2005. Applying the public service anti-corruption strategy in pursuit of accountable South African public administration. *Journal of Public Administration*, 40 (2), pp. 151 - 165.

Williams, S. and Quinot, G., 2007. Public procurement and corruption: The South African response. *South African Law Journal*, 124 (2), pp. 339-363.

Yangaas, P. and Bukeyna, B., 2016. ‘New’ approaches confront ‘old’ challenges in African Public sector reform. *Third World Quarterly*, 3 (2), pp. 136-152.

Yin, R.K., 2003. *Applications of case study research*. 2nd ed. California: SAGE publications.

Zitha, H.E., Sebola, M.P. and Mamabolo, M.A., 2016. Compliance to procurement process, deviant behaviour and effects on service delivery in the public sector. *Journal of Public Administration*, 47 (1.1), pp. 59 - 76.

Zondi, B., 2018. Ilahlisa ngethemba eyesimo somasipala. *ILANGA*, March 26-28. p15

Zungu, L., 2018. 36m flushed away in eThekweni toilet debacle. *IOL News*. [Online]. Available at: < <https://www.iol.co.za/news/politics/r36m-flushed-away-in-ethekwini-toilet-debacle-13474301> > [Accessed 19 April 2018].

Appendices

Appendix A: Local government Interview, KZN Dept. of COGTA.
Interview Schedule Guideline

Local government official

Introduce myself: I am currently undertaking studies towards a Master's degree in Political Science at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am interested in matters of governance and service delivery.

Introduce Dissertation: this study will look at challenges of corruption in recruitment and procurement within provincial governments, and how these challenges are likely to affect service delivery.

A. Introduction to the interview

Explain to the person being interviewed what I would like to gain from the interview:

- ❖ A broader understanding of the challenges of corruption in the unit and how they may affect service delivery.
- ❖ Potential obstacles, internal or external, other than corruption, that hinder service delivery within the department.
- ❖ The unit's ability to carry out its functions as per the department's organisational structure.

1. Kindly provide an overview of your professional experience, type of work you do and how long have you been in this institution/office?
2. In your view, is there a need for oversight in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial public service?
3. What are the biggest challenges, if any, that hinder oversight in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government, in particular with reference to the curbing of corruption in local government?
4. Is there enough being done to encourage oversight and accountability in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?
5. Do you consider corruption to be a serious challenge for service delivery?
6. Is there a relationship between public administration in the public service and corruption from a local government point of view?

7. According to your knowledge, what are the most common reasons given behind unethical acts such as that of corruption?
8. With regard to challenges of corruption, what were the measures, if any, taken by local government to address these challenges?
9. How successful were these measures?
10. In your view, what do you think should be done to improve service delivery and reduce the scourge of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal local provincial government?
11. From your point of view, is there anything we have discussed here that we haven't covered or that I did not ask, that you would like to mention?

Appendix B: KwaZulu-Natal Office of the Public Service Commission Interview Schedule Guideline

KwaZulu-Natal Office of the Public Service Commission official

Introduce myself: I am currently undertaking studies towards a Master's degree in Political Science at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am interested in matters of governance and service delivery.

Introduce Dissertation: this study will look at challenges of corruption in recruitment and procurement within provincial governments, and how these challenges are likely to affect service delivery.

Introduction to the interview

Explain to the person being interviewed what I would like to gain from the interview:

- ❖ A broader understanding of the challenges of corruption in the public service and how they may affect the performance of government.
- ❖ Potential obstacles, internal or external, other than corruption, that hinder service delivery within the government departments.
- ❖ The KZN provincial office's ability to carry out its functions as per the PSC's organisational structure.

General Questions

1. Kindly provide an overview of your professional experience, type of work you do and how long have you been in this institution/office?
2. In your view, is there a need for oversight in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial public service?
3. What are the biggest challenges, if any, that hinder oversight in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government, in particular with reference to the curbing of corruption?
4. Is there enough being done to encourage oversight and accountability in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?
5. Do you consider corruption to be a serious challenge for service delivery?
6. Is there a relationship between public administration in the public service and corruption from an oversight point of view?

7. According to your knowledge, what are the most common reasons given behind unethical acts such as that of corruption?
8. With regards to challenges of corruption, what were the measures, if any, taken by your institution to address these challenges?
9. How successful were these measures?
10. Lastly, in your view, what do you think should be done to improve service delivery and reduce the scourge of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?

Appendix C: Recruitment official Interview Schedule, KZN Dept. of COGTA. Interview Schedule Guideline

Human Resources Management, Recruitment official

Introduce myself: I am currently undertaking studies towards a Master's degree in Political Science at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am interested in matters of governance and service delivery.

Introduce Dissertation: this study will look at challenges of corruption in recruitment and procurement within provincial governments, and how these challenges are likely to affect service delivery.

Introduction to the interview

Explain to the person being interviewed what I would like to gain from the interview:

- ❖ A broader understanding of the challenges of corruption in the unit and how they may affect service delivery.
- ❖ Potential obstacles, internal or external, either than corruption, that hinder service delivery within the department.
- ❖ The unit's ability to carry out its functions as per the department's organisational structure.

General Questions

1. Kindly provide an overview of your professional experience, type of work you do and how long have you been in this unit, within this department.
2. How important is it for your department to ensure that the right candidates are brought in during a recruitment process and that the right candidate is given the job?
3. Affirmative Action is an important tool used by government to ensure that previously-disadvantaged citizens are given opportunities. Is the department able to ensure that Affirmative Action is used for that and is not used as a means of committing acts of corruption such as nepotism?
4. Is your unit able to manage perceptions about corruption within recruitment procedures, especially from the youth, and what does the unit do to manage these perceptions?
5. Do you consider corruption to be a serious challenge in the functioning of the department?

6. How does corruption affect the functioning of the department?
 7. In your view, what sort of impact, if any, does corruption within the recruitment unit have on the department's ability to provide adequate service delivery?
 8. According to your knowledge, what are the most common reasons given for why acts of corruption are committed within this unit?
 9. With regards to challenges of corruption, what were the measures, if any, taken by your unit to address these challenges?
10. How successful were these measures?
11. Lastly, in your view, what do you think should be done to improve service delivery and reduce the scourge of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?

Appendix D: Human Resources Management official.
KZN Dept. of COGTA.

Interview Schedule Guideline

Human Resources Management official

Introduce myself: I am currently undertaking studies towards a Master's degree in Political Science at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am interested in matters of governance and service delivery.

1. Introduce Dissertation: this study will look at challenges of corruption in recruitment and procurement within provincial governments, and how these challenges are likely to affect service delivery.

Introduction to the interview

Explain to the person being interviewed what I would like to gain from the interview:

- ❖ A broader understanding of the challenges of corruption in the unit and how they may affect service delivery.
- ❖ Potential obstacles, internal or external, either than corruption, that hinder service delivery within the department.
- ❖ The unit's ability to carry out its functions as per the department's organisational structure.

General Questions

1. Kindly provide an overview of your professional experience, type of work you do and how long have you been in this unit, within this department?
2. Briefly describe the need for your function in the organisation.
3. What are the biggest challenges, if any, that may hinder ethics officers from being able to fulfil their duties to the best of their abilities?
4. What are the most common issues involving ethics that you deal with in the unit?
5. Do you consider corruption to be a serious challenge in the functioning of the department?
6. How does corruption effect the functioning of this department?

7. According to your knowledge, what are the most common reasons given for unethical acts such as that of corruption in government?
8. With regards to challenges of corruption, what were the measures, if any, taken by your unit to address these challenges?
9. How successful were these measures?
10. Lastly, in your view, what do you think should be done to improve service delivery and reduce the scourge of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?

Appendix E: Service provider's interview

Interview Schedule Guideline

Service providers.

Introduce myself: I am currently undertaking studies towards a Master's degree in Political Science at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus. I am interested in matters of governance and service delivery.

2. Introduce Dissertation: this study will look at challenges of corruption in recruitment and procurement within provincial governments, and how these challenges are likely to affect service delivery.

Introduction to the interview

Explain to the person being interviewed what I would like to gain from the interview:

- ❖ A broader understanding of the challenges of corruption in the unit and how they may affect service delivery.
- ❖ Potential obstacles, internal or external, either than corruption, that hinder service delivery within the department.
- ❖ The unit's ability to carry out its functions as per the department's organisational structure.

General Questions

1. Kindly provide an overview of your professional experience, type of work you do and how long you have worked with the department of COGTA.
2. How important is it for the KZN provincial government to ensure that there is an equal opportunity given to historically-disadvantaged service providers to enable them to conduct business with the provincial government?
3. What are the biggest challenges you have faced as a service provider looking to do business with the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?
4. In your view, is enough being done to ensure that there is an equal opportunity for historically-disadvantaged service providers?
5. What sort of impact, if any, do corrupt practices in procurement service delivery have on the empowerment of up-and-coming service providers?

6. Do you think the right service provider is always given the opportunity to conduct business with the department?
7. Are you aware of any measures that have been put in place to ensure that the right service provider is awarded a contract?
8. How successful have these measures been?
9. Lastly, in your view, what do you think should be done to improve service delivery and reduce the scourge of corruption in the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government?

Appendix F: Information letter

Information Letter
University of KwaZulu-Natal
School of Social Sciences

Master of Social Sciences Research project

Researcher: Ngqapheli Mchunu

247 Boom Street

Pietermaritzburg

3201

Cellphone number: 0840473669

E-mail address: 211519064@stu.ukzn.ac.za or Ngqaphelimchunu@gmail.com

Supervisor Dr Siyabonga Dlamini

Lecturer: Political Science & International Relations

International & Public Affairs Cluster

School of Social Sciences

University of KwaZulu-Natal

Howard Campus

Howard College MTB Building ZG156

Tel: 031 260 1384

E-mail: dlaminis15@ukzn.ac.za

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Greetings, Sir/Ma'am/Miss/Rev/Dr./Prof

I, Ngqapheli Obadia Mchunu, a Master of Social Sciences student (student number **211519064**) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg Campus, invite you to participate in a research project titled **The impact of corruption in procurement and recruitment within local government and its impact on service delivery: Using the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs as a case study**. The aim and purpose of this research is to establish whether or not corruption within the units of procurement and recruitment has an effect on service delivery. The study is expected to take place in and around Pietermaritzburg, involving 100 final year/postgraduate employment-seeking students from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg campus, three government officials from the KZN department of Co-operative Government and Traditional Affairs, an official from the KZN Office of the Public of the Public Service Commission and two business individuals who have had business dealings with the KZN department of CoGTA. It will involve the following procedures: a survey about students/graduates perceptions on recruitment practices in KwaZulu-Natal public sector and interviews will be held with the respective officials and business individuals. The duration of the survey should be approximately 15 minutes. The interviews will be unstructured and semi-formal and they are estimated to last an hour. The duration of your participation if you choose to enroll and remain in the study is expected to be 15 minutes for a survey and an hour for an interview. The study is funded by the University of KwaZulu-Natal and the UKZN school of Social Sciences Master's bursary.

Your participation in this research project is voluntary. You may choose to withdraw from the participation at any point, should you so wish, with no negative repercussions. The study will provide no direct benefits to participants.

Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the School of Social Sciences. Furthermore, your views expressed in the survey or interview will be presented anonymously, so that neither your name nor identity will be disclosed in the study. All data collected in the research will be stored and coded for safekeeping.

If you have any queries or concerns you can contact me, or my supervisor or the research officer in the numbers listed above.

Yours faithfully

Researcher's Signature _____ Date _____

- This page is to be rationed by the participant

Appendix G: Consent Letter

I (Full Name of participant _____) have been informed about the study entitled “The impact of corruption in procurement and recruitment within local government and its impact on service delivery: Using the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs as a case study” by Ngqapheli Mchunu.

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to answer questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study, I understand that I may contact the researcher Ngqapheli Mchunu, 247 Boom Street, Pietermaritzburg, 3201 Cellphone number: 0840473669, E-mail address: 211519064@stu.ukzn.ac.za or Ngqaphelimchunu@gmail.com.

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact: HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001 Durban 4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609 Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

I hereby consent to participate in this research

Signature of Participant

Date

- This page is to be retained by the researcher.

Appendix H: Ethical Clearance Certificate



10 January 2018

Mr Ngcaphele Obadla Mchunu (211519064)
School of Social Sciences
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Mchunu,

Protocol reference number: HSS/1211/017M

Project title: The impact of corruption in procurement and recruitment within local government and its impact on service delivery: Using the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance & Traditional Affairs as a case study

Approval Notification – Full Committee Reviewed Protocol

With regards to your response received on 07 December 2017 and 19 December 2017 to our letter of 06 December 2017, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisors: Dr Sakhile Hadebe
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor M Naidu
Cc School Administrator: Ms Nancy Mudau

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Sheruka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 200 3587/359/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 200 4604 Email: hssba@ukzn.ac.za lsachariah@ukzn.ac.za

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za



Frontline Campus ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

Appendix I: KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs permission letter.

 **cogta**
Department:
Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Tel. +27 33 295 2035 Fax. +27 33 245 6632
Postal: Private Bag X 0070, Pietermaritzburg, 3200
Office: Nataku Building, 330 Langalibalele street,
Pietermaritzburg, 3201

OFFICE OF THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

Enquiries: Buhle Ally My Reference: Inkombazani:
Imibuzo: Buhle Ally E-mail: Buhle.Ally@kzncopta.gov.za Date:
Name: My Verwyking: Usuku:
Datum:

Mr Ngapheli Mchunu
247 Boom Street
Pietermaritzburg
3201

Per email: 211519064@stu.ukzn.ac.za
Ngaphelimchunu@gmail.com

Dear Mr Mchunu

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT KZN COGTA

Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct a research study on: **Impact of corruption in Procurement and Recruitment within Local Government and its impact on Service Delivery**: The case study being the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.

It is noted that you will be conducting interviews with respective officials from the department where necessary.

All data obtained from the research must be treated with confidentiality and anonymity as per the ethical requirements of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Yours faithfully


MR T. TUBANE
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
DEPARTMENT OF COOPERATIVE GOVERNANCE AND TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS
DATE: 23/2/18

Appendix J: Survey Schedule

Survey

Respondent AGED 18 YEARS+. Kindly provide your age _____

Good (morning/afternoon/evening) **I am Ngqapheli Mchunu, student number (211519064)**, I am a student at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal Pietermaritzburg campus registered for the degree of Master of Social Sciences. **I am conducting a survey regarding perceptions of corruption in recruitment at the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Co-operative government and traditional affairs.** Your views are important for this research. This serves to confirm that you are a voluntary participant in the survey. You may withdraw at any point if you so wish. All the information provided is strictly confidential.

Instruction: Please tick or cross.

Question 1

What is your gender?

Male	Female

Question 2

What race do you identify as?

African	White	Coloured	Indian	Other

Question 3

Upon graduating, do you plan on working in the public sector?

Yes	1	
No	2	
Not Sure	3	

Question 4

To what extent do you agree with Affirmative action in public sector employment?

1.Strongly Agree	2.Agree	3. Neither Agree or disagree	4. Disagree	5.Strongly Disagree
------------------	---------	---------------------------------	-------------	---------------------

--	--	--	--	--

Question 5

Do you believe that the recruitment process in the KZN Department of Co-operative Governance & Traditional Affairs is free and fair?

1.Strongly Agree	2.Agree	3. Neither Agree or disagree	4. Disagree	5.Strongly Disagree

Question 6

Are you of the view that corruption acts such as nepotism exist in public sector recruitment, specifically at the KZN Department of CoGTA?

1.Strongly Agree	2.Agree	3. Neither Agree or disagree	4. Disagree	5.Strongly Disagree