UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE ASSOCIATION OF POLITICAL WILL WITH PERFORMANCE: A STUDY OF SELECTED MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

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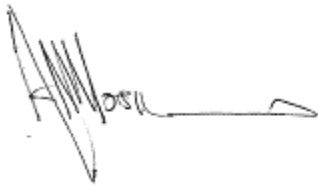Supervisor: Professor Yogi Penceliah

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DECLARATION

I Asaph Mongwegela Moshikaro declare that:

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(ii) This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research study to my late father Isaiah Makoto Moshikaro and late mother Anna Mmakau Moshikaro who, when they had nothing luxurious to give, gave me the education and support from my primary and secondary school years that saw me through, a gift that I will always treasure.

I also dedicate this to my wife Dikeledi Moshikaro who has been my source of strength and encouragement when writing this thesis.

My dedication also goes to our children Pheladi and Kgaogelo who are very dear and patiently waited for me to finish my study.

ABSTRACT

The study aimed to establish *the association of political will with performance: a study of selected Municipalities in South Africa* in the wake of continued service delivery lapses. The review of literature revealed that there is a paucity of substantial research on the relationship of political will and performance in Municipalities globally and in South Africa. This study sought to fill that knowledge gap. Post-apartheid South Africa faces a major challenge in ensuring that Municipalities provide optimal and professional services to citizens of diverse cultures. A comparative analysis of the four Southern African countries' service delivery (including South Africa) seems to be a microcosm of a situation that pervades Africa, except for a few exceptions.

To study the association of political will with performance: a study of selected Municipalities in South Africa, various qualitative and quantitative research methodologies were employed to collect data, namely, demographic data, opinions, intensity and salience of political will, Municipal performance issues, Municipal experts' comments, integrated development programmes (IDPs), Annual Reports, Auditor Report (2014), legislative and policy documents and an integrated approach to service delivery at local government level. Qualitative and quantitative analyses of the data under the relevant themes presented an integrated as well as a holistic view of the study. The study's empirical findings and results revealed that an association between *political will* and *Municipal performance* was found to be qualitatively and quantitatively significant, namely, that there is a connection (i.e. from a quantitative perspective) between political will and Municipal performance (56.5%) is a fair positive response that is supported by qualitative findings. In other words, Councillors and Municipal Managers, who are politicians, understood their political will and were accountable for Municipal performance. Among others, as improvement of Municipal performance in the local government matches the rise or increase of the level of political will amongst political leaders, therefore, further studies of cause and effect of these variables are recommended. As the study was limited to only two provinces in South Africa, it is recommended that, *inter alia*, that further broad studies, perhaps longitudinal, in all South African provinces are undertaken for validation of the findings and results as well as reproducibility of this study.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Municipal service delivery is a major concern in South Africa because the local government, as opposed to the National and Provincial governments, is at the coalface of government performance *per se*. Specifically the provision of quality service to South African citizens by all levels of government is mandated by the Constitution. For instance, in terms of the latter, the local government is tasked to deliver basic services such as refuse removal, water, electricity, sanitation, storm water and Municipal roads. However, the continued escalation of public protests in Municipalities all over the country due to poor service delivery reflect negatively on the ability of the local government to provide adequate basic services in line with communities' expectations (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010: 996 - 1005). Therefore, the study aimed to establish the underlying problems relating to organisational performance of Municipalities in South Africa in the wake of continued service delivery lapses. Municipal performance and service delivery will be used interchangeably in the thesis.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Post-apartheid South Africa faces a major challenge in ensuring that Municipalities provide optimal and professional services to citizens of diverse cultures. The former Minister of Provincial and Local Government, Minister Mufamadi, commented in the debate on the State of the Nation Address of President Mbeki in 2005 and, among others, he argued that in designing the new system of local government, care should be taken to ensure that parliament put in place, a framework for progressively doing away with the consequences of a system which exposed White and Black South Africans to vastly different socio-economic environments. It was noted that the continuing challenge faced was one of ensuring that all Municipalities develop the requisite capacity to translate those resources into instruments with which to confront problems of poverty and under development. The interventions must make positive impact on the way

challenges are met, such as public participation, programme management as well as creating conditions for sustainable service delivery and economic development (Pretorius and Schurink, 2007: 19 – 29). This statement by the former Minister underscores the importance of service delivery at ministerial as well as at the Municipal level as informed by constitutional imperatives. The monitoring of service delivery needs through effective governance and accountable administration is clearly crucial.

Globally, despite considerable coverage by theorists and researchers on the variables in the problem statement, chapter 2 and 4 and Appendix A, the hypothesis is that there could be other unknown variables that may bear responsibility for the negative performance dynamics in Municipalities. The African comparative analysis of the four Southern African countries' service delivery in chapter 3 seems to be a microcosm of a situation that pervades the whole of Africa except for a few exceptions in terms of their poor service delivery and the causes thereof. Among others, their drawback is the fixation to liberation politics and slow transformation to democratic governance that could improve socio-economic lives of their whole citizenry irrespective of political allegiance or persuasion.

In the South African context, the constitutional stance emphasised service to the people as a parameter for local government transformation. Thus one of the most important indicators in assessing the transformation of local government is the experiences and perceptions people have of service delivery in their day-to-day lives, more specifically whether they perceive an improvement in the services delivered to them. The implication of this is for local government to transform words into deeds, and thus to prioritise and satisfy the needs of the communities they serve (Dollery and Johnson, 2005: 73-85).

The variables in the problem statement, Chapter 2, 3, 4 and Appendix A did not relate to the concept of *political will*. Secondly, the on-going spate of violent protests in South African local government is an impetus for this study in general and, this has increased the need for Municipalities to look seriously into issues that really influence their performance at large. The

spate of protest actions in South African Municipalities since 2004 related to poor service delivery are still ongoing.

To this end, there is a paucity of research information that posits political will as a variable to be considered in the equation for explaining the possible causal factors for poor Municipal performance. Therefore, the *problematique* that prompted this proposed intellectual contribution is clearly enunciated by this research question: What is the impact of *political will* on *performance* of selected Municipalities in South Africa?

1.3 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Social studies indicated that there is extant literature on Municipal performance as influenced by, among others, lack of institutional capacity (Khumalo, Ntlokonkulu & Rapoo, 2003:4-7; Oberholzer, 2012:1-12; Maserumule, 2008: 304-455; Muller, 2008:198-210; Ballies, 2009:1-102; Mampane, 2008:1-113; Idasa, 2010:1-150; Marais & Kroukamp, 2005:121-135); Lack of resources (Bonga, 2007: 119-124; RadhaKrishna, 2008:26-28); poor public participation (Sikakane, 2006:2; Nzimakwe & Reddy, 2008:667-679; Tshishonga & Mbambo, 2009:132 (see Figure; 6); Carrim, 2010: 201-245; Kotze & Taylor, 2010: 109-151; Draai & Taylor, 2009: 112-122; Muller, 2008:198-210; Subban, Reddy & Pillay, 2009:55-75; Madzivhandila & Asha, 2012: 411-445; Mubangizi, 2007: 4-17; Malena, 2009:1-358; Quinlivan, 2012:173; Dale, 2008:1-340 & Quinlivan, 2012: 1-293); leadership and governance (Pretorius and Schurink, 2007:19-29; PricewaterhouseCoppers, 2012:456-471; Edwards, 2009: 299-351; Nengwekhulu, 2009:341-363; Auditor-General, 2014; Kaufman, Kray & Lobaton, 1999: 670-695; Minogue, Polidano & Hulme, 1998:1-305; Muller & Zulu, 2008: 285-293; Mfene, 2009:209 – 221; Tewary, 2011:20 -22; De Visser, 2008:13-16; Thakhathi, 2009: 301-345; Idasa, 2010: 1-150; Sindane, 2009:221-245; Sindane & Nambalirwa, 2012: 695-705; Roux, 2005); lack of accountability (Sikakane & Reddy, 2009:113-131; Molekane & Mothae, 2009:401-450; Du Plessis, 2009:320-346 & Brynard, 2009: 245-264; Movanyisi, 2009:1-126; Ngwakwe, 2012:311-329; Quinlivan, 2012: 155; Kurnia, 2012:71); Fraud and corruption (Drury, Krieckhaus & Lusztig, 2006:122; Kanyane, 2009: 202-231; Mafunisa, 2007:258-269; Pillay, 2004:586; Carrier, 2008:7 & Gupta, Davoodi & Alsonso-Terme, 2002:3; Tooley & Mahoai, 2007:366-373);

political and administrative tensions   (Kanyane, 2009: 202-231& Idasa, 2010:1-150; Mafunisa, 2007:258-269 & Idasa, 2010:1-150).

However, lapses in service delivery are happening even though some measures were taken to ensure success resulting in severe shortcomings in Municipal performance. Consequently, questions such as what is the impact of political will on performance of Municipalities globally and in South Africa still remain answered. Why this lack of answers to this question? Alternatively, what could be the other causal factors to poor Municipal performance globally and in South Africa?

At the heart of the rationale of the above mentioned question is the mandate of political leaders in local government as promulgated through the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2002. Chapter 3 of this Act mandates the development of an Integrated Development Plan (IDP), which would, after approval by the Municipal Council be implemented by the Municipal management. For the Council to approve such a key delivery plan, the IDP, they need to be skilled and motivated to do so and furthermore, be able to monitor progress. The same applies to the Municipal Managers. The Municipal Councils and Municipal Managers are not appointed through the normal recruitment and selection procedures of organisational employees. They are deployed to Municipalities by their political parties. The mandate they therefore carry is a political one. This means, in the running of their day to day duties, what will carry them through or motivate them to do their jobs is their professional will (that is, their leadership orientation and/or governance) as well as their political will as informed by their respective political parties. However, in the scholarly work referred above political will which is the main driver of the politically deployed personnel, has not been included in assessing Municipal performance. It was significant to conceptualise the study's variables as comprehensively as possible as enunciated below.

1.3.1 A Conceptual Framework for Political Will

Political will is a complex phenomenon that incorporates; (a) individual actors, along with their aspirations, motivations, and capacities; (b) organizations, within which individuals function and on whose behalf individuals often act; (c) socio-economic and governance systems, which frame both constraints and incentives for individuals and organizations; and (d) the policies,

programmes, and activities that actors and organizations are involved with at various stages: identification, design, implementation, and evaluation (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 231-252).

Similar to phenomena like ownership or capacity, political will exhibits a latent quality; it is not visible separate from some sort of action, measuring it can only be done indirectly. Evidence of political will, therefore, is often cited ex post facto, from a retrospective point of view. This leads to one of the vexing methodological problems in examining the role of political will and reforms: the tendency to engage in post hoc circular explanatory arguments (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 231-252; Heaver and Israel, 1986; Johnson and Wasty, 1993; Jayarajah and Branson, 1995).

The conceptual framework developed here sought to avoid this difficulty by specifying: (a) the characteristics of political will in terms of a set of indicators; (b) the set of environmental factors that influence political will (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 231-252).

1.3.1.1 Characteristics of Political Will

Political will was defined as: the commitment of actors to undertake actions to achieve a set of objectives (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 231-252). This commitment is manifested by elected or appointed leaders and public agency senior officials. The model proposed here treated political will as a phenomenon that can be described in terms of five key characteristics, which can form the basis for indicators. The characteristics of political will are: (1) locus of initiative; (2) degree of analytical rigor applied to understanding the context and causes of any action; (3) mobilization of constituencies of stakeholders in support reforms; (4) application of credible sanctions in support of reform objectives; and (5) continuity of effort in pursuing reform efforts (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 231-252). Though the following description of the characteristics of political will were depicted alongside the issue of corruption, the description, however, highlighted the impact of political will on reform in the public service.

- **Locus of initiative**: This characteristic related to where the impetus for tackling corruption resides. Does the initiative for reform come from the actor that is espousing the change? Is there an indication that the actor perceives corruption as an issue requiring attention? Or is the initiative for change lodged with an external group that has induced or coerced the actor to accept or endorse the anti-corruption issues? Home grown initiative for anti-corruption activities demonstrates that reformers themselves perceive

corruption as a salient issue, that they have ownership for doing something about it, and that they are willing to champion the efforts necessary to fight it. Imported or imposed initiative confronted the perennial problem of needing to build commitment and ownership; and there was always the question of whether espousals of willingness to pursue reform are genuine or not. The indicator was a range from high to low of the extent to which initiative for anti-corruption activities lies with the reformer(s). Higher ratings indicated stronger political will for reform

- **Degree of analytical rigor**. This characteristic of political will entailed the extent to which the reformer, or reform team, undertakes an in-depth analysis of corruption and used that analysis to design a technically adequate and politically feasible reform programme. Has the reform team sought to recognize the complexities that give rise to corrupt behaviour? Has it built its strategy on a plausible model of corruption that takes into account the structure of institutions and the rules that govern them? Has it identified and developed strategies to deal with those institutions, mandates, and behaviours that either impede or promote integrity in government and/or private business? Has the team analysed the costs of corruption and weighed those against the costs of combating particular types of corruption? Reformers who have not gone through these analytic steps, and/or who advocate actions that are clearly insufficient to address the problems (e.g., symbolic purges of a few corrupt officials), demonstrated shallow willingness to pursue change. As above, the indicators aggregated the answers to these questions into rankings along a high-low continuum

- **Mobilization of support**: This characteristic of political will dealt with the willingness and ability of the reformer/team to identify and mobilize support for anti-corruption activities. Has the team developed a credible vision of success, and a strategy that is participative and that incorporates the interests of important stakeholders? Is the reformer mustering adequate and ongoing support to overcome resistance from those stakeholders whose interests are most threatened by particular reforms? Is there willingness to publicly report on progress, successes, or failures; and to take actions to strengthen the position of

reform supporters versus recidivist critics? Do these support mobilization efforts take account of the long-term nature of rooting out corruption, and the need to maintain support over time? Indicators were framed in terms of many versus few efforts, strong versus weak, and/or effective versus ineffective; with the former of each of these being associated with stronger political will

- **Application of credible sanctions**: A fourth characteristic of political will was openness of the reformer to identify incentives and apply sanctions, both positive and negative, in the context of reform strategies. Does the former seek to use the blunt instrument of prosecution (or fear of prosecution) as the principal tool for compliance? Are sanctions largely symbolic, or has careful consideration gone into devising credible and enforceable measures to induce and/or compel behavioural change? Committed reformers recognized the need to restructure principal-agent relationships, provide positive incentives for compliance with the law, publicise the positive outcomes of reform, and rehabilitate compromised individuals and institutions. Rehabilitation for individuals could involve, for example, restitution coupled with reduced sentences or fines: for institutions, examples included firings of top officials plus public integrity pledges by staff. In terms of indicators, the rating continuum was run from strong application of highly credible sanctions, associated with a greater degree of political will, to weak application of ineffective sanctions, signified a lesser degree of political will

- **Continuity of effort**: A fifth feature of political will is allocation of ongoing effort and resources in support of anti-corruption activities. Did the reformer treat the effort as a one-shot endeavour and/or symbolic gesture, or are efforts clearly undertaken for the long term? This included establishing a process for monitoring the impacts of anti-corruption/reform efforts and the means for incorporating those findings into a strategy for ensuring that reform goals and objectives are ultimately met. It also included assigning appropriate human and financial resources to the reform program, and provided the necessary degree of clout over time and ensured that reformers can achieve results. As with the other characteristics, strong and sustained continuity of effort would signal

more political will, whereas weak, episodic, or one-shot efforts would indicate less political will.

High/strong rankings on each of the five characteristics aggregate to delineate the most powerful case for the presence of political will. Variations in individual characteristic rankings allowed for a nuanced characterization of political will in a given situation. In using these five characteristics and associated indicators to identify and measure political will, it was important to treat them as an integrated whole, and not treat one or another as a proxy for all the rest. This perspective implied a couple of points. First, a low rating on one or two of the characteristics did not necessarily signal a complete absence of political will. For example, some governments had over time become progressively committed to reforms that they themselves did not initiate. An illustration comes from a Municipal government in Ukraine that adopted a reform programme originally proposed by members of the business community to reduce the solicitation by city inspectors of bribes from local businesses. Second, political will was a dynamic phenomenon, subject to shifts and modulations over time in the face of changing circumstances and events. There were interactions among these features of political will, which means that the degree of political will can—and is likely to—change over time. For example, the application of sanctions may reinforce the mobilization of a supportive constituency of stakeholders, thus yielding an increase in commitment to persevere with reforms (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 231-252).

Political will may be expressed in spoken or written words, speeches, manifestos and charters. Only action will confirm the commitment to achieve a set of political objectives (Brinkerhoff, 2007:239-251). An often cited drawback when government does not take action is a lack of political will because political will was inextricably tied to policy outcomes, and the general thrust of the argument here is that political power and other resources are essential for producing these outcomes. Policies backed by resource-poor coalitions suffer a deficit of political will (Brinkerhoff, 2007:239-259; Brinkerhoff & Kulibaba, 1999:1-65; Hammergren 1998:1.85; Kpundeh 1998:1-98). Political will was not usefully conceived of as a binary variable (yes, it is there, or no, it is not). Rather, political will should be assessed in terms of relative degree of presence/absence, and in terms of whether it is positive or negative (Brinkerhoff, 2007: 239-251).

The following are chronological divergent views of political will (Table 1).

Table 1: Definitions of political will (in chronological order)

Author(s)	Definition or Approach
Hammergren (1998)	Likelihood of reform.
Kpundeh (1998, 92)	"[D]emonstrated credible intent of political actors (elected or appointed leaders, civil society watchdogs, stakeholder groups, etc.) to attack perceived causes or effects . . . at a systematic level."
Brinkerhoff and Kulibaba (1999, 3); Brinkerhoff (2000, 242)	"[C]ommitment of actors to undertake actions to achieve a set of objectives . . . and to sustain the costs of those actions over time."
Andrews (2004)	Reform space = intersection of ability, authority, and acceptance.
Anderson *et al.* (2005)	Willingness as evidenced by commitment and inclusiveness.
Rose and Greeley (2006, 5)	"[S]ustained commitment of politicians and administrators to invest political resources to achieve specific objectives."

(Source: Post, Raile & Raile, 2010: 653-676)

In Figure 1 Malena (2009:1-358) outlined a framework for building genuine political will for participatory governance. It was suggested that elements for reinforcing political will are: political want, political can, and political must. It was hypothesised that by looking at elements of political want, political can, and political must some important strategies for nurturing political will become apparent; as a starting point, political will was defined as the commitment of political leaders and bureaucrats to undertake action. In order for power-holders to become committed to act, they need to want to undertake a given action, feel confident they can undertake that action, and feel they must undertake the action.
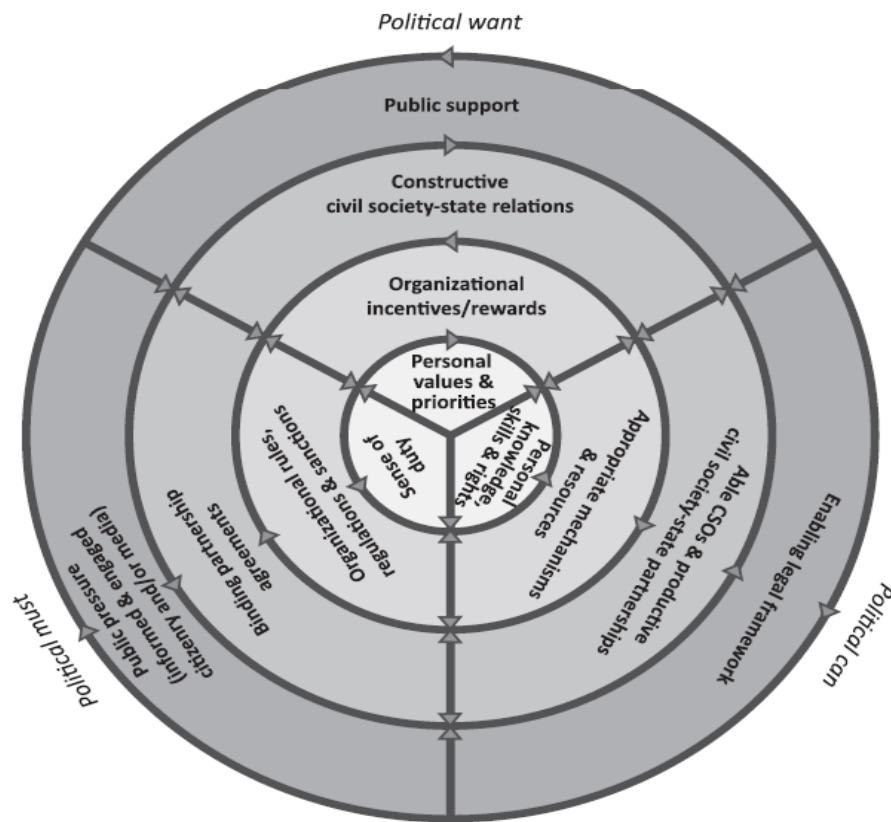
Figure 1: Key elements of political will

(Source: Malena, 2009: 1-358)

Plainly speaking, political will was the extent of committed support among key decision makers for a particular policy solution to a particular problem. This detailed definition of political will breaks the concept down into four components or sub-conceptual areas (Post, Raile & Raile, 2010: 653-676):

- Sufficient set of decision makers

- With a common understanding of a particular problem on the formal agenda

- Is committed to supporting

- A commonly perceived, potentially effective policy solution.

While successful implementation of a policy initiative may be *post hoc* evidence that political will existed at some prior point, this definition remains intentional because "willingness" - as inclination, disposition, or preparation - is intentional. Extending the definition to action would defy this understanding of the word "will." Further, the definition allowed for dynamism. The existence of political will and the range of feasible policy options are both subject to change for any given issue. The importance of capacity also became evident as the definition addresses each of the individual definitional components. Components (c) and (d) directly incorporated issues of capacity, while component (a) represented a type of political capacity in itself. The definition viewed capacity as an integral part of political will, in addition to preferences, intentions, and understandings (Post, Raile & Raile, 2010: 653-676).

The Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transition and Equity (CREATE, 2010: 1-41) viewed political will as national will at the highest level of politics but it also needs to be understood at the level of implementation where multiple actors are acting on their own. Political will was defined as a combination of three interrelated factors, these being *opinion, intensity* and *salience*. Opinion is a view which is premised on an attitude and there is enough literature to show that attitude plays an important part in influencing action. The more intense the attitude the more motivated or driven a person is to act in accordance with that strongly held view. By its nature, political will needed to be relevant to public needs or choices hence the salience factor (CREATE, 2010: 1-41).

1.3.2 Organisational performance

The second variable of this study was *organisational performance*. Studies differed on opinions and definitions of performance, which remains to be a contentious issue amongst organisational development and management researchers. As a result the discourse was about the appropriateness of various approaches to the concept utilisation and measurement of organisational performance. Organisational performance was the organisation's ability to attain its goals by using resources in an efficient and effective manner (Abu-Jarad, Yusof & Nikbin (2010: 26-42).

The term performance was sometimes confused with productivity. Organisational performance had suffered from not only a definition problem, but also from a conceptual problem. Performance was further defined as equivalent to the famous 3Es, that is, economy, efficiency, and effectiveness of a certain programme or activity (Heffernan & Flood, 2000:128-136). It was observed that as a concept in modern management, organisational performance suffered from problems of conceptual clarity in a number of areas. The first was the area of definition while the second is that of measurement (Williams, 2002: 1-283). There was a difference between performance and productivity. Productivity was a ratio depicting the volume of work completed in a given amount of time and performance was a broader concept that included productivity as well as quality, consistency and other factors (Heffernan & Flood, 2000:128-136).

There were five major factors determining organisational performance, namely:

- Leadership styles and environment

- Organisational culture

- Job design

- Model of motive

- Human resource policies.

Among others, factors for measuring performance were quality management system and the balance score card (Abu-Jarad *et al,* 2010: 26-42). Success in organisations was highly dependent on a company's ability to continuously improve productivity. The most effective means for improving productivity was to improve workforce performance. This was done, not by focusing on labour efficiency, but by employing a system of disciplines that enabled and encouraged the workforce to perform its responsibilities to meet customer needs and expectations without error and without waste (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990: 79-81). Figure 2 depicted the system of disciplines essential to improve workforce performance and eliminate waste (Maynard, 1970:1-20).
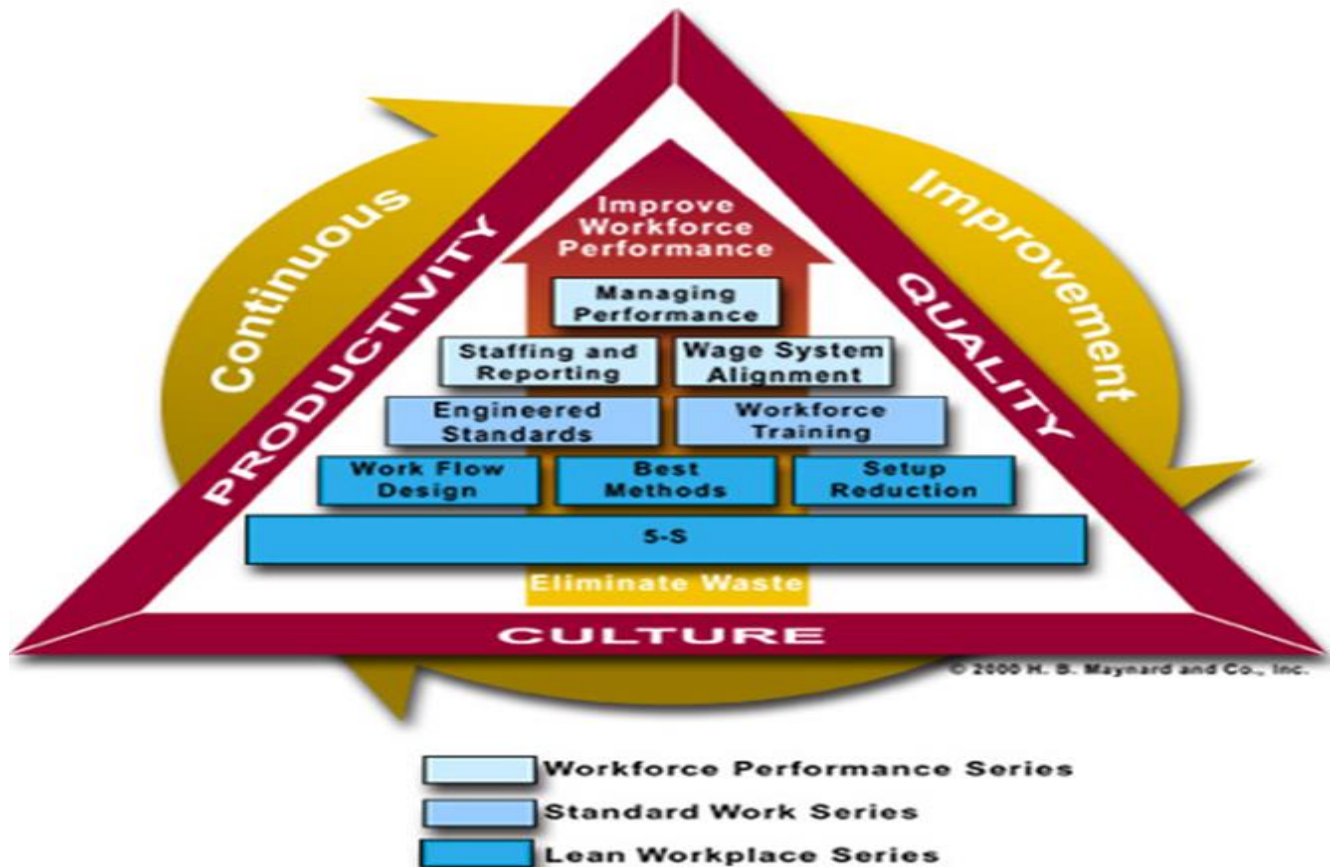
Figure 2: Performance model

(Source: Maynard and Company Inc., 1970:1-20)

Maynard's (1970:1-20) performance model suggested that instilling the disciplines, as reflected in Figure 2, directly impacted the productivity, quality and culture of an organisation and, practicing any one of the disciplines would help an organisation to improve; therefore, instilling these interdependent disciplines as a system equipped the organisation to meet overall company goals and establish an environment of continuous improvement.

Maynard's (1970:1-20) performance model groups the disciplines into three distinct series to demonstrate how they build upon one another. Each series introduced a new level of complexity, ranging from the application of basic work design principles to managing workforce performance using planning tools and reward systems; at the base is the *Lean Workplace Series*; the disciplines in this series are at the heart of improving the work; the disciplines found in the *Standard Work Series* are focused on documenting and implementing the improved work in the workplace; and finally, the *Workforce Performance Series* is focused on equipping and preparing supervision to manage work.

According to Maynard's (1970:1-20) performance model the practice of Standard Work means everyone in the organisation was committed to performing work the same best way; standard work began by documenting methods and developing engineered standards to establish expectations and created metrics; then provided job aids and training to the workforce that clearly communicated the best way and the expected outcomes; instilling the concept of Standard Work required:

- Engineered Standards

- Workforce Training and is necessary to ensure consistency and predictability in the way work is done.

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                    │        EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT         │
                    │                                     │
                    │   ▪  Legislative  Framework         │
                    │                                     │
                    │   ▪  Technological Factors          │
                    │                                     │
                    │   ▪  Social Factors                 │
                    │                                     │
                    │   ▪  Economic Factors               │
                    │                                     │
                    │   ▪  Political Factors              │
                    │                                     │
                    │   ▪  Environmental Factors          │
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                    │   ▪  Stakeholder Expectations       │
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┌──────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ ORGANISATIONAL MOTIVATION│   │ ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE│  │ ORGANISATIONAL CAPACITY  │
│                          │   │                          │   │                          │
│   ▪   Vision             │   │   ▪   Effectiveness      │   │   ▪   Leadership         │
│                          │   │                          │   │                          │
│   ▪   Mission            │   │   ▪   Efficiency         │   │   ▪   Infrastructure     │
│                          │   │                          │   │                          │
│   ▪   Culture            │   │   ▪   Responsiveness     │   │   ▪   Human resource     │
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Figure 3: The scope of organisational assessment in the public sector

(Source: Lusthaus & Adrien, 1999:1-89)

There was a comprehensive list of factors responsible for optimum performance in the public sector as indicated in Figure 3. These factors, among others, are external factors that invariably include political factors, *inter alia*, political will. The former could mean a plethora of diversified issues in the political sphere of a country. However, the criteria serve as a significant assessment of organisational performance in the public sector globally (Lusthaus & Adrien, 1999:1-89).

Performance = f (Expectation x Capabilities x Opportunities x Motivation)

Figure 4: A model of performance

(Source: Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager, 1993: 35-70)

Figure 4 provided leaders with a pragmatic framework for understanding why a follower or a team may not be performing up to expectations and, what a leader could do to improve the situation. This model maintained that performance is a function of the integration of expectations, capabilities, opportunities and motivation including political will (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler & Sager, 1993: 35-70).

The above brief theoretical review defined the main themes of the study and expounded the theories underpinning them. However, in the scholarly literature review, (see Chapters 2, 3 & 4) it was realised that there was a paucity of substantial research on political will as a driver of public sector and Municipal performance. Considering that the normal competence elements of the political leaders in local government are not really the reason for engagement, the impact of political will on Municipal performance in South Africa remained problematic.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The purpose of the study was to establish the association of political will with performance: a study of selected Municipalities in South Africa. In other words, the general objective of this study was to focus on testing the impact of political will on performance of selected Municipalities (that is, within Gauteng and North West provinces) in South Africa. The study explored globally the extant of literature on this subject prior to undertaking an empirical examination of the general objective. In alignment with this purpose, the study examined empirically the proposed association of the study's variables, namely, political will and organisational performance.

1.4.1 Specific Research Objectives

The study's specific objectives was to test the impact of political will on performance using, among others, the elements of political will propounded by CREATE (2010: 1-41) and Brinkerhoff (2007: 239-252) respectively.

- To determine how political leaders' *opinions* influence performance of Municipalities in South Africa?

- To assess how political leaders' *intensity* influences performance of Municipalities in South Africa

- To establish the association between political leaders' *salience* and performance of Municipalities in South Africa.

1.4.2 Research Questions

The study was expected to provide answers to the following questions.

- Do political leaders' opinions have an impact on performance of Municipalities in South Africa?

- Do political leaders' intensity influence performance of Municipalities in South Africa?

- Is there a relationship between political leaders' salience and performance of Municipalities in South Africa?

1.4.3 Interaction of the Study's Variables

The proposed interaction of the study's variables, namely, political will and organisational performance (See Figure 5) delineated what the study needed to establish empirically, specifically, to determine the association of political will with performance: a study of selected Municipalities in South Africa.

Political Will (Independent Variable)   **Organisational Performance (Dependent Variable)**

Opinion:

Premised on an attitude. Attitude plays an important part in influencing action

Intensity:

The more intense the attitude the more motivated or driven a person is to act in terms of strongly held view

Salience:

By its nature, political will needs to be relevant to public needs or choices hence the salience factor

Organisations Performance:

Organisational performance is the organisation's ability to attain its goals by using resources in an efficient and effective manner.

Characterised by:

➢ Workforce performance series
➢ Standard work series
➢ Lean workplace series

Figure 5: Conceptual Framework of the Study's Variables

(**Source:** CREATE, 2010: 1-41 & Maynard and Company Inc., 1970:1-20)

1.4.4 Null Hypothesis

The above stated objective was further enunciated by the following hypothesis. A hypothesis was described as a tentative answer to a question generally based on theory. This may take a form of a null hypothesis expressed in the negative or positive. In line with the above attributes of a hypothesis, this study was guided by the following null hypothesis (Ho): It is hypothesised that, in addition to, the variables mentioned in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 and Appendix A and the presence

or absence of political will amongst political leaders appears to be the *sine quo non* for explaining the continued mediocre Municipal performance globally and in South Africa. Political will be assessed through the leader's *opinions,* the *intensity* and *salience* thereof (CREATE, 2010: 1-41). The study's hypothesised model in Figure 6 graphically depicted the proposed hypothesis.

EXISTING KNOWLEDGE	IDENTIFIED GAP	EXISTING KNOWLEDGE
⬇	⬇	⬇
DRIVERS	**PROPOSED MISSING CONSTRUCT**	**OUTCOME**
(Independent Variables)	(Independent Variable)	(Dependent Variable)
⬇	⬇	⬇
VARIABLES IN CHAPTERS 2, 3, 4 & APPENDIX A	**+** **POLITICAL WILL:** Opinion - Intensity - Salience	**MUNICIPAL PEFORMANCE** (Service Delivery)
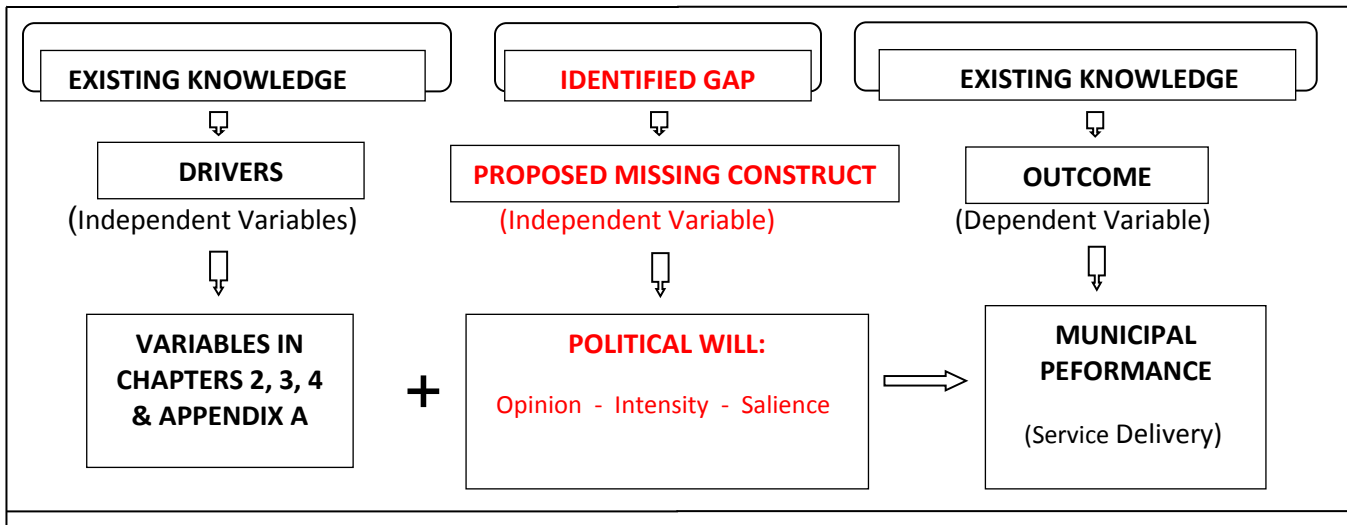
Figure 6: Study's hypothesised model

Therefore, Figure 6 identifies a gap for which reason further studies need to be conducted to explore the connection between political will and Municipal performance. An alternative hypothesis (H1) was that political will did not affect Municipal performance.

To obtain a broader view of the ills facing service delivery globally and in South Africa – Municipal performance *per se*, it was suggested that political will as a variable had to be included in the formula. It seemed to be a key driver of engagement in Municipalities and must therefore be taken into account when explaining and measuring performance outcomes. Kofi Annan (undated), the former Secretary of the United Nations captured it aptly by stating that, "many a nation have the means and the capacity to deal with their problems, if only they can find the *political will*".

1.5 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The following was an outline of the study to be pursued:

CHAPTER ONE: orientation of the study. This Chapter outlined the orientation of the study. In this Chapter the background to the study, the research problem and its aims, principal theories and themes, null hypothesis, assumptions, its significance and limitations are discussed.

CHAPTER TWO: The literature review, which formed the theoretical framework of the research was undertaken. The literature reviews' issues of performance in Municipalities and focused on the theoretical perspectives on which the study is grounded. Municipal performance was reviewed in general in relation to the South African perspective.

CHAPTER THREE: In this Chapter regional perspectives of performance in local government in Southern African countries are discussed and, are compared and contrasted with those of the South African Municipalities.

CHAPTER FOUR: This Chapter discussed a global literature review of issues of performance in Municipalities excluding South Africa.

CHAPTER FIVE: This Chapter discussed the research design and methodology in detail. It outlined the procedures adopted in the study, the research instruments used and the qualitative and quantitative approaches followed.

CHAPTER SIX: In this Chapter empirical data was analysed, interpreted and presented.

CHAPTER SEVEN: This Chapter provided a summary of conclusions and recommendations and presented a critique on the present shortcomings pertinent to the study's research objectives and questions. Concluding remarks and a brief summation of the research are provided. Recommendations that emerged from the research are used for identifying a way forward and areas for further research.

1.6 SUMMARY

In this Chapter the problem statement was established; previous research areas have been determined. Research objectives and research questions were identified. The primary theories underpinning the study were outlined; and definitions of study's themes were highlighted. Also the scope and limitations of study were identified. In the next chapter a detailed literature review on variables aligned with poor Municipal performance in South Africa was presented. The literature review provided the theoretical background on the subject. It showed what was missing in previous research and it revealed how this study intended to fill the gap.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study was to explore the association of political will on the performance of selected Municipalities in South Africa. The literature review provided the theoretical background on the subject. It revealed what is missing in previous research and how the study intends bridging the gap. The literature review began by exploring principal theories and themes.

2.2 THE STUDY'S PRINCIPAL THEORIES

The study was based on established organisational development and performance management theories, observation and experience to provide a theoretical framework for the logical underpinning of the study within the two identified variables. These theories and variables helped shape the research questions and specific predictions expressed as hypotheses and also provided the basis for the preferred research design.

2.2.1 Principal Theories

It was essential to define the concept theory. A theory is a particular kind of representation of some phenomena in the world. It comprised constructs, relationships among constructs, and a boundary within which the relationships among constructs hold (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004:1-467). The two mainstream theories of the study are organisational development and performance management.

2.2.2 Organisational Development Theories

Organisational development theory has three schools of thought that underpinned appreciative inquiry (Whitney & Trosten-Bloom, 2003:1-245) namely:

- **Social constructionism**: This was the dominant rationale for appreciative inquiry and was based on a single idea (Bushe, 1998:41-50). People constructed the world and human communication was the central process that creates, maintains and transforms our realities (Gergen & Gergen, 2004:1-155). Appreciative inquiry take this theoretical framework and sets it in a positive frame of reference and, viewd organisations as a centre of human relatedness where people controlled their destiny by envisioning what they wanted and developed actions to move toward it (Cooperrider, Whitney & Stravos, 2003:1-199)

- **Image theory**: A key factor of appreciative inquiry dialogue was the power of positive imagery to generate positive action. Positive image on a collective basis may therefore, be the strong approach for co-creating a positive future (Cooperrider, Whitney & Stravos, 2003:1-199)

- **Grounded research**: This methodology hinged on a willingness to understand a culture, society, organisations or groups through the eyes of its participants. Appreciative inquiry activated members of any system to conduct their own research into that which gave life to a system – a process that led to discovery of a system's core (Van Tonder & Roodt, 2008:1-449). According to Reason and Bradbury (2001:1-185) appreciative inquiry had the following effects:

  a) Produces knowledge that is useful to people;

  b) Facilitates new forms of understanding and stimulates human flourishing;

  c) Is highly participative and democratic;

  d) Involve the whole system, both in the questioning and sense making that informs the research inquiry and, in the action which is its focus;

  e) Is emancipatory in the sense that participants are enabled to create new knowledge in the process.

- **Intervention theory in organisational development**: The following conditions led to the need for intervention in organisations (French and Bell, 1999:1-188):

    a) To address problems that need to be solved;

    b) When an unrealistic opportunity exists that the organisation needs to take advantage of;

    c) To improve the alignment among different features of an organisation;

    d) To put strategies, structures and policies in place to support a new vision.

Some principles governing intervention theory are that consultants should have an adequate theory of change to help them decide when to intervene and at what level. Furthermore the assumption is made that management groups could only achieve their highest level of competence once they are able to discuss their ideas and feelings openly without fear of consequences. The following principles underpinned intervention theory (French and Bell, 1999:1-188):

    a) A parallel should be drawn between rigorously controlled research in which participants are treated with little consideration and an authoritarian management style;

    b) A condemnation of the tendency to revere change for the sake of change even when it substitutes one rigid structure for another;

    c) The recognition that an invitation to a consultant to undertake work in an organisation is likely to produce hostility because it implies a lack of competence on the part of management;

    d) The insistence that any theory developed to explain behavioural change must explain why one part of an organisational changes while another does not. It should focus on the individual case not on a statistically significant prediction.

- **Process-focused OD – the Tom Peters approach**: It was argued that organisations are in perpetual revolution in which the Japanese phrase of *kaizen* (i.e. improvement and change) is rejected and the notion of revolution is embraced. This continuous revolution in process and objectives allowed theory to respond to market forces first in an overly competitive market. Organisation that service and thrive are those that are able to respond and take up the challenges of an unpredictable and turbulent environment (Peter & Waterman, 1982: 1-195)

- **The reinvention and re-engineering of organisations - Charles Handy's approach**: Another paradigm of organisational development theory was outlined by structured-focused theorists who argue that the organisation as we know it is dead. The emphasis felled on reinvention and re-engineering of the organisation. This process of reviving called for a radical break from previous constructions of organisations to new flexible ones that can compete in the new era (Moerdyk & van Aardt, 2003: 1-276). According to Charles Handy' approach it was contended that organisations are discarding labour-intensive practices and are embracing knowledge-based structures. Therefore, different circumstances and environments in which organisations operate forced them to react in different manners (Moerdyk & van Aardt, 2003: 1-276)

- **Person-focused OD strategies**: This perspective of organisational development theory was primarily concerned with focusing on cultural changes, individual changes and shift in mind set within organisations. This paradigm represented a move away from the traditional approaches used in organisational theory to one that focuses on a renaissance within the organisation (Covey, 1994: 1-175). The approach of quick-fixes was not appropriate which constitute an important influence within peoples' lives. Focusing attention on people's habits was typical person-focused OD strategy. Habits are defined as the intersection of knowledge, skills and desire. For instance, knowledge referred to what needs to be done and why it is necessary. Skills refers to how things should be done and desire was the consideration of motivation and why the person want to do something (Covey, 1994: 1-175)

- Action research could be seen as one of the cornerstones of organisational development and underlies its theory and practice (Van Tonder & Roodt, 2008:1-449).

2.2.3 Performance management theories

Performance management, as the second mainstream theory of the study, was underpinned by management theories and movements toward excellence and quality. The search for excellence had reshaped theory about performance and service delivery (Williams, 2002: 1-283). Though research carried out by Peter and Waterman, (1982: 1-195) had been influential, what most organisations prefer was the approach of finding out what the customer wanted so as to identify and meet changing consumer demands/expectations and requirements (Lawler, 1995: 1-351). This approach was in line with the basis of sticking to the knitting idea that was reflected in the notion of the core competence of organisations (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990: 79-81). Aligned to this idea was the case of productivity and competitiveness through people that had been suggested by Pfeffer, (1994: 1-205). Performance management was dynamic and continuous as confirmed by Table 2 (Agarwal, 2011:1-368).

Table 2: The performance management cycle
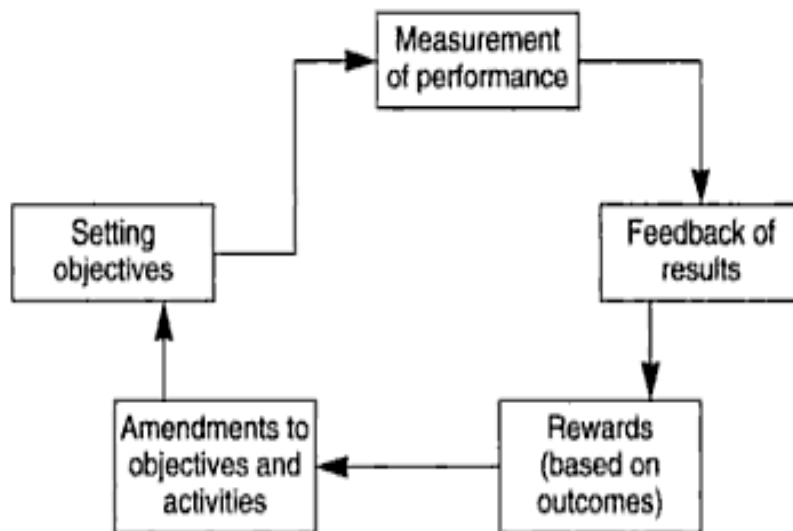
(Source: Agarwal, 2011:1-368)

The following are some of the relevant performance management theories:

- **Goal-setting theory**

  All other things being equal people would perform better if they strived towards definite goals than if they are expected to perform without a specific objective in mind. Therefore, the crux of this theory was that specific goals serve as powerful motivators to individuals for improved productivity (Robbins, 1996: 1-410)

- **Cognitive dissonance theory**

  This theory presumed that, if a person did poorly a number of times in a task, he/she would do poorly again even if he/she could do better, in order to be consistent with his/her cognitions (i.e. self-perception of incompetency developed in the preceding tasks). For instance, employees with low self-esteem would forfeit the opportunity to achieve in order to be consistent with their self-perceptions (Korman, 1979: 1-501)

- **Equity theory**

  Stacey Adam's equity model was an important theory of motivation and performance which had its roots in cognitive dissonance theory. The equity theory asserted that employees compare their input-outcome ratio with the input-outcome of relevant others. If these ratios are equal, a state of equity was said to exist. The contrary will thus motivate the employee to do something to equalise the equation (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk, 1998: 1-813)

- **Expectancy theory**

  Vroom's theory of motivation and performance hold the view that the tendency to act in a certain way depended on the expectation that the act would be followed by a given outcome and on the degree to which the person desired that outcome. Motivational strength and performance are, among others, dependent on these variables (Cooperrider, Whitney & Stravos, 2003:1-199):

a) Attractiveness of goals;

b) Performance-reward link;

c) Effort-performance link.

- **Reinforcement theory**

This theory was a behavioural approach which postulated that the mental processes that determined behaviour or performance are unfathomable. The human mind was a black box in which certain inputs are made which in turn caused certain reactions. Basically reinforcement theory held that consequences shape subsequent behaviour or performance. For instance, if behaviour or performance was rewarded, the probability increased that the behaviour or performance would be repeated, that is, behaviour was reinforced. Conversely, unrewarded or punished behaviour would not be repeated in future (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990: 79-81)

- **Theory X and Theory Y**

This approach suggested that behind every managerial decision or action are assumptions about nature and human behaviour and a few of these are remarkably pervasive. The Mc Gregor's theory X assumed that people are generally lazy by nature, whereas theory Y assumed that people are motivated to perform. The virtue of Mc Gregor's theory was that it draws attention to the fact that our implicit assumptions of people, frequently unconscious, direct our thinking and behaviour about them (Certo, 1994: 1-408).

In summary, the performance management theories, underpinned by management theories and movements toward excellence and quality precisely guided this study because its theme was to establish a connection between political will and Municipal performance. The search for excellence had reshaped theory about performance and service delivery (Williams, 2002: 1-283).

The following sub-section explored performance measurement in Municipalities globally:

(i) Performance measurement in Municipalities

Performance measurement in the public sector related to the assessment of performance of organisations, organisational units, departments and programmes. To this end, performance measurement was defined as the regular collection and reporting of information about the efficiency, quality, and effectiveness of government programmes. Its primary function was to monitor the achievement of organisational and managerial objectives and thus served as an important planning, control, and decision-making device (Nyhan & Martin, 1999:348-364). As such, performance measurement could improve performance by promoting managerial (internal) accountability and timely corrective actions. In an effort to progress towards this ultimate objective, Conroy (2002:133-140) proposed socio-political measures in addition to traditional financial and efficiency measures. Bovaird (2009:69-76) recommended a community scorecard with social, political, and user-related measures for local governments.

However, as direct measures of well-being do not exist, surrogate measures of varying degrees of sophistication are useful as indicators of well-being. Performance measures can thus be viewed as useful measuring sticks of the achievement of an organisation's objectives and, ultimately, of its contribution to the well-being of its wider community (Hartle, 1972:5-15). A common pragmatic approach to performance measurement was based on a process-oriented model, in which performance measures can be categorised into input, process, output, and outcome measures, although variations in the classification also exist. This approach could be used as a basis for self-assessments and reporting on performance by managers for internal decision making and external accountability purposes, as well as a basis for evaluations by external regulatory and funding agencies (Ammons, 1995:15-32; Swiss, 1995:67-97; Carter, Klein & Ray, 1992:1-208; Foltin, 1999:40-46; Greiner, 1996:11-50).

The notions of efficiency and effectiveness are at the heart of performance management, as they allowed the delineation of managerial responsibilities and accountability for the achievement of interim and ultimate organisational objectives at different stages of service completion (Anthony & Govindarajan, 1998:1-309). The development, use, and reporting of effective measures could be considered as the ultimate objective of comprehensive performance measurement systems.

However, due to difficulties in identifying and measuring outcomes for many typical public services (Kloot, 1999:565-583; de Bruijn, 2002:578-594), a trade-off existed between the objectivity of efficiency measures and the relevance of effective measures, making it necessary to balance the two types of measures carefully (Mayne & Zapico-Goni, 1997:3-29).

A significant amount of research on the use of performance measurement in Municipalities had been undertaken during the mid and late 1990s (Kloot, 1999:565-583; Ammons, 1995:15-32; Ghobadian & Ashworth, 1994:35-51; Bovaird, 2009:69-76; Swiss, 1995:67-97; Foltin, 1999:40-46; Streib & Poister, 1999:107-223; Kopczynki & Lombardo, 1999:124-134; GASB & National Academy of Public Administration, 1997). However, reviews of the extent of performance measurement are somewhat mixed (Ammons, 1995:15-32; GASB & National Academy of Public Administration, 1997; Poister & Streib, 1999:107-223). Although several potential uses have been reported, for example, strategic planning, budgeting and resource allocation, programme monitoring and evaluation, and managerial appraisal and rewards (Kloot, 1999:565-583; Streib & Poister, 1999:107-223; GASB & National Academy of Public Administration, 1997; Ammons, 1995:15-32; Carter *et al*., 1992:1-208), the actual use in decision making and external reporting, if any, often appeared to have been limited to only selected areas. More fundamentally, although performance measurement initiatives in the United Kingdom have had an enormous symbolic effect, resulting in an image of efficient and effective government, they have led to little change in actual governmental policies and managerial practices (Bovaird & Gregory, 2008:239-273).

Other than what was done in the United Kingdom and Canada very little research is available on performance measurement in local government. For example, a study was done which compared the adoption of balanced scorecards in Canadian and USA's Municipalities, and found only limited use of balanced scorecards (Chan, 2004: 204-221). External reporting of performance measures also had not received widespread attention in literature (Smith, 1993:135-151; Ammons, 1995:15-32), although it was considered critical for external programme accountability purposes (Stewart, 1984:13-34; Mayne, 1997:157-174). External performance standards established by professional associations, including professional accounting bodies, are useful, as they reflected performance expectations approved by leading professionals; such standards serve as a basis for professional accountability (Ammons, 1995:15-32; Sinclair, 1995:219-237).

Internal and external evaluations are complementary and both play important roles in effective performance measurement systems and evidence from several countries indicated that regulatory requirements have been the driving force behind major performance measurement initiative (Guthrie & English (1997:254-164).

Analyses were conducted on local governments in the Comunitat Valenciana (Spain) and their main explanatory variables; results showed that efficiency scores, especially under the non-convexity assumption are higher for large Municipalities; thus, there was empirical evidence to suggest that resources may be better allocated by large Municipalities. However, the inefficiency found was not entirely attributable to poor management, as second-stage analysis revealed both fiscal and political variables to be explicably related to Municipality performance (Balaguer-Colla, Priorb & Tortosa-Ausinac, 2007: 425–451).

It was suggested that a great deal of variation exists within Municipal governments that actually do report performance online. Online performance reports commonly provided a great deal of general information and less substantive and exhaustive details. Current research indicated that online performance reporting was a unique feature of local governments and, it was a phenomenon deeply rooted within the culture of governments who aimed to be responsive and transparent to the public (Fudge, 2011:1-203).

(ii) Performance measurement in South African Municipalities

In South Africa Municipal performance measurement was underpinned by internal variables - Municipal IDP and an Annual Report and externally by the Auditor-General Report. Section 57 (7) of the Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2002 and Municipal Finance Management Act No 56 of 2003 mandated an employment contract for Municipal Managers and managers immediately reporting to them. Among others, the employment contract obligated a manager to sign a performance contract within 90 days of assumption of duty and annually within one month after the commencement of the new financial year.

Organisationally in terms of the Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2002 and section 53(1) (c) (ii), section 69 (3) (a) of the Municipal Finance Management Act No 56 of 2003, Municipalities are mandated to develop a performance contract known as a service delivery and budget implementation plan (SDBIP) designed to facilitate the implementation of the IDP annually.

Section 41 (1) (4) of the Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2002, section 166 (2) of the Municipal Finance Management Act No 56 of 2003 and the Regulation 7 of the Municipal Management Performance Regulation No: R205 of 2006 prescribed the compilation of quarterly reviews and performance reports by Municipalities for submission to the provincial member of the executive committee (MEC) responsible for Department of Local Government.

Section 39 (a) and section 40 of the Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2002 mandated the application of an employee performance appraisal system for the ongoing monitoring, quarterly appraisal and annual review of employees' performance. With regard to consequential management, the process of performance management naturally ends with a decision on the consequence, hopefully of meeting or exceeding expectations. It also allowed management to identify non-performance and to undertake corrective action.

The internal auditors of a Municipality are in terms of section 45 of the Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2002 mandated to audit the performance of a Municipality on a regular basis and report to Council. Section 46 (a) obliged Municipalities to prepare Annual Reports on their performances to inform communities and for submission to the provincial Department of Local Government. In terms of section 47 (1) of Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2002 the MEC on receipt of Annual Reports from Municipalities prepared a consolidated report on performance of Municipalities for submission to the provincial legislature. The National Minister of Corporative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) on receipt of consolidated reports of provincial Municipal performance prepared a national consolidated report for submission to Parliament.

 The past five years have seen a growing trend towards the notion of a shared services approach to enhancing Municipal efficiency in the local government sector in South Africa. It was reported that this approach is receiving more focused attention. The thrust of Municipal service delivery was premised on its Integrated Development Plan (IDP), and the concept of shared services was being used as a conduit for Municipalities to work towards ensuring that their

organisational and developmental objectives are achieved in the short-, medium- and long-term (Subban & Theron, 2010:1-24).

Shared services also acted as a catalyst for action to address poor or non-delivery through monitoring activities; and a move towards obtaining clean audit opinions focusing on three pertinent aspects that are central to taking Municipalities forward in the next era: leadership, financial management and performance (Van der Walt, 2010:8-9).

Despite all performance measurement policies and methods suggested for improved service delivery in local government, the question was whether performance measurement can be a panacea to good governance and accountability problems? Studies need to be undertaken to provide answers to this question especially in the African continent (Ruzaaza, Malowa & Mugisha, 2013: 56 - 76). To this end, the following studies in South Africa are instructive.

A study on the impact of performance management system (PMS) on service delivery in a Municipality revealed that, among others, PMS is not fairly and equitably applied in the Municipality; reward linked to good performance also comes to the fore as an element that was lagging in the performance management cycle. There are also no proper monitoring tools and systems in place to ensure that sufficient progress was made and to detect early if there are challenges or shortcomings in the application of PMS. In practice, it was found to be vital that the PMS should be integrated throughout the entire organisation to develop, motivate and retain productive and potential employees (Kgantlapane, 2009:1-104).

Another study revealed that there was minimal employee involvement in the planning of performance management, lack of training opportunities to address identified weaknesses; non-payment of performance bonus to good performing employees and majority of employees not knowing their performance targets as reflected in the service delivery and budget implementation plan (Sebashe, 2010: 1- 66).

In another Municipality it was observed that employees are aware of the existence of the performance management system, but it is applied only to more senior officials. The key performance indicators are developed without the involvement of the communities, including employees, especially at the lower level of management. No relationship between the

performance management system and service delivery was found (Mmapulana, 2010: 1-111 & Radebe, 2013: 1 – 277). Alternatively a conceptual relation was established between services delivery and PMS (Kgechane, 2013:1–135).

Staff at Nelson Mandela Bay Municipality believed that performance management should be like Christianity, they should eat it, drink it and talk about it every day. They are also of the opinion that performance management should not be used to haunt employees but to rather develop and capacitate them. However, they perceived performance management as being used within the Municipality as a carrot that is dangled from the distance, and that it was being used as a political football. Leadership was accused of lack of commitment to performance management issues (Ngcelwane, 2010:1 – 146).

A study at Fezile Dabi District Municipality indicated that almost half of its employees have limited knowledge and understanding of PMS and regulations except for the section 57 managers. Its structures such as the Audit Committee have not been meeting as expected and thus the monitoring role was compromised (Chuta, 2010: 1 – 81).

At Ngwathe Local Municipality it was found that there were no institutional systems or structures to guide performance management. Councillors and senior managers lack knowledge of the PMS and seem to have a differing understanding of the concept of a PMS. Submitted quarterly reports were simply filed and not scrutinised to ensure that they serve as early indicators of non-performance and/or the Municipality was in line with its set targets (Motingoe, 2011:1–140).

A study by Tšeole (2013: 1–193) established that there are factors that could cause a decline in public sector PMS implementation and can lead to detrimental effects. These factors were identified as, among others, aloof and insensitive management; poor leadership; management styles; rapid technological progress; increased complexity of work; poor labour relations; lack of proper incentive schemes and reward systems; lack of receptiveness to innovation.

The Department of Water Affairs had implemented a National Water Services Regulation Strategy (DWA, 2010), aimed at addressing the poor performance of Municipalities or water services authorities (WSAs) in both the delivery of infrastructure and the provision of services.

Three priority programmes have been put in place in order to mitigate key risks to the successful implementation of the strategy:

- A concentrated regulatory effort to address compliance and performance issues in Municipalities – the Regulatory Performance Measurement System (RPMS)
- A national drinking water quality regulatory initiative (Blue Drop)
- A national effluent quality regulation initiative (Green Drop).

The RPMS measured performance in each WSA according to critical issues in 11 key performance indicator (KPI) areas and against regulatory standards (or benchmarks) for some of these KPIs. It comprised two distinct aspects: performance measurement and regulatory action. The annual data collection process was streamlined and the system was web-based and accessible to public users, WSAs and Department of Water Affairs (DWA) water sector partners (Carden &Armitage, 2013: 345-350).

(iii) Impediments to development, use, and reporting of performance measures

Various organisational and broader environmental factors could inhibit the development and use of performance measures. Four types of obstacles that could hamper the acceptance and application of performance measures in the public sector are (Greiner, 1996:11-50):

- Institutional - mistrust of measurement and resistance to reporting bad news

- Pragmatic - lack of credibility and usefulness

- Technical - lack of standards and timeliness

- Financial - substantial investment of time and resources.

Resistance by public officials, department heads, and employees are also identified as major obstacles (Foltin, 1999:40-46 & Ammons, 1995:15-32). Mayne and Zapico-Goni (1997:3-29) and broadly classified possible impediments as uncertainty, diversity, interdependence, politics and instability. Although it was noted that devising appropriate measures for Municipalities no longer appears to constitute a serious constraint, the difficulty of measuring service quality emerged as a major concern in the study of Streib and Poister (1999:107-273). Therefore, even

the technical impediments do not appear to have been resolved adequately (Greiner, 1996:11-50).

In addition, more fundamental problems could arise from difficulties in defining performance for typical public services. The concept of performance was generally not well defined or understood and was particularly problematic in the public sector. It was argued that performance is a relative, socially constructed concept, subject to different interpretations by different individuals (Lebas & Euske, 2002:65-79). The performance of a local government, or even a single service within it, was complex and inherently multi-dimensional presenting the main obstacle to performance appraisal (Ghobadian & Ashworth, 1994:35-51). Moreover, even the identification of all stakeholders, but particularly the multiple and often conflicting political objectives of different stakeholders in the public sector, can pose serious problems (Moriarty & Kennedy, 2002: 395-402; Conroy, 2002: 133-140; Wisniewski & Stewart, 2004: 222-233). In spite of numerous complexities, Lebas and Euske (2002: 65-79) proposed that performance can be managed through a set of balanced, complementary performance indicators with causal linkages to desired outcomes in specific decision-making contexts.

According to Pollanen (2005:4-24) a study in Canadian Municipalities on performance measurement and reporting requirements was conducted and, its findings allowed drawing a conclusion, consistent with that of Streib and Poister (1999:107-273), that the use of performance measures in most Canadian Municipalities was largely voluntary. Somewhat more efficiency measures than effective measures have been developed and used for most services, consistent with Chan's (2004:204-221) Canadian results. However, effectiveness measures were considered more desirable. For every purpose, and for both efficiency and effectiveness measures, greater use was perceived desirable than actually occurred, and a significant increase in the use was expected in the near future for both types of measures, particularly for effectiveness measures.

The findings of the Canadian study emphasised the importance of both internal and external verification proposed by Guthrie and English (1997: 154-164), and portray a positive role for the accounting and auditing professionals in the measurement and verification processes. However, contrary to Greiner's (1996:11-50) conclusion, devising appropriate measures still remained a

concern in Canadian Municipalities, just as it was in the study in the USA of Streib and Poister (1999:107-273). Generally, a greater degree of impediment was reported for effectiveness measures than for efficiency measures. These findings are understandable in light of considerable difficulties in identifying and measuring long-term outcomes of many public services (Pollanen, 2005:4-24).

The findings of the Canadian studies have several possible managerial implications. The perceived gap between the actual and desired use of performance measures, along with the positive disposition toward performance measurement in general, presents public-sector administrators and professionals some interesting opportunities. The desired increase in the use of effectiveness measures is particularly noteworthy and highlights the need to focus on assessing programme outcomes and developing meaningful effectiveness measures. As to the use of performance measures, the greatest developmental opportunity is for performance evaluation and rewards – the two purposes the least used but the most underdeveloped. Although the development and meaningful use of performance measures appear to be hampered somewhat by organisational and environmental uncertainties, the development and reporting processes appear to be facilitated significantly by the involvement of accounting and auditing professionals (Pollanen, 2005:4-24).

The findings are encouraging, as they suggested the acceptance of performance measurement as a useful management tool and recognise the potential benefits of engaging multidisciplinary professional teams in the development of performance measures and benchmarks even in the public sector. However, the results of a cross-sectional mail survey represented only a snapshot at one point in time, subject to possible non-response bias, omitted variables, and measurement problems, and should be interpreted with care and validated in future studies in different context (Pollanen, 2005:4-24).

Finally, comparative benchmarking studies in Municipalities in other jurisdictions, as well as other public organisations, would be in order. Comparative benchmarking and reporting can enhance efficiency, effectiveness, and accountability by comparing performance against internal and external best-practice targets and by improving the transparency of organisational processes and managerial actions (Bowerman, Ball, & Francis, 2001:321-329; McAdam & O'Neill, 2002:

438-457; Ammons, 1995: 15-32, 1999; Greiner, 1996: 11-50; Kopczynski and Lombardo, 1999:124-134; Coe, 1999: 110-23). Future work could also benefit from multiple complementary methods in an effort to reconcile and consolidate previous findings (Pollanen, 2005:4-24).

The following are some incidents of *impediments to development, use and reporting of performance measures.* The findings of some South African educational institutions revealed that the implementation of performance management systems is seldom carried through to the final stages and information is not always used to draft strategy in order to improve performance (Booyse, 2013:1-177).

According to Khambule (2013: 1-209) training and skills development enhances performance management of personnel in specific functional areas in the Free State Province Municipalities, and for this to be more effective on performance in Municipalities, it should be provided adequately in specific areas of the local government five year strategic agenda, particularly to the Free State province Municipalities.

In contemplation of its definition, namely that performance management was used to define techniques and methods to achieve an improvement in the productivity and quality of the relationship between inputs, activities, outputs and outcomes in public service organisations, it was significant that Municipalities adhere to the regulatory framework of a performance management system as they endeavour to render effective and better services to communities. Even though Municipalities adhere to the statutory regulations, it was also evident that they still need to work more on understanding and putting the right performance management framework into place (Seemela, 2010: 1-62).

Le Roux (2010:1-93) suggests that best practice organisations have identified critical success factors and best practices when implementing a corporate performance management solutions at an organisation. An organisation could greatly increase the chances of a successful implementation by taking cognisance of this critical success factors.

A study in local government found that performance management was inadequately implemented in some selected Municipalities in South Africa. To address this situation the following corrective measures were recommended (Sookdew, 2012:1-98).

a) That Municipal Councils and high-ranking officials give due regard to the importance of the performance appraisal function within the context of Municipal personnel administration;

b) Introduction of the performance management and development programme;

c) Review of performance appraisal on an ongoing basis (at least once a year) within an administrative frame of reference with particular attention to the following: legislative measures; policy directives; organising; financing; staffing; determining systems and procedures; and exercising control;

d) That supervisors (appraisers) in Municipal departments undergo training to implement the appraisal system and to keep abreast with the latest developments in the field; and

e) The creation of a separate department or section to deal specifically with the performance appraisal function.

Bizana's (2013: 1-109) study found that in some cities, in South Africa, indicated that officials follow, amongst others, prescribed requirements of the Public Finance Management Act, Municipal Finance Management Act and the Municipal Systems Act. However, challenges identified include: weak internal controls, inadequate contracts management, lack of performance monitoring and reporting, lack of proper and integrated planning, and unresponsive supply chain processes. It was suggested that internal controls need to be strengthened in all areas of supply chain management pertinent to performance management. Personnel should be held accountable for their actions at all times.

2.3 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE ON MUNICIPAL PERFORMANCE

A review of literature on Municipal performance issues focused on four areas of research: (a) an outline on Municipal mandates, compliances and accountability in South Africa, (b) role of stakeholders in local government, (c) status quo of Municipal performance in South Africa, (d) evaluate, summarise and provide a theoretical framework for the study, that is, synthesise, identify gaps and present shortcomings found in the literature pertinent to Municipal performance issues.

At the outset it was important to define Municipal performance or service delivery. Whilst Municipal performance or service delivery may differ from country to country, the study will confine its focus (meaning) within the South African context. A Municipal service means a service that was necessary to ensure an acceptable and reasonable quality of life and which, if not provided, would endanger public health or safety or the environment (Municipal Finance Management, Act 56 of 2003). A Municipality should give effect to the provisions of the Constitution and give priority to the basic needs of the local community; promote the development of the local community; ensure that all members of the local community have access to at least the minimum level of basic Municipal services; ensure that Municipal services are equitable and accessible and provided in a manner that is conducive to the prudent, economic, efficient and effective use of available resources; work towards the improvement of standards of quality over time; be financially sustainable; be environmentally sustainable; and be regularly reviewed with a view to upgrading, extension and improvement (Municipal Systems, Act 32 of 2002 amended).

Therefore, in this context Municipal performance and service delivery will be reviewed and dealt with as similar concepts and practices.

2.3.1 Municipal Mandates, Compliance and Accountability

One of the main goals of this study was to explore the research question: *What contributes to Municipalities in South Africa to be effective and efficient - developing a guideline for Municipal success?* To provide answers to this question it was imperative to review the Municipal mandates, legislative compliance and accountability as well as to outline roles of relevant stakeholders in local government.

It was observed that the developmental trajectory in South Africa since 1994 seems to favour a decentralised system of governance with national and provincial governments setting the policy framework and coordination and the third sphere of government, local government, as the epicentre of service delivery. Therefore, it was important to outline the constitutional frame under which Municipalities are structured and perform in South Africa. The local sphere of

government, which consists of Municipalities, was established in terms of Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (hereafter referred to as the Constitution) as a strategic nexus in the government system. They are appropriately positioned to play a catalyst role in the pursuit of the country's developmental priorities. The two primary objectives of local government as outlined by the Constitution, Section 151 and 152 are:

- To provide democratic and accountable government for local communities

- Ensure the provision of services (water, electricity, sanitation, housing & road) in a sustainable manner; promote social and economic development; promote a safe and healthy environment, and encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in matters of local government.

As the local sphere of government consisted of Municipalities which must be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic, each Municipality must strive, within its financial and administrative capacity, to achieve the objectives as set out above. To give effect to the constitutional provisions on matters of local government, a host of legislation such as: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998 as amended), Municipal Systems Act, 2002 (Act 32 of 2000 amended) and Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act 56 of 2003) were promulgated and ushered in a fundamental policy shift, which enhance the status, role and functions of local government.

The founding provisions in Chapter 1 of the Constitution, 1996 state that, among others, South Africa was one sovereign, democratic state and multi-party system of democratic government to ensure accountability, responsiveness and openness. Municipalities in South Africa as the local sphere of government are supposed to conduct their businesses of government in accordance with these fundamental constitutional values. Consistent with the founding values of our constitutional democracy, Municipalities should adopt the following value system to guide their conduct in their systems of local governance: community orientation, transparency, accountability and integrity. These values are critically important to guide the behaviour of Municipal Councillors and Municipal Managers in the execution of local government developmental duties. The value system of Municipalities should put the community at the centre

in terms of the delivery of Municipal services. It was imperative that the Municipal Councillors and officials should have a clear understanding of what each value entails to be able to rigorously carry out their oversight role. A value system as stated above should be incorporated as an integral component of the curriculum of the Municipal Councillors and officials' education and training programmes (Maserumule, 2008: 304-455).

2.3.2 Mandates for Municipal Functionaries, Compliance and Accountability

In line with the above mentioned legislation and values, it could be assumed that it was imperative that Municipalities know the different legislation and policies that influence the environment within which they operate. It may therefore be inferred that in order for a Municipality to be effective it must engage its service delivery efforts according to the provisions of these legislation and policies. The latter have been formulated at the national level of government and prescribed the type of functions that Municipalities are responsible for in terms of ensuring service delivery in their areas, as well as the consequences that shall be faced for non-delivery of services.

The relevant legislation and policies applicable to Municipalities in terms of compliance and accountability are the following:

(i) The constitution of the Republic of South Africa

As indicated earlier the Constitution is the supreme law of the land. No other law or government action can supersede the provisions of the Constitution. Among others, the Constitution in Chapter 7, Article 152 (a) promulgated that the object of local government was to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner. South Africa's Constitution was one of the most progressive in the world and enjoys high acclaim internationally (GCIS, 2010: 260).

(ii) Division of Revenue Act (DORA), 2010

The aim of this Act was to provide for the equitable division of revenue raised nationally among national, provincial and local spheres of government for each financial year and the responsibilities of all three spheres pursuant to such division also to provide for matters connected therewith (GCIS, 2010: 270).

(iii) Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA), 2003 (Act 56 of 2003)

The purpose of the Act was to secure sound and sustainable management of the financial affairs of Municipalities in the local sphere of government, establish treasury norms and standards for the local sphere of government, and provided for matters such as management of Municipal revenue and Municipal debt, outlining the responsibilities of Municipal officials (GCIS, 2010: 270).

(iv) Municipal Systems Act, 2002 (Act 32 of 2002 as amended)

The Act aimed, among others, to provide for the core principles, mechanisms and processes that are necessary to enable Municipalities to provide social and economic enhancement of local communities, and universal access to essential services that are affordable to all; provide for the manner in which Municipal powers and functions are exercised and performed; provide for community participation and provide a framework for local public administration and human resource development (GCIS, 2010: 270).

(v) Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998 as amended)

The Act aimed to, among others, to provide for the establishment of Municipalities in accordance with the requirements relating to categories and types of Municipality; establish criteria for determining the category of Municipality to be established in an area and regulate the internal systems, structures and office-bearers of Municipalities; provided for appropriate electoral systems and for matters in connection therewith (GCIS, 2010: 270).

(vi) Municipal Property Rates Act, 2004

The Act aimed to regulate the power of a Municipality to impose rates on property; exclude certain properties from rating in the national interest; make provision for Municipalities to implement a transparent and fair system of exemptions, reductions and rebates through their rating policies; make provision for fair and equitable valuation methods of properties; make provision for an objections and appeals process; amend the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2002, so as to make further provision for the serving of documents by Municipalities; amended or repealed certain legislation; and provided for matters connected therewith (GCIS, 2010: 270).

(vii)   The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (*Batho Pele*), 1997

Simply stated, *Batho Pele* is an initiative to get public servants to be service orientated, to strive for excellence in service delivery and to commit to continuous service delivery improvement. It was a simple, transparent mechanism, which allows customers to hold public servants accountable for the type of services they deliver.

(viii)   Integrated development plan

In terms of the Municipal Systems Act, 2002, all Municipalities are required to prepare Integrated Development Plans (IDPs). An IDP was a process by which Municipalities prepare five year strategic plans that are reviewed annually in consultation with communities and stakeholders. The aim was to achieve service delivery and developmental goals in Municipal areas in an effective and sustainable way. The Municipal Systems Act, 2002 established a framework for planning, performance management systems, effective use of resources and organisational change in a business context. The Act also established a system for Municipalities to report on their performance and provided residents with an opportunity to compare this performance with that of other Municipalities (GCIS, 2010: 270).

(Viv) Municipal infrastructure grant

The largest infrastructure transfer programme was the Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG), currently administered by the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs. The MIG was introduced in 2004/05 through consolidating various sector infrastructure grants, each administered by different departments, into a single programme. This was intended to make the system of transfers to Municipalities simpler, more certain and more supportive of Municipal infrastructure priorities. The programme was designed to supplement the capital budgets of Municipalities, with a focus on providing basic infrastructure services to the poor, while stimulating job creation over the medium term (GCIS, 2010: 270).

2.3.3 Municipal stakeholders

Generally in a local government environment there are many individuals and groups who are Municipal stakeholders. The latter have a direct stake in a Municipality and its success and are therefore influential. Secondary stakeholders may be extremely influential as well, but their stake in the Municipality is indirect. The aim or objective of stakeholder management is to ensure that the Municipality's primary stakeholders achieve their objectives and that secondary stakeholders are satisfied. The quest for stakeholder management involves answers to five questions, namely, who are the stakeholders? What are their stakes? What opportunities and challenges do they face? What responsibilities does a Municipality have towards its stakeholders? What strategies and actions should be taken by a Municipality to address the stakeholder challenges? (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2006:104 – 106).

Therefore the first part of the stakeholder management approach was for a Municipality to identify its primary and secondary stakeholders as illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Municipal stakeholders

Primary Stakeholders	Secondary Stakeholders
Politicians: Councillors	National Treasury
Executive Committee	COGTA
Managers and Employees	Auditor General
Community	SALGA
Internal Audit Unit	Provincial Government
Audit Committee	Provincial Treasury

2.3.4 Stakeholders role in local government

The second aspect was to analyse the stakeholders' roles and their importance in a Municipality. These are indicated below.

(i) The role of a Municipality

There are 283 Municipalities in South Africa. They are focused on growing local economies and providing infrastructure and services. The Constitution provided for three categories of Municipalities in the Local Government Municipal Structures Act, 1998 which contains criteria for determining which area was a category A Municipality (metropolitan Municipalities) and categories B (local Municipalities) or C (District Municipalities) (GCIS, 2010: 269).

Table 4 below illustrates typical roles within a Municipality.

Table 4: Roles within a Municipality

Public Sector	Roles/Responsibilities
Council	Ensure overall running of organisation
Mayor	Strategic oversight
Municipal Manager	Strategic leadership
HODs	Executive strategy
Senior Managers	Implement strategy
Employees	Performance of duties
Community	Recipient of services and evaluation thereof

(ii) The Role of internal audit unit

Each Municipality must have an internal audit unit which must prepare a risk based audit plan and an internal audit programme for each financial year. It must advise the accounting officer and report to the audit committee on the implementation of the internal audit plan and matters relating to internal audit, internal controls, accounting procedures and practices; risk management, performance management, loss control and compliance with annual Division of Revenue Act and any other applicable legislation (Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003).

(iii) The role of audit committees

Each Municipality must have an audit committee which was an independent advisory body to the Municipal Council, the political office bearers, the accounting officer and the management staff of the Municipality on matters relating to internal financial control and internal audits; risk management, accounting policies, the adequacy of financial reporting, performance management, effective governance, performance evaluation and compliance annually with the Division of Revenue Act and any other applicable legislation. The audit committee must review

annual financial statements to provide the Council of the Municipality with an authoritative and credible view of the financial position of the Municipality in terms of the Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003.

(iv) The role of national treasury

The National Treasury is headed by a Minister and was responsible for financial and fiscal matters. The National Treasury must promote the national government's fiscal policy framework and the co-ordination of macro-economic policy; co-ordinate inter-governmental relations; manage the budget preparation process; exercise control over annual national budgets; facilitate the implementation of the annual Division of Revenue Act; monitor the implementation of provincial budgets; promote and enforce transparency and effective management in respect of revenue, expenditure, assets, liabilities of departments, public entities and constitutional institutions (Public Finance Management Act, 1999 & Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003).

(v) The role of Auditor General

The Auditor General must audit and report on the leadership, financial management and performance of national and provincial state departments and Municipalities and any other institution or accounting entities required by national or provincial legislation to be audited (Constitution of South Africa, 2004).

(vi) The Role of the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs

In May 2009, the Department of Provincial and Local Government became the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA). The mandates of the (COGTA) are derived from Chapters three and seven of the Constitution. The COGTA has a new and expanded mandate, focusing on improved vertical coordination across the three spheres of government and public entities; greater horizontal coordination across the various sectors in government and public entities; better strengthening, supporting and overseeing of provincial government; improved collaboration between government and communities and, the institution of traditional leadership in a single system of governance (GCIS, 2010: 265).

(vii) The Role of the South African Local Government Association

The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) was a listed public entity, established in terms of Section 21 of the Companies Act, 1973 (Act 61 of 1973) and is recognised by the Minister of the COGTA in terms of the Organised Local Government Act, 1997. SALGA represented local government on numerous intergovernmental forums such as the President's Coordinating Council (PCC), the Minister and Members of Executive Council (MECs) (Min-Mec) forum, and the Budget Forum. SALGA aimed, among other things, to transform local government to enable it to fulfil its developmental role; enhanced the role of provincial local government associations as provincial representatives and consultative bodies on local government; raised the profile of local government; ensured full participation of women in local government; acted as the national employers' organisation for Municipal and provincial member employers; and provided legal assistance to its members, using its discretion in connection with matters that affect employee relations (GCIS, 2010: 268).

(viii) The role of provincial government in South Africa

In accordance with the Constitution, the President's Coordinating Council (PCC) was a consultative forum where the President discussed issues of national, provincial and local importance with the Premiers. The forum addressed issues, *inter alia*, enhancing the role of provincial executives regarding national policy decisions; integrated provincial growth and development strategies within national development plans and, ensured that there are coordinated implementation programmes and the necessary structures in place to address issues such as rural development, urban renewal, and safety and security (GCIS, 2010: 267).

The function of provincial government therefore was to align efforts from various government departments in an integrated way for each province to impact positively on service delivery at local government level.

2.3.5 Challenges and advancements in local government

The COGTA (2009: 1-89) Report stated that a central challenge for the many new institutions of local government had been their viability and ability to build strong organisations capable of delivering on the principles of Section 153 of the Constitution. Local government in South

Africa had contributed to the achievement of a number of significant social and economic development advances, since the South African democratic elections in 1994. However, it was argued that there was a risk that the overall positive progress and success of the new local government system in South Africa was increasingly being overwhelmed by a range of factors and negative practices both internal and external to Municipalities. Among others, the low level of confidence in local government; the weak support and oversight of local government; uneven appreciation of the role of local government - Municipalities are often undermined by national and provincial government policies and processes and**,** good practices in many Municipalities are not always consistent, for example, the *Vuna* Award winners excel one year and do badly the next year (COGTA, 2009: 1-89).

Another problem was that practice does not match policy intent. The objects of developmental local government according to the Constitution are to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities; to ensure provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner. Each of these aspects was being addressed only in a limited way by most Municipalities and not equitably for all residents within specific Municipalities. As Municipalities falter in the performance of their core functions, the social distance between citizens and the state deepens, creating mistrust, frustration and a loss of confidence in government in the most seriously affected areas (Local Government Bulletin. 2010:7).

This study dealt with fundamental "health factors" that Municipalities need to comply with to keep them healthy and to enhance their effectiveness and efficiency. It seemed that most social scientists, in public administration, comments were accurate *that the local government system in South Africa is increasingly being overwhelmed by a range of factors and negative practices both internal and external to Municipalities,* notwithstanding the health factors in place. However, the extent of Municipal performance and some reasons for its success and/or failure were outlined in detail in the following section.

2.4 IDENTIFIED FACTORS LEADING TO POOR MUNICIPAL PERFORMANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA

In this sub-section a review was made of the extent of performance in Municipalities as well as outlining concomitant reasons for inefficiencies and summarise with an evaluation of the situation. To this end, the following are major issues identified as contributory to inefficient and/or poor performance in local government in South Africa. The following SWOT-analysis was utilised as a precursor to articulate the strategic position of Municipalities in South Africa (Nealer, 2009:73-85).

(i) The *strengths* could be identified as built-in advantages and resources which the Municipal government sphere of a developing South Africa had at its disposal to further effective and integrated local development. The newly merged 283 Municipalities are focused on growing local economies and maintaining the provision of a lot more diverse and complex basic Municipal services to geographical areas and citizens that were previously neglected. More basic public services are now available to more citizens at more locations in the country in a more transparent and accessible manner.

(ii) With regard to *weaknesses,* the financial management systems of many Municipalities often do not allow for identification of costs and revenue streams from a particular service. Newly established Municipalities have much bigger geographical Municipal areas and more residents to service and manage. There are inadequate budgets and skills (more financial and technical). There was inexperience and absence of appropriate, credible and authoritative practice norms.

(iii) The *opportunities* could be identified as major positive factors in the South African local government environment. The country is now part of the global village and through means of modern communication technology it was within continuous reach of other countries and has to maintain optimal transparency of and access to aspects such as the nature and extent of its local governance. The provincial sphere of government could be merged into national and local spheres to bring about more effective and efficient service.

(iv) The *threats* are identified as major negative factors in the environment. These are, too much centralisation of government's executive authority, thus national government departments constantly argue that they had to keep a tight control over how public funds are disbursed which creates friction with Municipalities. The 'brain drain' of experienced and skilled Municipal officials has resulted in increased work pressure for the Municipal Managers, officials and political office bearers, and sometimes inaccurate and outdated population censuses which can affect effective planning in a negative sense (Nealer, 2009:73-85).

Local government on the whole appeared to be struggling to fulfil its developmental mandate and many Municipalities are failing altogether due to, *inter alia,* the following reasons (The COGTA, 2009:1-89):

- Ineffective Municipal government had serious consequences for the country: millions of people remain trapped in life-threatening poverty
- Oversight roles are not fulfilled for various reasons including poor understanding of such roles by many Mayors and Councillors, and there was abuse of these roles
- Weak performance management systems by Districts, provinces and national government
- Poor financial management and lack of controls and accountability systems, a high level of indigents, and the culture of non-payment impact hugely on their financial viability
- The intergovernmental relations system was not effective in its objective to coordinate planning across the three spheres of government and the system was poorly supported by the intergovernmental structures established to drive cooperative governance.

Contributory to the COGTA Report it was observed that most common poor performance issues that have triggered Section 139 of the Constitution in provincial interventions fall into three broad categories: (a) *Governance:* political infighting, conflict between senior management and Councillors and human resource management issues. (b) *Financial*: inadequate revenue collection, ineffective financial systems, fraud, misuse of Municipal assets and funds. (c) *Service delivery*: breach of Sections 152 and 153 of the Constitution which outline service delivery obligations of Municipalities (Mahabir, 2010:1-110).

Other factors that were identified as contributory to poor local government performance are the following:

2.4.1 Lack of Institutional Capacity in Municipalities,

Severe lack of institution capacity, organisational competency profile, inadequate training and development and, skills deficit within Municipalities respectively, remained major challenges at Municipal level. Among others, the latter challenges are attributed to the removal of experienced old technocrats and replacing them with less experienced but politically correct leaders (Khumalo, Ntlokonkulu & Rapoo, 2003:4-7; Oberholzer, 2012:1-12; Maserumule, 2008: 304-455; Muller, 2008:198-210; Ballies, 2009:1-102; Mampane, 2008:1-113; Idasa, 2010:1-150; Marais & Kroukamp, 2005:121-135).

Osei-Tutu (2007:34-35) and Khumalo *et al* (2003: 4-7) suggested that *skills development* in the financial management area is an investment to be taken seriously. It is stated that in defence of Councillors it may be noted that the serious *erosion of the skills* base within local government is playing an enormous role in the levels of service delivery. This situation is exacerbated by the decline of Municipal professional and poor linkages between local government and tertiary education sector's priorities in responding to what knowledge and skills are required in Municipalities (De Villiers & Michael, 2007:34-36).

The above mentioned observations are confirmed by the Auditor –General Report (2014) to the extent that officials in key positions at more than 70% of Municipalities do not have the *minimum competencies and skills* required to perform their jobs. While a lack of dedicated capacity was at the root of the weaknesses in service delivery reporting, the skills gap was most pronounced in the financial discipline (The Auditor-General Report, 2014).

Therefore, it would appear that Municipalities should embark on a massive drive to train and acquire people with relevant skills and have contingency plans to replace staff that may leave.

2.4.2 Lack of Resources

Severe lack of resources to carry out Municipal constitutional mandates to improve the quantity and quality of basic services to citizens had proved debilitating for service delivery (Khumalo *et al* (2003:4-7 & Bonga, 2007:119-124). As a corrective measure a model of effective service delivery consisting of these phases is advocated: Step 1: Consultation, Step 2: Service Discussion, Step 3: Capacity Building, Step 4: Service Delivery Standards, Step 5: Implementation, Step 6: Performance Management, Step 7: Monitoring and Evaluation (Bonga, 2007: 119-124). In the same vein, it was also evident that many Municipalities lacking a *tax base, short of equitable share* and with a *weak revenue base* simply cannot leverage the funds they needed for even moderate Municipal functionality. (Shai, 2010: 12-15). Financial risk was the probability that the outcome may be damaging or result in a loss, that is, a risk that a Municipality will not have adequate cash flow to meet financial obligations (RadhaKrishna, 2008:26-28).

2.4.3 Outsourcing of Functions

The idea of Municipalities ceding service delivery responsibilities to independent service providers was usually criticised on the grounds that the socio-economic rights and entitlements of the poor would be compromised by commercially oriented service providers (Khumalo *et al*, 2003:4-7 & Farnetti & Young, 2008:89-90).

2.4.4 Improper Policy Implementation

It was reported that local and national policies and strategies purported to ensure that basic service requirements were upheld actually compounded the socio-economic constraints and compromised human rights, justice, equity of low-income households because in most cases are contradictory (Smith & Green, 2005:435-448).

2.4.5 Public Participation

It was argued that *public participation* was an integral part of local democracy and local governance. That the main challenge facing most ward committees was uncertainty over their

functions (Sikakane, 2006:2; Nzimakwe & Reddy, 2008:667-679; Tshishonga & Mbambo, 2009:132 (see Figure; 7); Carrim, 2010: 201-245; Kotze & Taylor, 2010: 109-151; Draai & Taylor, 2009: 112-122; Muller, 2008:198-210). It was suggested that community development workers (CDWs) could assist in bridging the gap between communities and local government in order to bring social and economic development or transformation (Subban, Reddy & Pillay, 2009:55-75; Madzivhandila & Asha, 2012: 411-445). That Municipalities should engage and consult civil society more frequently in policy formulation, implementation and incorporate them in governance structures (Idasa, 2010:1-150). It required political will to allow continued participation of community structures in decision-making (Mubangizi, 2007: 4-17; Malena, 2009:1-358).

Figure 7: Ladder of participation

(Source: Tshishonga & Mbambo, 2009:132)

The media as a force multiplier remains an indispensable tool to facilitate public participation and ensuring answerability in service delivery (Nkuna, 2007:231-240).

It would appear that, if public or community participation was not honoured fully, because resources are limited, service delivery backlogs would be insurmountable.

2.4.6 Performance Monitoring and Evaluation and Performance Management System in Local Government

It was reported that Municipalities are at the coalface of service delivery and are being challenged to demonstrate their ability to execute both basic as well as enabling services crucial for social and economic growth and development. It further insinuated that this challenge finds

expression in the requirement that Municipalities are expected to report on their performance, from both a civic and policy perspective (Mmapulana, 2010:1-111).

To this end, Mmapulana (2010:1-111) pointed out that the present government had taken performance of government officials and politicians seriously, and the Government had created a new Ministry in the Presidency called Performance Monitoring and Evaluation that will assist in ensuring that government performs better. The President of South Africa Mr. Jacob Zuma said that performance management works only if there was a mechanism to hold the people responsible and accountable (Mmapulana, 2010:1-111).

It was observed that it was difficult for a Municipality to perform well in implementing its projects of the IDP without a *performance management system* (PMS). That deficiencies in performance management and low levels of rate payment could be linked to the ineffectiveness and inefficiency in a Municipality. That performance management starts with the IDP followed by Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) and the cycle for the year ends with the oversight report of the Council and, that performance management is critical to success if service delivery was to be improved (Manyaka & Sebola, 2012; 299-310; Bonga, 2007:119-124; Senge, 1990:1-350; Armstrong & Stephens, 2005:1-289; Tshikovha, 2006:1-90; Pretorius & Schurink , 2007:19-29; Buset, 2007:3; Okafor, 2009: 1-65). That a system of performance assessment that included consequences due to non-performance should be developed. Policies and procedures should be implemented which reflect expectations and hold individuals accountable. This should include incentives and rewards for good performance (The Auditor-General Report, 2014).

In alignment with the mandates of the Ministry of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation, the Johannesburg Metro Council therefore looked at the effectiveness of the *City Scorecard (CS)* in terms of performance management for enhanced performance of employees because the improved performance of employees is imperative for effective service delivery to communities. It was asserted that the major reason behind the performance review in that there is a close relationship between performance management and service delivery. The performance priorities are established by the Mayor, commonly known as Mayoral priorities and the community's

needs, priorities and strategies are combined, monitored and measured through the CS. In other words, the community is a yard stick of CS and the satisfaction of the community was a means to ensure that Municipal officials are performing and rendering effective and efficient services to communities; staff need to be coached and managed to achieve the latter pertinent to the process outlined in Figure 8 (Mmapulana, 2010:1-111).

Figure 8: Employee performance management and training

(Source: Mmapulana, 2010:1-111)

A study was undertaken in Tshwane Metro City to evaluate the impact of PMS on service delivery using Tshwane Metro City's Roads and Storm Water Division (Ramuvhundu, 2012:1-62) and the analysis was in accordance with the key elements that are outlined in detail in Figure 9 below include vision and mission, key success factors, strategies and plans, key performance measures, target setting, performance evaluation and reward system (Ramuvhundu, 2012:1-62).
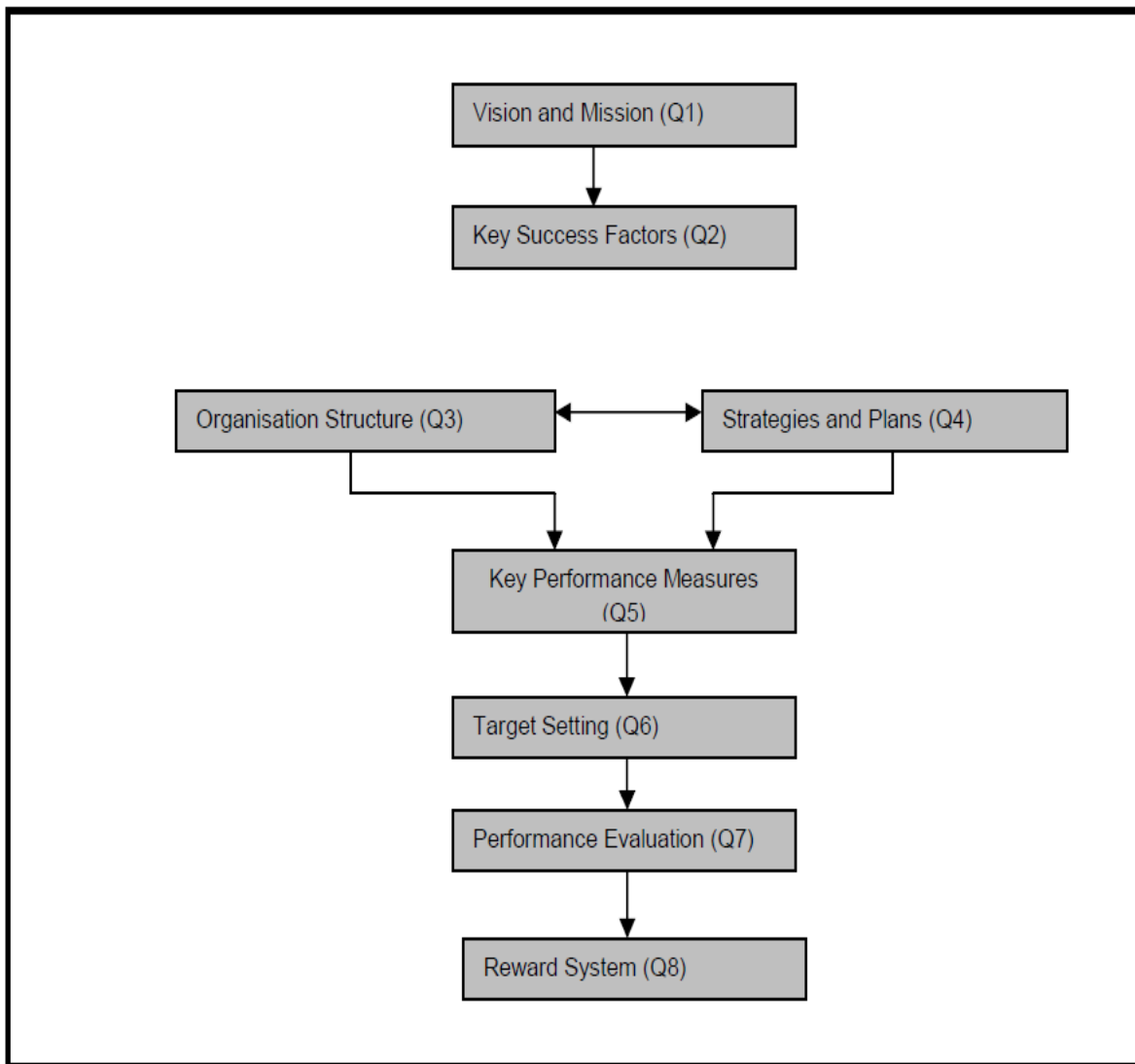
Figure 9: The performance management framework

(Source: Ferreira & Otley, 2009:263-282)

The study was also guided by the PMS framework that consisted of four variables that were taken into account namely, the independent variable, intervening variable, dependent variable and the mediating variable (Siddiqi & Malik, 2009: 281-286) see Figure 10.

The broad objectives of this study were, *inter alia*, as follows;

▪ Establish the association between PMS (used in roads and storm water) performance, productivity and service delivery

- Evaluate whether service delivery is influenced by PMS and productivity

- Compare the impact of PMS on productivity before and after reforms implementation.
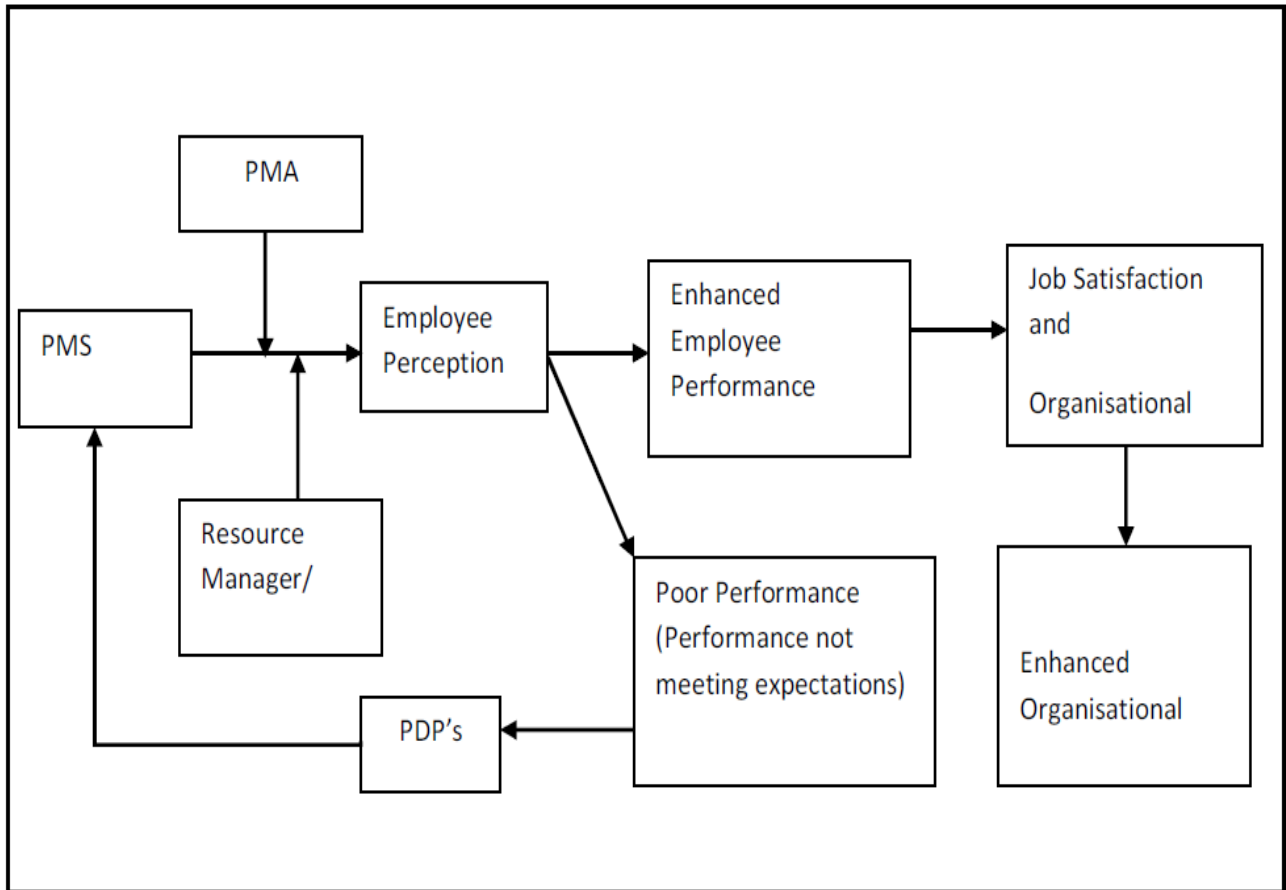
Figure 10: Performance management system model

(Source: Siddiqi & Malik, 2009: 281-286)

The study found that (Ramuvhundu, 2012:1-62):

- Management at Roads and Storm Water often take time to clearly explain strategic goals of roads and storm water division to employees

- Key performance measurements that are set for employees are measurable, specific and time bound

- Line managers at Roads and Storm Water often provide good leadership and they regularly monitor performance of employees against set targets

- Performance evaluation at Roads and storm water was by enlarge done fairly

- Roads and Storm Water employees seemed to be generally happy with the performance measurements that are set for them.

However, on the flipside the study identified that (Ramuvhundu, 2012:1-62):

- Employees are of the opinion that key performance measurements that are set for them at Roads and Storm Water are not realistic

- Key performance measurements that are set for employees at Roads and Storm Water are often not agreed to between the line manager and the concerned employee.

Consequently, the study concluded that the impact of PMS on service delivery had been the same before and after the reforms introduced in the Tshwane Metro Council (Ramuvhundu, 2012:1-62). This study of the impact of PMS on service delivery was supported by similar studies conducted by, among others, Mkumbeni (2008:1-88) and Mmapulana (2010:1-111.)

Gopane's (2012: 1-153) study focused on investigating the effectiveness of the Eastern Cape Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs (ECDLGTA) to *monitor and evaluate* the performance of Municipalities within the Cacadu District Municipality.
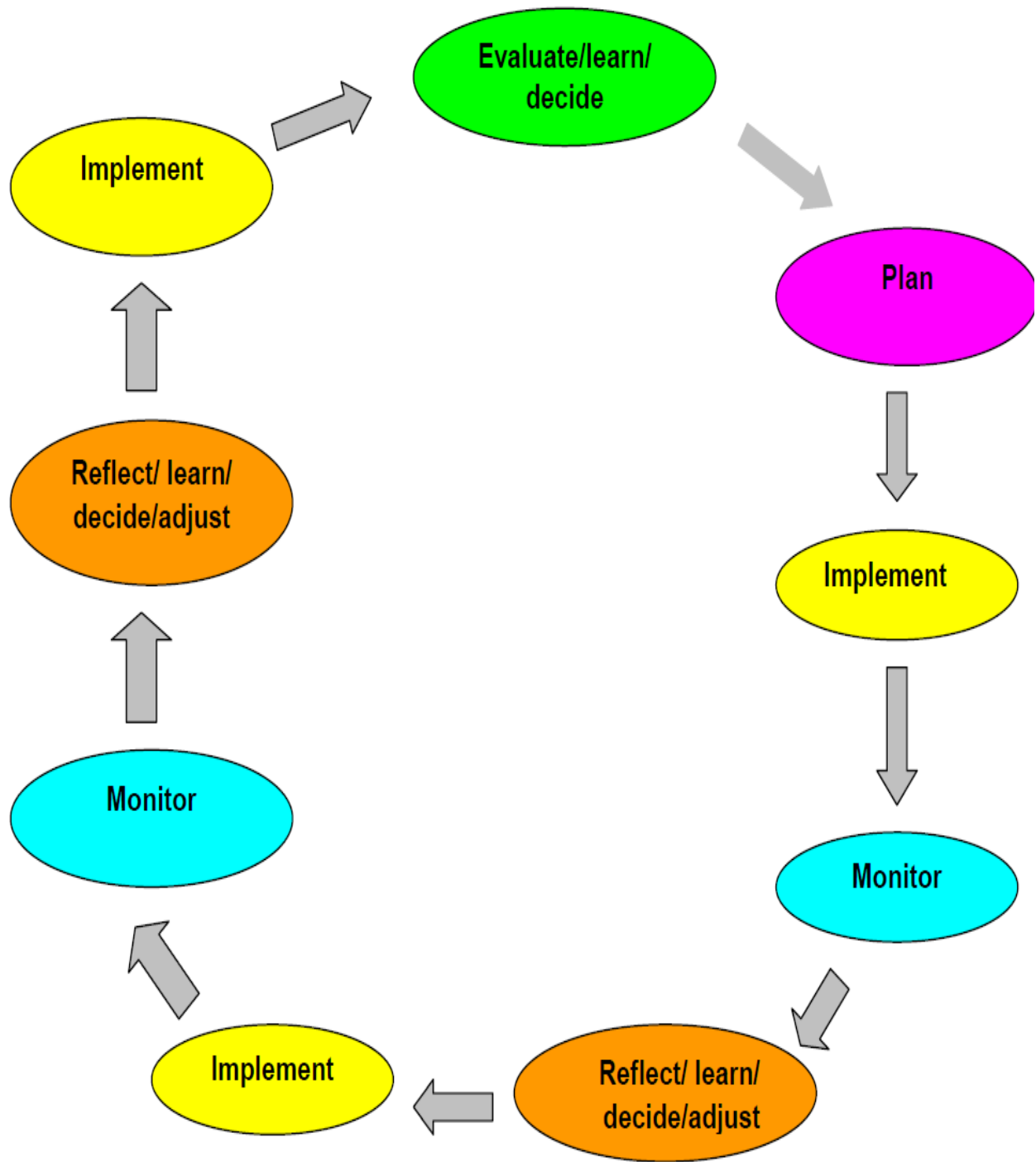
Figure 11: Monitoring and evaluation cycle

(Source: Shapiro, 2014:6)

Shapiro (2014:5) reported that monitoring and evaluation (M&E) are in fact valuable tools that can help an organisation identify problems and their causes; suggest possible solutions to problems; raise questions about assumptions and strategy; push organisations to reflect on where they are going, and how they will get there; provide organisations with relevant information and insight; and increase the likelihood of a positive development difference in their performance, and the process of M&E was an on-going cycle that commences with the evaluation of an existing project or programme as depicted in Figure 11 (Shapiro (2014:5). In South Africa the cabinet approved the implementation plan to develop the government wide monitoring and evaluation system (GWM&ES) in 2005 and the new M&E ministry was established in the Presidency in 2009 (Gopane, 2012: 1-153). The M&E system included functions such as monitoring, evaluation, early warning, data verification and collection, analysis and reporting and the implementation plan also outlined the dates for phased implementation and an interdepartmental task team. The latter identified three main areas of work that would contribute to M&E in government, as illustrated in Figure 12 (Engela and Ajam (2010:1-99).
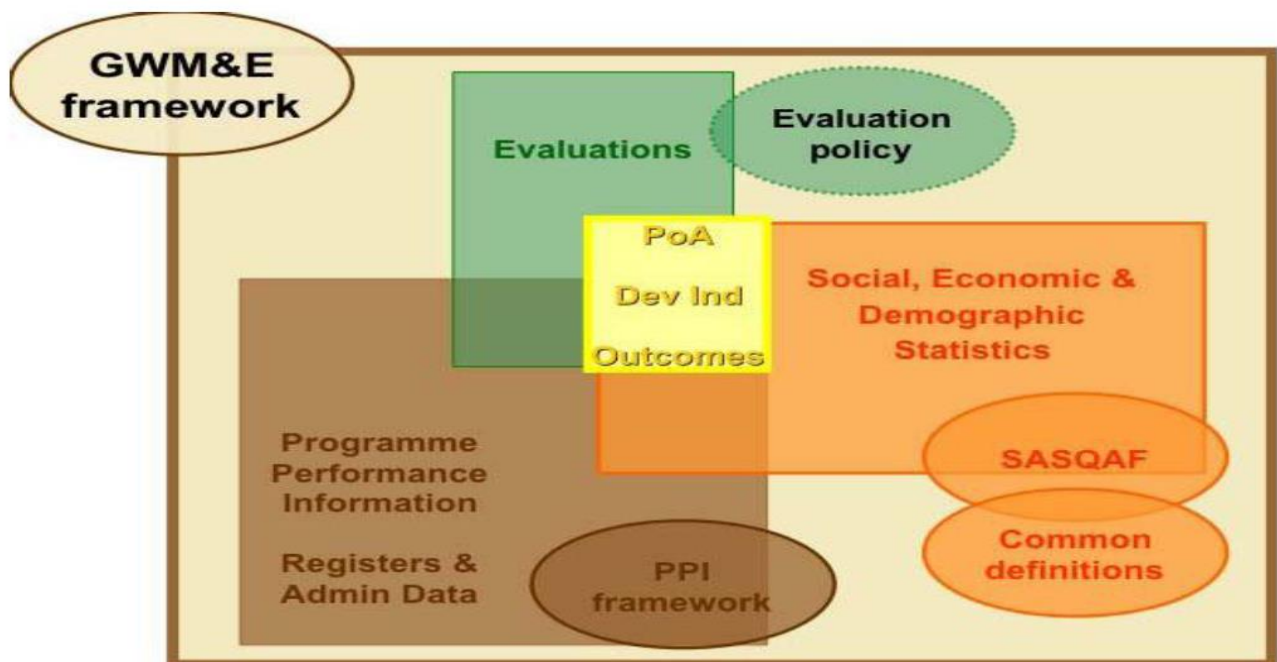
Figure 12: Components of the South African government-wide monitoring and evaluation system

(Source: Engela & Ajam, 2010:1-99)

(Masiteng, 2004:1-35) asserted that M&E in the GWM&E context is a set of activities and milestone tracing techniques, all of which measured some aspect of government performance, including measurement of the current status and change over time in any of the initiatives, and M&E also helped to track changes in services that are provided and the expected outcomes, thereby providing a basis for accountability with regard to the utilisation of resources.

The study's results were, among others, the following (Gopane, 2012: 1-153):

- Municipalities were not cooperative towards legislation

- There were excessive utilisation of service providers

- Inadequate resources in the provincial department to fulfil monitoring duties

- IDP not developed properly and the disjuncture between the Municipal reports and IDP

- High staff turnover and ineffective recruiting and selection

- Non-implementation of remedies proposed by the province

- No remedies proposed by the ECDLGTA for Municipalities as well as intervention at provincial sphere not on time.

Among others, the study recommended that the provincial sphere of government should be more hands on in monitoring all Municipal programmes on an ongoing process (Gopane, 2012: 1-153).

Performance management was critical to success if service delivery was to be improved. However, it was worth noting that enhancing the positive impact of service delivery through performance management would require competent management and leadership as a foremost requisite (Manyaka & Sebola: 2012:299-310).

2.4.7 Impact of Supply Chain Performance Management on Local Government Service Delivery

The aim of this study was to provide insight into public sector procurement supply chain management in order to determine how an effective *supply chain performance management system* could possibly improve service delivery at local government level, and this study's goal was informed by Section 217 of the Constitution that stipulates that procurement should be done by a supply chain management system that is fair, equitable, transparent, competitive and cost effective (Bizana, 2013:1-124).

The findings of the study indicated that all the participating cities follow the prescribed requirements of the Public Finance Management Act, Municipal Finance Management Act and the Municipal Systems Act amongst others, and challenges identified include: weak internal controls, inadequate contracts management, lack of performance monitoring and reporting, lack of proper and integrated planning, and unresponsive supply chain processes (Bizana, 2013:1-124).

It was indicated that financial mismanagement at Municipal level has been raised as one of the reasons for service delivery protests and, therefore, effective supply chain management practices have a direct effect on good financial management that would result in improved service delivery to the citizens; the issues shown in Figure 13, were identified by Atkinson (2007:1-368) as being some of the major reasons for the service delivery protests (Bizana, 2013:1-124).

It noted that Section 9 (a-b) of the Supply Chain Management Regulations of 2005 contained in the MFMA 56 of 2003 stipulates that every SCM department must always have the following five elements of Supply Chain Management (Bizana, 2013:1-124):

- Demand Management

- Acquisition Management

- Logistics Management

- Performance Management

- Risk Management

- Disposal Management (Republic of South Africa, 2005, s. 9(a-b).

The elements of SCM mentioned above are all inter-linked so as to form an integrated supply chain process. According to the Policy Strategy to Guide Uniformity in Procurement Reform Processes in Government, the supply chain process linked to budget planning processes and strongly focused on the outcomes of the actual expenditure in respect of sourcing of goods and services (National Treasury, 2003, p. 5), and it was important to ensure that there was value added in each element so as to maximise the eventual outcome; Figure 14 shows the SCM model suggested in the Supply Chain Management Guide (Bizana, 2013:1-124).
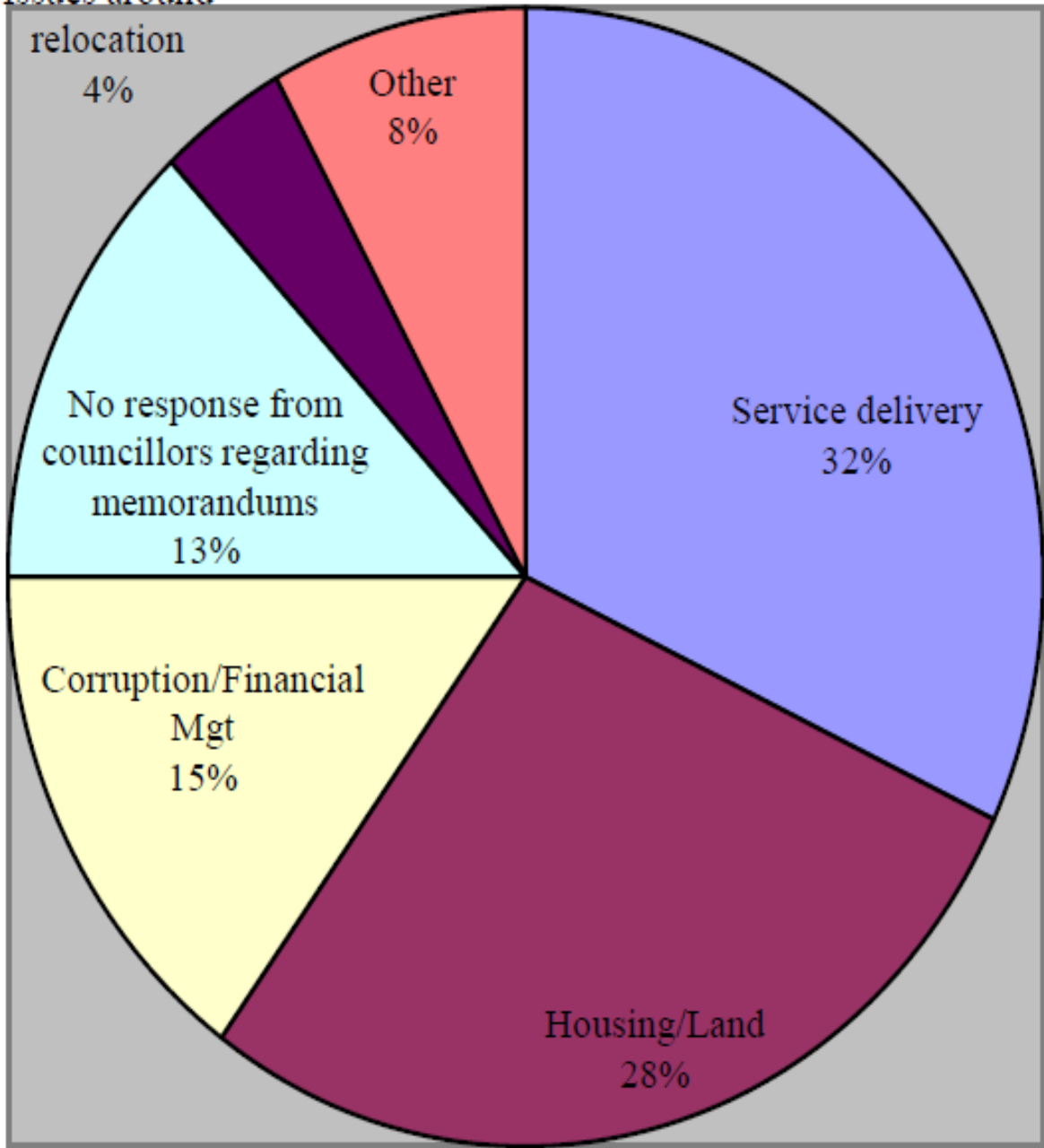
Figure 13: South African Institute of Race Relations

(Source: Atkinson, 2007:1-368)
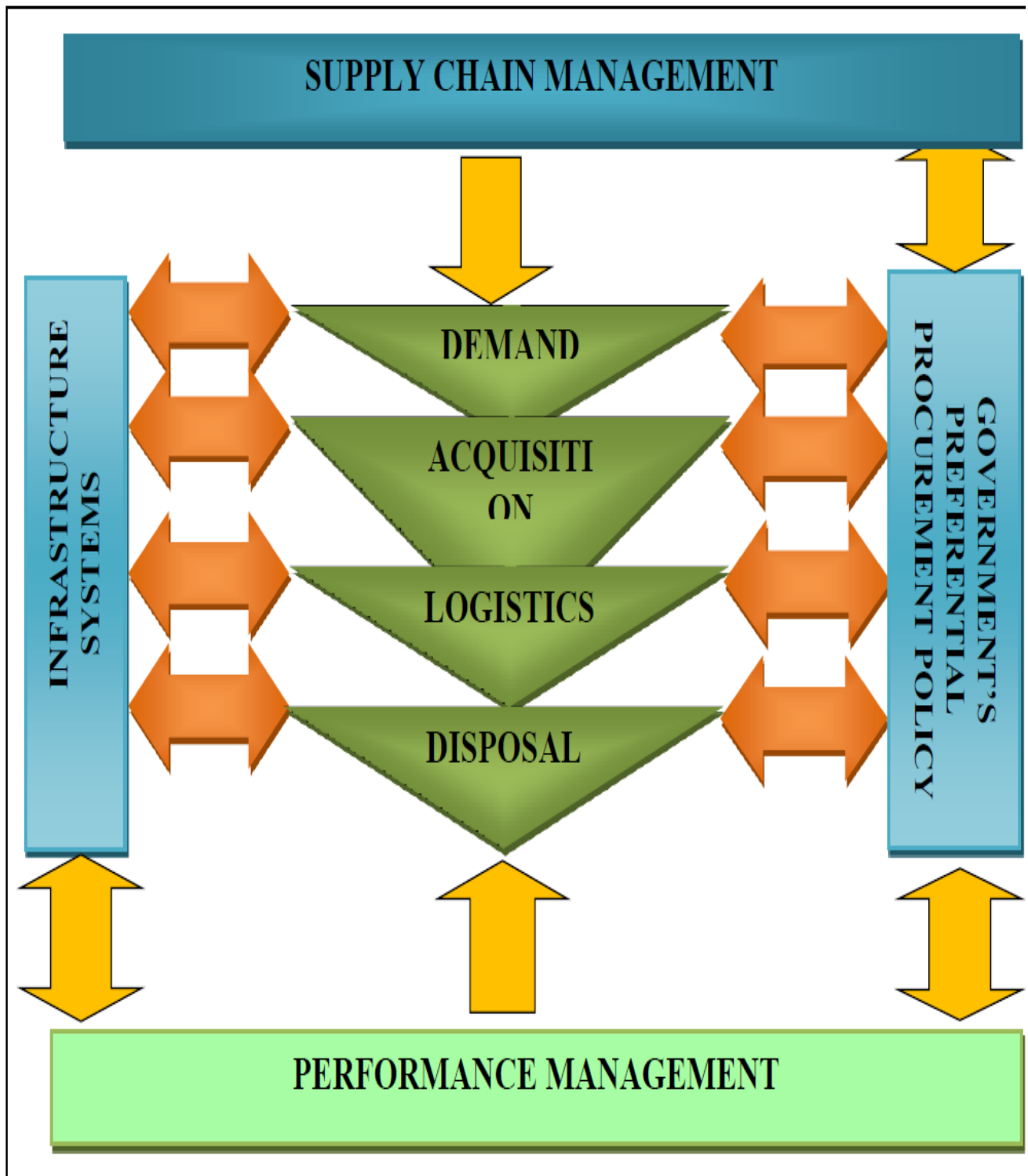
Figure 14: Supply chain management

(Source: Bizana, 2013:1-124)

The study found that, despite clear guideline from the Supply Chain Management Regulations of 2005, a common major challenges when dealing with service providers were late delivery, and it is believed that late payment to service providers is a major cause for late deliveries. Figure 15 demonstrates the relationship between late delivery and the factors influencing it (Bizana, 2013:1-124).
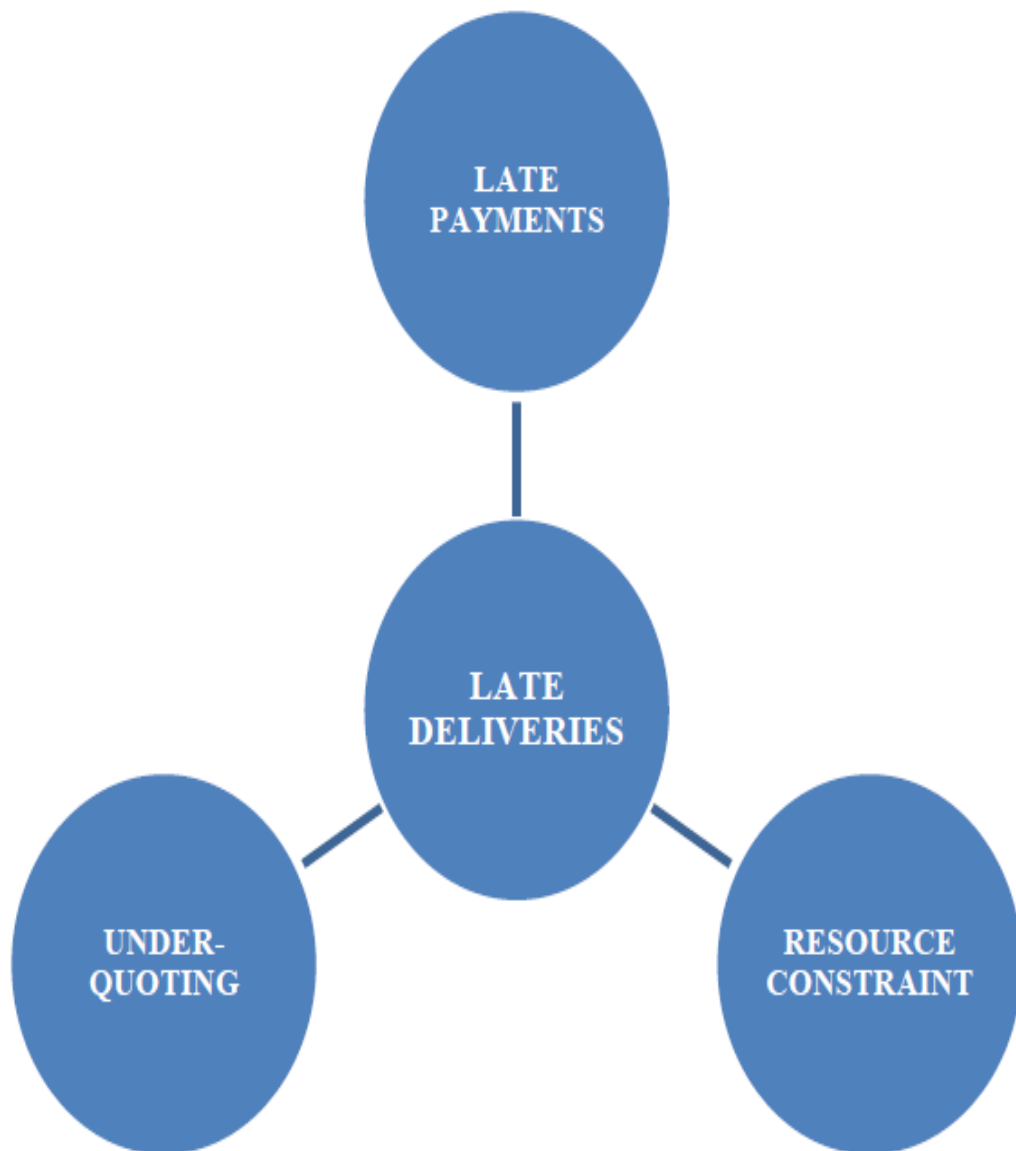
Figure 15: Challenges of service provider relationship management

(Source: Bizana, 2013:1-124)

Among others, the Auditor General revealed that uncompetitive or unfair procurement processes were a result of, *inter alia*, the following factors: (a) three price quotations were not in all instances obtained from prospective providers and the deviations were not approved by a properly delegated official or committee as required, (b) uncompetitive or unfair procurement processes, (c) awards were made to suppliers without proof from the South African Revenue Service (SARS) that their tax matters were in order, (d) the declarations were not always submitted by the providers, with the result that the Municipalities did not have sufficient information to identify conflicts of interest and prohibited awards, (e) bids advertised for a shorter period – no approval of deviation and bids not adjudicated by a properly constituted adjudication committee. Thus, supply chain management (SCM) was generally an area of considerable risk at most of the Municipalities (Auditor-General Report, 2014).

2.4.8 Organisational Structure

Mothae (2008:820-830) contended that a Municipality will be sustainable if it ensured that its organisational structure was informed by its strategies and that these are both reviewed at regular intervals (Tshikovha, 2006:1-90). This transformation implied a change in organisational structures, strategies, processes, systems and the people who work in Municipalities and these should have created a culture of learning at Municipal level.

The Auditor-General (2014) Report argued that organisational structures should be aligned to ensure adequate performance planning, management and reporting and adequate capacity should be established within IDP offices with the required budgetary allocation.

2.4.9 Commitment of Local Government

The *commitment of local government* in improving the supply of services in Municipalities was critical (Mainganye, 2007:1-105). The main attributes required to address risks, namely, financial, compliance, service delivery, community perceptions and staff capacity to successful operation of Municipalities are *discipline* and *commitment* (Tewary, 2011: 20-22). It was reported that more than half of Municipalities could attribute their poor audit outcomes to Mayors and Councillors lack of commitment and poor responsiveness to the issues identified by the audits and concomitant recommendations (Auditor-General, 2014).

It seemed that a lack of commitment, linked political will could continue to weaken the pillars of governance in local government.

2.4.10 Poor Communication

A lack of a two-way communication process were, among others, a critical issue relevant to service delivery in a Municipality (Buset, 2007:3 & Bonga, 2007:119-124). Poor communication between a Municipality and traditional leaders was also a challenge (Muller, 2008:198-210).

It would seem that communication will remain one of the critical issues to achieve optimal performance in Municipalities throughout the country.

2.4.11 Leadership and Governance

Pretorius and Schurink, 2007:19-29) suggested that *leadership* was one of the major shortcomings of poor service delivery in Municipalities. A model was suggested namely, the Retro Advanced Leadership Model which comprises (1) management of leadership performance, (2) legislative imperatives, (3) the achievement of realistic goals, and (4) continuous maintenance and monitoring of achievements. It was stated that inspirational leadership and capabilities on management are critical if Municipalities implement their strategies and deliver the outcomes their stakeholders deserve (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2012:456-471). Inspired political and administrative leadership was required in South Africa to achieve service delivery challenges to create a society where the poor and historically marginalised are afforded the opportunities to grow and prosper (Edwards, 2009: 299-351). Leadership was a key driver of Municipal poor performance, which included the Councillors and Mayors, who had not demonstrated a sufficient understanding of their oversight functions and had not satisfied themselves that processes were implemented to ensure that reported information was credible and reliable (Auditor-General, 2014).

Nengwekhulu (2009:341-363) indicated that a situation that was integrally linked to leadership was the fact that some of the communities expectations (that is, socialistic) cannot be achieved within the contours of a capitalist society such as South Africa, for socialist demands are not

compatible with the logic and the laws that govern the essence and motion of capitalism. Improving public service delivery would therefore require a multifaceted approach.

It was asserted that *governance* was invariably closely linked to leadership. Kaufman, Kray and Lobaton (1999: 670-695) described governance as traditions and instructions by which authority in a country is exercised for the common good. Minogue, Polidano and Hulme (1998:1-305) contended that governance was a term without agreed usage. However, it focused on the effectiveness and efficiency of outputs and outcomes of government actions. It was noted that the absence of a meaningful definition of governance roles between and amongst Councillors results in appointed officials blaming Councillors for making unrealistic promises to their constituents. In addition, it was argued that service delivery as a perspective on *public administration* will not be successful without sound public administration. The main attributes required to address the latter - financial, compliance, service delivery, community perceptions and staff capacity to successful operation of Municipalities are *discipline* and *commitment* (Muller & Zulu, 2008: 285-293; Mfene, 2009:209 – 221; Tewary, 2011:20 -22).

It was reported that *governance* strengthens the enabling environment for sustainable development and lack of concern for government corruption, centralisation and low levels of effective community participation are the three significant impediments to governance in the South African public service (Paragon Regional Governance Programme (1999:211-243). Good governance was imperative to local government in terms of its developmental agenda of service delivery and rests on seven pillars identified in the King Report (2009) and adapted as follows: discipline, transparency and communication, accountability with action, responsibility together with authority, fairness and equity and social responsibility and service (De Villiers & Michael, 2007:34-36 & Kaufman *et al*, 1999: 670-695). Numerous factors affect governance from a political and administrative perspective (Movanyisi, 2002:1-126). The issue of traditional leaders was a significant variable in governance within the South African context. Their authority and role in Municipalities still remain a challenge. Hence the on-going exercise to review and update the relevant legislation affecting the situation (Muller & Zulu, 2008: 285-293).

Municipality's rules and orders contain the building blocks of its governance system and the major characteristics of good governance are namely, participation, the rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus – oriented, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness, economy and efficiency, accountability and dedication to the concept of effective and democratic governance composed of responsible leaders (De Visser, 2008:13-16, Thakhathi, 2009:301-345 & Idasa, 2010: 1-150).

The three pillars of good *governance* and sustainable development are accountability, ethics and trust as depicted in Figure 16 (De Visser, 2008:13-16; Thakhathi, 2009: 301-345; Idasa, 2010: 1-150; Sindane, 2009:221-245).
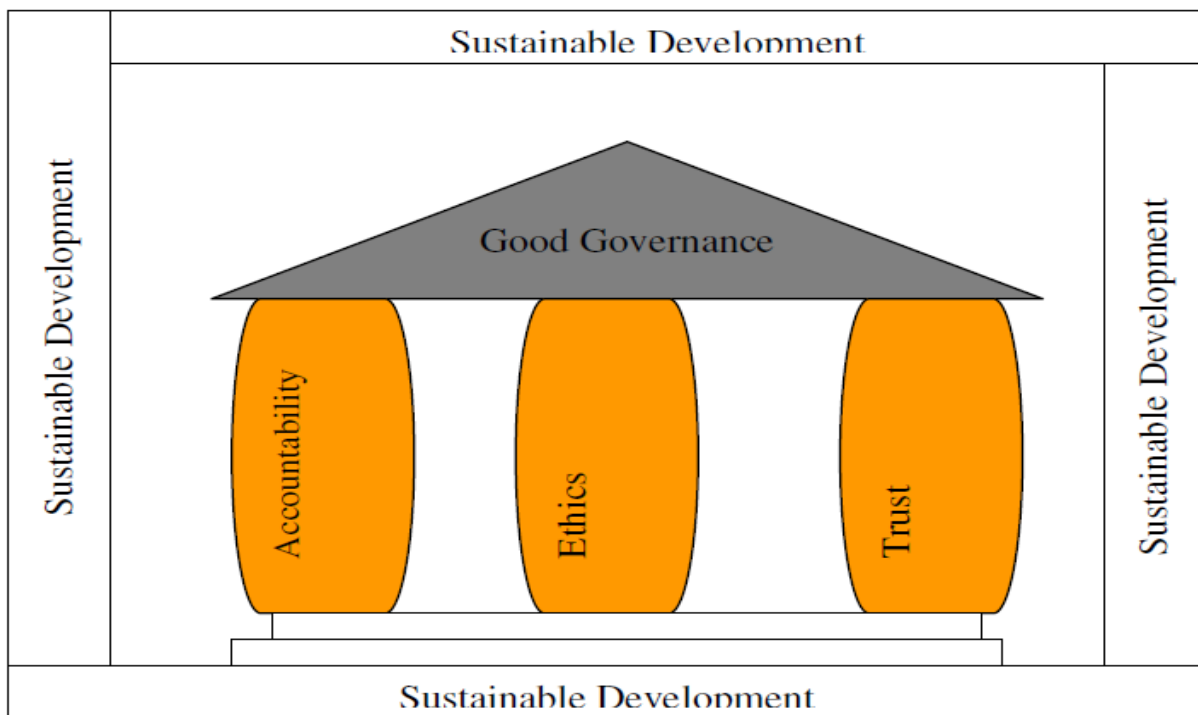
Figure 16: Three pillars for good governance and sustainable development

(Source: Sindane, 2009: 221-245)

According to Crous (2004:574-589), Draai (2010:350-369), Kanyane (2009:202-231), Mofolo and Smith (2009:430-440) it was reported that until such time Councillors realise that they are there to serve their community and not merely to wield power; good corporate *governance* would remain a pipe dream. As part of collaborative governance *Batho Pele* (i.e. people first) principles

had a definitive impact on service delivery provided managers and employees understand that customer care is not about meeting the expectations but exceeding them.

The principles of '*Ubuntu*' (i.e. humanity) must be practiced and structures for good *governance* put in place and appropriately enforced for improved service delivery in the Public Sector because the challenges do not only lie with government policies and programmes of action. Ubuntu must become an integral part of government and society as depicted in Figure 17 (Muller, 2008:112-210).
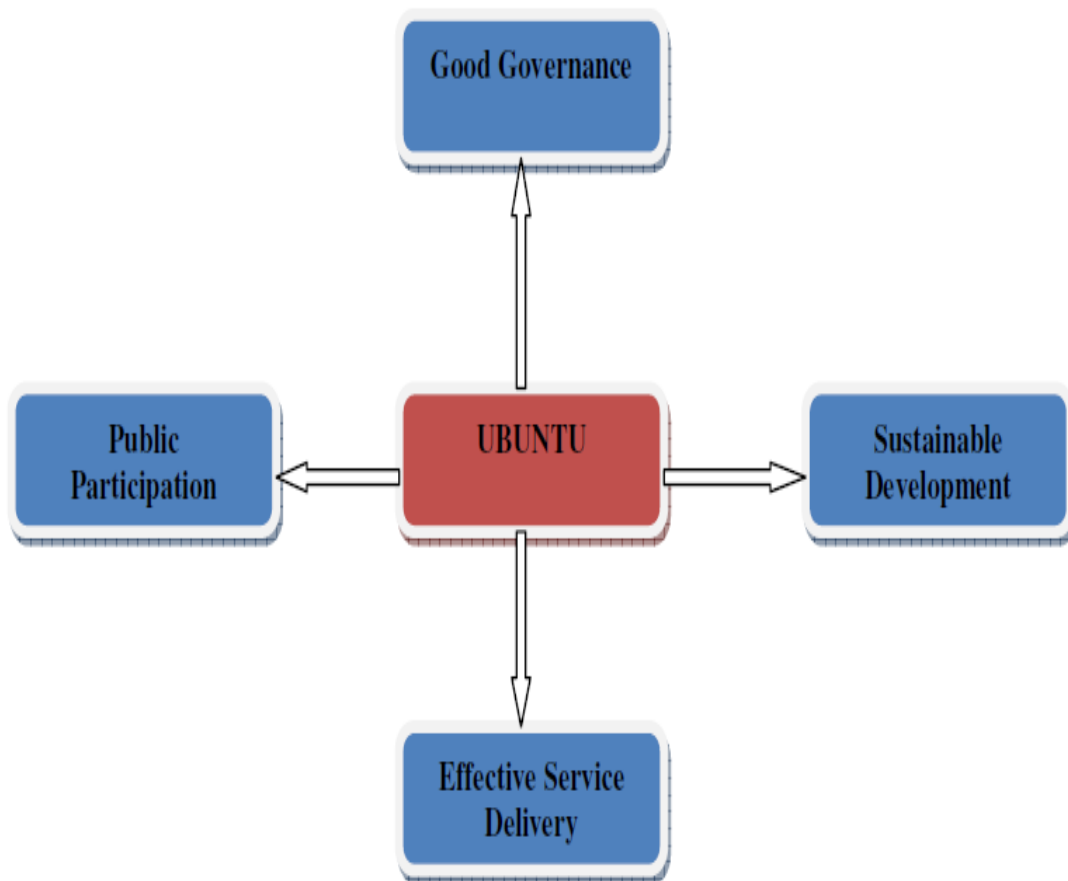
(Source: Muller, 2008: 207)

Figure 17: Practice of *ubuntu*

(Source: Muller, 2008: 207)

An assertion was made that good *governance* and leadership (public leadership) are the missing link in service delivery and are the silent triggers of the service delivery protest (Sindane & Nambalirwa, 2012: 695-705; Roux, 2005).

It would appear that there was no argument that leadership and governance are deficit in most Municipalities. Municipalities need to conduct on-going research in their Municipal areas of jurisdiction in order to inform their future strategies as part and parcel of their *research and development* initiative (Malefane, 2008:708-724).

2.4.12 Capacity Building

In most instances the bulk of the workforce in Municipalities comprised semi or unskilled black workers, who have historically been denied access to training and personal development opportunities and alienated from the communities they serve. On-the-job training, the inculcation and development of skills of employees at the workplace, is a *sine qua non* for increased productivity and morale; a basic requirement to enable a Municipality to provide effective and efficient service delivery (Majam, 2005: 442-452; Ndevu, Ile & Ile, 2007:158 -170; Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:1-68; Mampane & Ababio, 2010:175-189). There seemed to be a general consensus that employees of Municipalities are recruited in compliance with narrow political interests rather than due to competence (Dzansi & Dzansi, 2010:995-1005; Botes, Lenka, Marais, Matebesi & Sigenu, 2007:1-155). The practice of appropriate *human resource management* could be linked to effective service delivery in the public sector (Majam, 2005: 442-452 & Ndevu, Ile & Ile, 2007:158-170).

2.4.13 "*Batho Pele*" Principles

Failure to entrench, practice and implement a policy framework such as "*Batho Pele*" (i.e. people first) principles was a factor to bear in relation to service delivery. The *Batho Pele* learning network is characteristic of different types of collaborative networks. As change agents, collaborative networks are instrumental in various aspects, such as reducing the silo syndrome in government, creating a shared public value and in monitoring and evaluating service delivery. Also as part of collaborative governance *Batho Pele* principles had a definitive impact on service

delivery provided managers and employees understand that customer care was not about meeting the expectations but exceeding them. (Crous, 2004: 2004:574-589; Mofolo & Smith, 2009:430-440; Draai, 2010:350-369).

2.4.14 Amalgamation of Municipalities

Amalgamation of Municipalities implied practical changes such as the distance between towns and the resultant burden it could have for sustained service rendering. To this end, it was suggested that it had detrimental effects to most Municipalities' performance (Du Plessis, 2009: 320-346; Dollery & Johnson, 2005: 73-85).

2.4.15 Lack of Accountability

One of the major challenges faced by Municipalities in South Africa was quality service delivery that can be attributed to *inter alia*, lack of accountability. Public accountability was an important component of local governance as it promoted community involvement and participation (Sikakane & Reddy, 2009:113-131). Accountability played a significant role in promoting good governance which leads to sustainable development through, fostering trust and confidence, ensuring compliance, promoting fairness, openness and transparency, improving ethical and moral standards, building legitimacy of government and empowering the society (Molekane & Mothae, 2009:401-450). There had to be certainty in terms of responsibility for tasks otherwise accountability could not be reasonably expected (Du Plessis, 2009:320-346 & Brynard, 2009: 245-264). The following factors are a litmus test of whether public accountability is operational in the public sector: (a) How regularly and efficiently are the views of the public sought by decision makers? (b) How easy was it for the ordinary citizen to participate in the decision making process at national and local levels if he/she wishes to do so? (c) How regularly are elections held so that those in power make themselves accountable to the electorate and the electorate can replace them if dissatisfied with their performance? (Movanyisi, 2009:1-126). Financial accountability is the *sine qua non* of effective service delivery and uncovers a number of factors that may limit accountability and hence service delivery (Ngwakwe, 2012:311-329).

2.4.16 Water and Sanitation

Water and sanitation were two of the main triggers of service-delivery protests impacting negatively on Municipal performance in South Africa. Hence the belief that the killing of 34 Lonmin workers at Marikana had refocused the spotlight on living and working conditions and had brought urgency to the holding of the Provincial "Water is life; sanitation is dignity" hearings (Govender, 2012:6).

2.4.17 Fraud and Corruption

Corruption has been described as the abuse of public office for private gain. This referred to gain of any kind – financial, in status. The South Africa government was warned on the bloated issues of *fraud and corruption* which are not only vulnerable to politico-administrative reforms, but also to public service delivery in general (Drury, Krieckhaus & Lusztig, 2006:122; Kanyane, 2009: 202-231). The primary reason for concern about corruption was that it reduced public trust and confidence in the integrity and impartiality of elected representatives, that is, political office bearers and public officials (Mafunisa, 2007:258-269). The effect of corruption in South Africa had seriously constrained the development of economy and had significantly inhibited good governance in the country. South African lax political leadership was a contributory factor to the rise of corruption, which had adversely affected stability and trust that had damaged the ethos of democratic values and principles (Pillay, 2004:586). Corruption undermined the rule of law, democratic governance, accountability and sustainable development. It breached the contract between citizens and public officials, and this had grave consequences for successful government (Carrier, 2008:7 & Gupta, Davoodi & Alsonso-Terme, 2002:3). Therefore, it was evident that corruption has a negative impact on service delivery. It delayed, disturbed and diverted growth and development necessary for effective service delivery. The overall impact of corruption contributed directly to poverty by depriving the poor of public services and benefits (Tooley & Mahoai, 2007:366-373).

2.4.18 Integrated Developmental Plans

The effectiveness of Municipalities to deliver on their mandate was largely dependent on carefully integrating community needs in their integrated developmental plans (IDPs) and when allocating budget. It was essential to note that the IDP was informed by the resources which can be afforded and allocated through the budget process (Idasa, 2010:1-150).

2.8.19 Political and Administrative Tensions

It was crucial that current prevailing *political and administrative tensions* in Municipalities are resolved in order to enhance and deepen local democracy. The relationship between politics and administration should ensure that partisan concerns do not compromise management which was the core element of ensuring service delivery (Kanyane, 2009: 202-231& Idasa, 2010:1-150). The magnitude and urgency of the fiscal problems within Municipalities was a cause for concern in relation to the current intergovernmental fiscal relations/system and, the equitable distribution of the national revenue to rural and urban environments. Rethinking fiscal allocations held great promise for improving the socioeconomic conditions of Municipalities (Mafunisa, 2007:258-269 & Idasa, 2010:1-150).

2.4.20 Relationship between Councillors and Communities

The quality of *relationship amongst Councillors and communities* was crucial in effective service delivery in South Africa. Among others, relations must be strengthened in a way that ensures regular interaction and information exchange on the work of the Council and the nature of service delivery deficiencies. Local forums such as ward committees need to be strengthened to serve as platforms for interaction between citizens and their elected leaders. Greater acknowledgement of individual specialisation in the allocation of oversight committee membership would improve the quality of oversight and, general ward Councillors' incapability and shortcomings needed to be addressed (Rapoo & Richard, 2009:8-10).

2.4.21 Lack of Consequences for Poor Performance

At least 73% of the Municipalities in the public service showed signs of a general *lack of consequences for poor performance*. In other words, no sanctions were instituted for poor performance. This is evidenced by the fact that modified audit opinions remained the norm. When officials and political leaders are not held accountable for their actions, the perception could be created that such behaviour and its results are acceptable and tolerated. This could make even those people that are giving their best under trying circumstances despondent (Auditor-General Report, 2014).

2.4.22 Unauthorised, Irregular or Fruitless and Wasteful Expenditure

Unauthorised, irregular or fruitless and wasteful expenditure was incurred by 86% of Municipalities. The audits further revealed that the accounting officers did not ensure that reasonable steps were taken to prevent this type of expenditure. To remedy this wasteful expenditure, accounting officers, Mayors and Councillors, provincial treasuries, Departments of Local Government and the premiers should set the tone for officials to the effect that legislation does not represent red tape or bureaucracy, but reflects, through Parliament, the will of the citizens as to how public funds should be administered and services delivered (Auditor-General Report, 2014).

2.4.23 Protest as a Symptom of Poor Service Delivery

South Africa may not yet had reached the Arab Spring-type uprising many analysts had been warning of, but the protests are an indication of a growing anger and frustration in many parts of the country (Sunday Times, 2014: 12). According to the Municipal IQ the main reasons for the protests are a lack of *housing*, *sanitation*, *electricity* and *water supply*. The latter issues represent the basic service delivery and IDP mandates of Municipalities as informed by the Constitution and the Municipal legislation. The Municipal IQ reported that although political factors might influence or overlay service delivery protests, there was usually a *bona fide* service delivery grievance that had not been addressed for some time. A common denominator was a call for basic services in urban townships as well as rural villages all over South Africa, even if the context was different (Sunday Times, 2014:12).

Post the general election, one would had expected that the protesters – many of whom were eligible to vote, would had expressed their anger in the polling booths by voting against the party they accuse of failing to deliver services to them (The Time, 2014:12).

2.4.25 Other Factors Contributing to Poor Municipal Performance or Service Delivery

A study was undertaken around factors influencing the perceptions on service delivery of local Municipalities in the Central District Municipality in North West because service delivery, in general, as perceived by communities, has been a serious dilemma for most |South African Municipalities (Mogapi:2006:1-77). The study used the following marketing service constructs to examine the Municipalities' service quality dimensions (Mogapi: 2006:1-77):

- Reliability: ability to deliver the promised service dependably and accurately

- Responsiveness: willingness to help and provide prompt customer service

- Assurance: knowledge, courtesy and ability of service providers to inspire trust and confidence

- Empathy: caring and individualised attention given to clients

- Tangibles: appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and written materials.

The study found that the communities *do not have confidence* in the local government for service delivery; that is, there was a negative perception on the aspects of reality, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and willingness to provide prompt services by all the local Municipalities under study; the Municipalities only scored well on tangibles, where physical facilities were regarded as satisfactory (Mogapi: 2006:1-77). The study, among others, recommended that local Municipalities should do some introspection and improve on their capacity to deliver especially on leadership, financial management as well as benchmarking with national and international cities and towns for effective Municipal service delivery including the utilisation of Total Quality Management and Work Improvement Team Strategy (Mogapi:2006:1-77).

Another study in support of the Central District Municipality in North West was conducted against the backdrop of the White Paper on Local Government that called for the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner and the primary objective of the study was to provide a view on the *community's expectations and perceptions* of the service quality delivery by the Emfuleni Local Municipality in order to identify any potential service quality gaps (Moletsane, 2012:1-134).

The study ulitised the Gap Analysis model of Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985: 41-50) and supported by Skalen and Fougere (2007:109-125), see Figure 18; the Gap Analysis model proposed that service quality is a function of the differences between expectation and performance along the quality dimensions as portrayed in Figure 18 (Moletsane, 2012:1-134). It was asserted that the Gap Analysis model was based on a set of techniques that identifies the difference between what was achieved and what needs to be achieved. The differences occur at different points in the system. The analysis of the various gaps between expectations and perceptions are not restricted to semantics differential or quadrant analysis (Chakrapani, (1998:1-348); in other words, the Gap Analysis model illustrates the level of quality, which is determined by subtracting the perceived service score from the customer's expectation score for each of the items (Kurtz & Clow, 1998:1-468).

The study found the perceptions' gap are much more to the right-hand side of the scale than the expectations' gap; based on the dimension-by-dimension analysis, all of the dimensions of perceptions were perceived as negative as compared to customers' expectations; meaning that the study revealed that communities were not entirely contend with the service delivery from the Municipality (Moletsane, 2012:1-134).
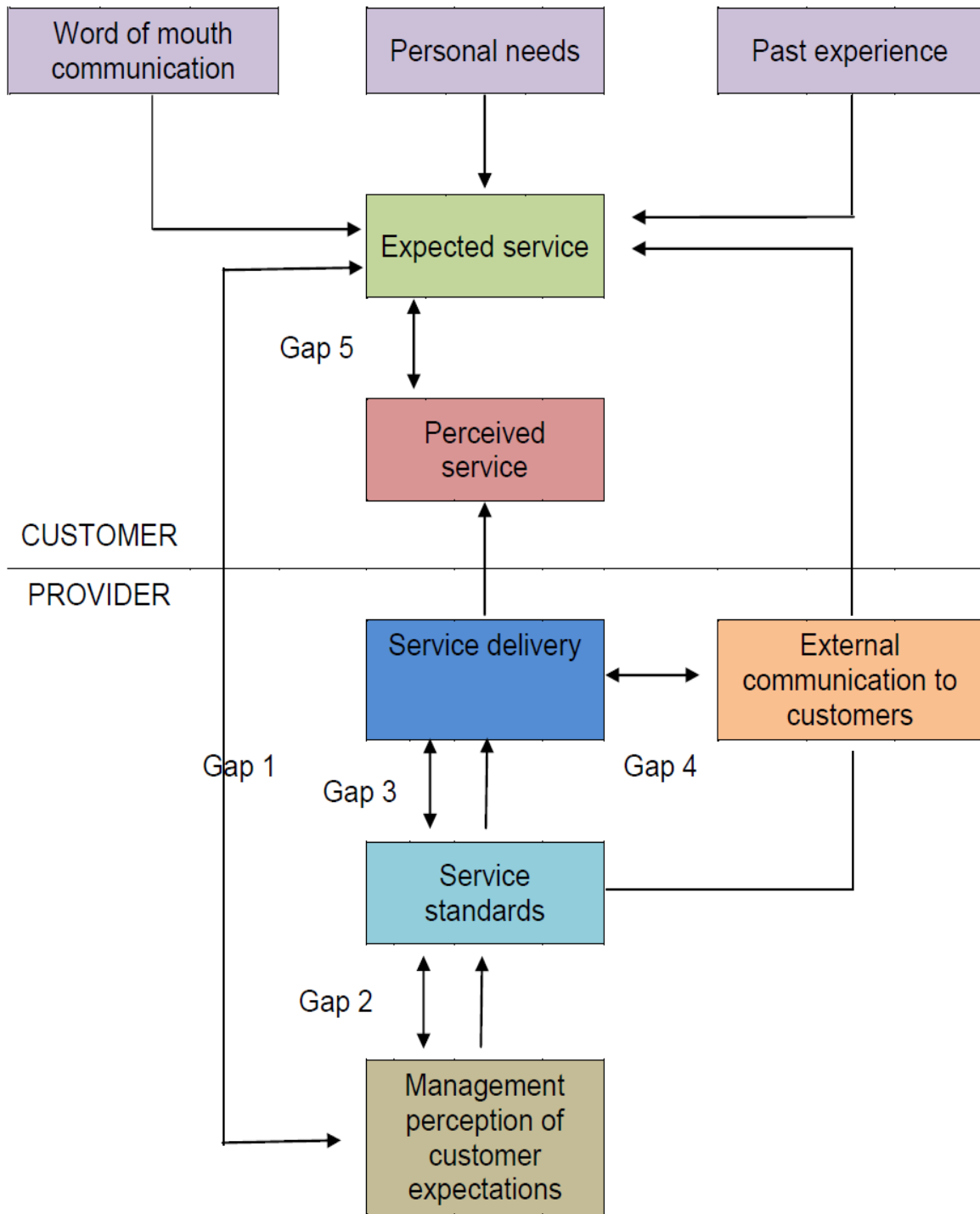
Figure 18: Integrated gap analysis model of service quality

(Source: Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985: 41-50)

The Minister of the Department of Public Services and Administration asserted that *queue management* is critical to service delivery and, it was taken for granted. A typical example mentioned by the Minister was a situation when citizens visited government offices and stand in queue for hours on end and, sometimes end up not receiving the services because public offices are closed when the public officials want to go home (Saturday Citizen, 2014).

Generally the protests against service delivery reflect *disappointment with the fruits of democracy*. While some people have gained, the majority are still poor. Levels of unemployment are perhaps greater than in 1994, and income inequality remains vast, that is, the Gini-coefficient remain unchanged. People can vote, but all too often elected representatives are self-seeking and real improvements are few (Alexander, 2010:25 - 40).

2.5 SUMMARY

For contextual reasons, the literature review reflected on various causal variables for poor performing local government. The above mentioned variables identified, among others, as responsible for below par performance of local government are, in the South African context, contrary to the mandates and guidelines for Municipalities. The Auditor General Report (2014) that serves as a litmus test of how Municipalities perform vindicated the fact that most of Municipalities still continued to fall short in compliance with their constitutional and legislative responsibility.

Oberholzer (2012:1-12) indicated some factors as symptomatic of problems within Municipalities across the country and, that the capacity of national and provincial government to effectively resolve these matters seemed to be weak. Therefore, Oberholzer (2012:1-12) suggested that significant emphasis needed to be placed on this matter in the COGTA's turn-around strategy and that the latter was not yet near enough to achieve its objectives due to, *inter alia*, (a) insufficient skills and capacity within Municipalities, (b) lack of sufficient dedicated funding for the required interventions, (c) insufficient integration and coordination and support by national and provincial government, (d) political instability and diverted focus and (e)

transformation intervention fatigue amongst Municipalities. Many Municipalities were sceptical about yet another intervention and this scepticism then became a self-fulfilling prophecy.

The evaluation and synthesis of the above mentioned studies on the dynamics of Municipal performance, revealed that they were not comprehensive enough to include all possible causative factors. They were also not definitive to the extent that there could be other untapped causal or contributory factors to ineffective Municipal performance, *inter alia*, "*political will*." For instance, South African literature review failed to answer this research question: Is there a link between political will and Municipal performance? Therefore, *the association of political will with Municipal performance in South Africa* is an understudied theme.

Political will as a variable with special reference to Municipal performance was the cornerstone of this study.

CHAPTER 3

REGIONAL PERSPECTIVES OF PERFORMANCE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SELECTED SOUTHERN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter first examined the constitutional mandates on performance (viz. service delivery) of selected Southern African countries, namely, Namibia, Botswana, Malawi and Zimbabwe with special reference to the sphere of local government. The countries were chosen on account of their similar governance policies with that of South Africa. Thereafter their performance at this sphere were compared and contrasted with the South African situation to highlight any discrepancies between policies and implementation.

3.2 REPUBLIC OF MALAWI

3.2.1 Background

Malawi is located in Southern Africa and borders with Zambia, Mozambique and Tanzania. It is a landlocked country. It had a population of approximately 12 million of which 52% are women. About 85% of this population lived in rural areas and survived on subsistence agriculture. (Malawi Public Service Charter, 2009: 1-105). According to the Second Integrated House Hold Survey (HIS) 2009, it was estimated that the poverty rate of Malawi was 52.4% and that about 22.4% of the people of Malawi lived under conditions of extreme poverty (Malawi Public Service Charter, 2009: 1-105).

Malawi attained independence in 1964 and became a Republic in 1966, and in 1994 attained multi-party democracy and a new democratic Constitution was adopted in 1995 (The Malawi Public Service Charter, 2009:1-105). This Constitution provided for a Bill of Rights and other fundamental principles. The following are some of the major components of the Constitution relevant to service delivery.

3.2.2 Salient Constitutional Mandates

The Malawi Constitution (1995), among others, upheld the following:

The executive was responsible for the initiation of policies and legislation and for the implementation of all laws which embodied the express wishes of the people of Malawi and promoted the principles of this Constitution. In respect of public trust and good governance the Constitution had measures which guarantee accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity and which by virtue of their effectiveness and transparency strengthened confidence in public institutions.

The Constitution (1995) mandated that the State to take all necessary measures for the realisation of the right to development. Such measures included, amongst other things, equality of opportunity, access to basic resources, education, health services, food, shelter, employment and infrastructure. With regard to local government, the Constitution (1995) prescribed that local authorities to be responsible for the representation of the people over whom they had jurisdiction, for their welfare and had responsibility for the promotion of, among others infrastructural and economic development, through the formulation and execution of local development plans, the encouragement of business enterprise and the registration of births and deaths, and participation in the delivery of essential and local service.

The Constitution (1995) further provided that adequate resources for local government are made available by the Government and, to this effect it allowed a local government authority to keep such proportion of the revenue collected by that authority as prescribed by the National Local Government Finance Committee. The Constitution (1995) made provision for the office of the Auditor General to audit and report on the public of accounts of Government for good governance including local government.

3.2.3 Local Government System

The Assembly secretariat was headed by the District Commissioner in the case of the District Assembly and Chief Executive if it was a Town, City or Municipal Assembly. The political wing comprised of Councillors who elected among themselves the head of the wing. In the case of City and Municipal assemblies, the head was known as the Mayor, while at District Assembly or Town Assembly the head was called the Chairperson. The first set of democratically elected

Councillors came into office in 2009 after the local government elections (Tambulasi, 2009: 44-90).

3.2.4 Policies and Service Delivery

In pursuance of its Constitutional commitment and obligation the Government of Malawi had introduced a number of policy measures, *inter alia,* the Vision 2020 as a blue print for policy formulation, the Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (MPRSP) and the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) was oriented towards achieving social and economic equity, although primarily focused on economic growth and development (The Malawi Public Service Charter, 2009).

Malawi was still presented with a number of economic and social challenges and difficulties in meeting the targets set by the MGDS. For instance, the literacy rate remained low at 63.9% with female literacy lagging behind at 50.5%. By 2011 the target for the literacy rate had been set to 85%. Malawi was one of the poorest countries of the world. Despite tremendous progress in adopting development-oriented legislation and policies, and improvements towards reaching policy targets, gaps remained in the delivery of basic services, especially in the rural areas of Malawi. Many of the problems of inadequate access to services provided by the country were caused by limitations of the economic resources. Nevertheless, it was important to note that the inability to translate policy into practice also to a large extent related to issues of governance and problems of prioritisation, inadequate management systems, inefficient or ineffective use of resources and problems of accountability (Malawi Public Service Charter, 2009).

It seems that Malawi's mechanisms for translating policy targets at the local governance level are weak and continues to compromise the livelihood of the majority of its citizenry. This seemed to be a situation that existed in most African countries after independence, though the difference in exact circumstances was in degrees.

3.3 REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

3.3.1 Background

The Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) led Botswana to independence in September 1966, and the leader of the BDP, Sir Seretse Khama, became the first President of the Republic of Botswana. In comparison with the history of its immediate neighbours, Botswana's road to independence was a relatively peaceful one. In part this was because the country did not attract a European settler group politically powerful enough to challenge the development of Black Nationalism. Botswana was a sparsely populated, arid, landlocked country. At independence it was also one of the poorest countries in the world. Over the past 60 years, Botswana's economy had been one of the most successful in Africa (Lewin, 2009: 145 -148).

3.3.2 Salient Constitutional Mandates

The Constitution (2012) provided for the Bill of Rights for the protection of fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual and legislative powers and subject to the provisions of this Constitution, parliament had power to make laws for the peace, order and good governance in Botswana (Botswana Constitution, 2012).

3.3.3 Local Government System

The role of local government in relation to the rest of government in Botswana served as second sphere of government and a bridge way between the rest of government and the people. One of the major roles of local government was to revitalise local productivity levels in respect of agriculture, manufacturing and the services sector.

Local government interacted with communities and the private sector through the Local Level Consultative Committees, High Level Consultative Forum, Private Public Partnerships, NGOs and traditional structures thus encouraging and promoting local procurement of goods and services as underpinned by the Local Authority Procurement and Asset Disposal Act of 2008. Botswana's local government was very strong in community mobilisation through the use of extensive machinery to mobilise the community; fostering public participation in both national

and local development plans; enhancing community resilience programme which capacitates communities to take ownership of their economic development and assisted in identification of investment opportunities in various localities. To improve its organisational effectiveness, local government engaged in process reengineering - cutting down on bureaucratic processes; timely provision of services, that is, power, water and roads; development and auditing of service standards and development of a strategy to guide implementation. To this end, Botswana was in the process of developing legislative frameworks to leverage the operations of local governments; these were: Local Economic Development (LED) policy to ensure achievement of sustainable local economies, decentralisation policy in collaboration with the local government association to provide the basis for planning, accountability and responsiveness to local development (Keaja, 2011:1-98).

The institution of chieftainship and traditional tribal administration structure was one of the four main organisations of public administration machinery and local government at decentralised local (District) level. The other three organisations operating at that level were: District Council (led by elected Councillors every five years to perform certain authority and functions such as primary education, primary health, rural roads, village water supply, community development and social welfare, etc., given by the statutes); District Commissioner, a civil servant appointed by the central government, whose primary responsibility was to serve as a coordinator of District level planning and development); and Land Board (a statutory body consisting of politically neutral members, some elected by "*Kgotla*" (i.e. board) and some appointed by the Minister periodically, held the tribal land in trust and allocate it for residential, agricultural, industrial, commercial or general development purposes. The authority exercised by the Chiefs before the creation of these Land Boards). Rural local government in Botswana was expected to operate with close co-operation, communication, and coordination among these organisations. These newly created organisations took away the exclusive authority of chiefs for allocation of tribal land. When the Land Boards were created, chiefs were *ex officio* members. They were removed from Land Boards after some years. The chiefs had constrained relationship with the land boards for some years, mainly because they lost their exclusive prestigious authority over tribal land. They have now reconciled to the changed situation (Keaja, 2011:1-98).

Local government had a long history in Botswana. While it suffered in the early post-independence era from many of the same problems local government faced elsewhere in Africa, strategic choices made by the political centre avoided the centralisation seen in most of Africa. In 1970, with central government confidence in local Councils at a low point and with a bureaucratic battle raging over the future of local government between the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning and the Ministry of Local Government and Lands, the Tordoff Commission recommended that Council staffing and finance be substantially improved. Its recommendations were adopted, and since then local government had been a major component of Botswana's political system (Wunsch, 2010:112-145).

3.3.4 Policies and Service Delivery

In terms of Constitutional imperatives and obligation some policies and strategies were introduced. For instance, Botswana Excellence-The Strategy for Economic Diversification and Sustainable Growth and the Action Plan was aimed at addressing the primary challenge of Botswana, which was to diversify the economy to ensure that the Botswana citizens continue to enjoy the fruits of sustained economic growth post depletion of minerals, especially diamonds. Minerals were a non-renewable resource and therefore the country could not depend on them. Botswana policies supported measures that were required to create an overall enabling framework for both diversification and growth, namely, creating an enabling framework; mind-set change, openness and empowerment; policy and institutional matters; national strategy for poverty reduction as well as instruments in support of diversification initiatives and projects. It was through these initiatives that poverty levels were reduced by 10% from 47% in 1997 to 37% in 2009 (The Botswana Excellence, 2009).

The implementation of the above mentioned policies and strategies were underpinned by the following economic and social indicators relevant to service delivery. By 2007 Botswana had 7,000 kilometres of paved roads, and per capita income had risen to about $6,100 ($12,000 at purchasing power parity), made Botswana an upper middle-income country comparable to Chile or Argentina. Its success was also evident in other measures of human development. The country's performance was particularly impressive compared with that of other African economies (Figure 19). Critics had argued that the social gains from this growth had been somewhat limited. In fact, in addition to the gains in health and life expectancy noted above,

there had been gains in poverty reduction and education. The proportion of poor people fell from about 50% in 1985 to 33% in 1994 and the proportion of people completing at least primary school rose from less than 2% at independence to about 35% in 1994. However, not all economic indicators were as positive. Income distribution in Botswana remained very unequal (the Gini coefficient was about 0.55 in 1994). Unemployment remained high, reflecting to a large extent rural to urban migration; however, unemployment had fallen, dropping from about 21% in the 1990s to about 17% in 2008 (Lewin, 2009:145 -148).

Figure 4.2   Average per Capita Income in Africa and Botswana, 2001–09 (purchasing power parity at current dollar prices)
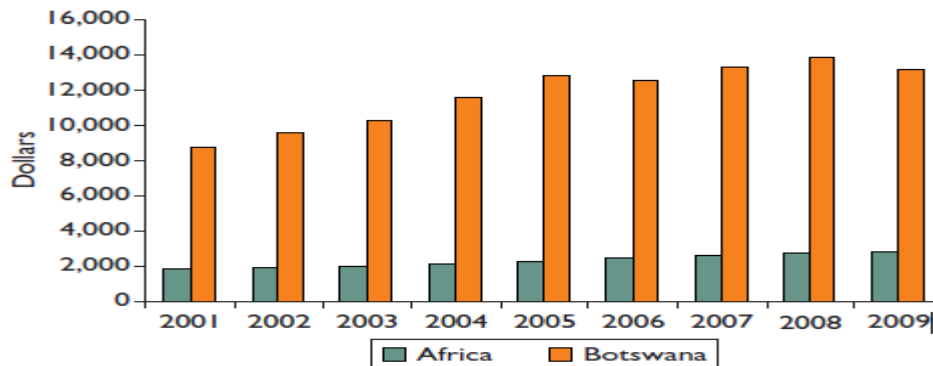
Figure 19: Average per capita income in Africa and Botswana

(Source: Lewin, 2009: 145 – 148)

One was inclined to agree with Lewin (2009: 145 -148) that Botswana seemed to be doing well in terms of its service delivery.

3.4 REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

Namibia was formally known as South West Africa and, it had a protracted history of being under the jurisdiction of different authorities, until its first democratic and internationally recognised elections took place in 1989 under the aegis of the United Nations. A seventy two member Constituent Assembly consisting of members of different political parties was

subsequently formed. The Constitution was adopted unanimously in February 1990 and it came into force on March 21, 1990, the day of Namibian independence (Namibian Institute of Democracy, 2011).

3.4.1 Salient Constitutional Mandates

The Constitution of Namibia (1990) was widely hailed as an exemplary democratic document and a noble attempt to move on from the brutality of South African apartheid rule. Among others, the Namibian Constitution provided for local authority defined and constituted by an Act of Parliament. The Constitution also mandated that Council of traditional leaders to be established in terms of an Act of Parliament in order to advise the President on the control and utilisation of communal land and on all such other matters as referred to it by the President for advice.

3.4.2 Local Government System

The Constitution of Namibia (1990) established a three-tier system of governance comprising of the central government, regional Councils and local authorities and the latter operated in terms of the Local Authorities Amendment Act, 2000. The Commonwealth Local Government Forum (2009) noted that there were four types of local government as graphically shown in Figure: 20, namely, Municipal Councils (of two types), Town Council and Village Councils.

CENTRAL GOVERMENT President Government: President, Prime Minister, other Ministers Parliament: National Assembly National Council			
REGIONAL GOVERMENT 13 x Regions Region Council Governor			
PART 1 MUNICIPALITY Municipal Council	**PART 2 MUNICIPALITY** Municipal Council	**TOWN** Town Council	**VILLAGE** Village Council

Figure 20: Local government system in Namibia
(Source: Commonwealth Local Government Forum, 2009)

3.4.3 Local Government: Powers and Responsibilities

In Namibia local authorities were responsible for the provision, operation and maintenance of a wide range of Municipal infrastructures and services. The decentralisation of key public services, such as education and health, to local authorities as planned in the decentralisation policy of Namibia had progressed slowly. The powers, duties and functions of the local authority Councils were described in the Local Authorities Act of 1992. Local authorities delivered services in urban areas, while the regional Councils were responsible for specified service delivery in rural areas. However, the framework for service delivery in Namibia was reformed. There were three separate associations operating in the field of local government, namely, the Association of Local Authorities of Namibia (ALAN), the Association of Regional Councils (ARC) and the Namibia Local Administrators' Organisation (NALAO). The objectives of the associations included the following:

(i) Protect, safeguard and enhance the image, interest and rights of the local authorities,

(ii) Act as liaison between the central and local authorities in all matters of common interest to its members and

(iii) Strive along constitutional lines for the promotion of all local authorities to the status of independent local authorities with democratically elected Councillors (The Commonwealth Local Government Forum, 2009).

Local Government and Traditional Leaders

Traditional leaders had no specific role in local governance, apart from advising the government and giving support to the policies of the local Councils. They were expected to refrain from any activity that may undermine the authority of the local Councils. Traditional leaders were involved in various types of development committees of government (Constitution of Namibia, 1990).

3.4.4 Policies and Service Delivery

The Namibian population was roughly 2 million people. Its infant mortality rate was estimated at 45 deaths/1,000 live births. The literacy level was 75% of the total population. The GDP was $11, 23 billion, GDP real growth rate: 3, 3% and GDP per capita about $5,400. Its export commodities were diamonds, copper, gold, zinc, lead, uranium; cattle, processed fish and karakul skins. The Namibian population was without sustainable access to an improved water source (Central Intelligence Agency World Fact Book, 2013:1-205).

Namibia was classified as a mixture of poor and middle-income country, richly endowed with a variety of natural resources and it was therefore rich by any standards. However, the country was still marked by an extremely uneven distribution of resources resulting in widespread poverty, hunger and destitution. It was estimated that the wealthiest 5% of Namibians control 70% of GDP, while the relatively poor control only 3%. It was further estimated that at least two-thirds of the population was absolutely poor (Kaure, 2012:101 - 105).

Namibia had to achieve its Vision 2030, if it needed to grow the economy by 10% a year. Notwithstanding, Namibia only achieved an average growth of 3.97% a year since independence and an average growth of just above 4% annually since 1995. Its medium-term framework provided for growth of around 3.8% to create jobs, help alleviate poverty and propel economic

growth. Namibia's competitiveness and incidents of mismanagement were attributed to lack of governance (! Gawaxab, 2008:1-89).

It appeared that the Namibian socio-economic and political situation seemed to be a coned replica of the South African situation especially that its ruling party Swapo has the status of being a liberation struggle movement reminiscent to the South African ANC. The Namibian challenges of poverty, inequality, unemployment and generally poor service delivery as recognised by Kaure (2012:101 - 105) and !Gawaxab (2008:1-89) were typical of the current South African service delivery trajectory. Therefore, it seemed that similarly as in South Africa, for Namibia to create jobs, help alleviate poverty, propel economic growth and improve service delivery, it needed an injection of, *inter alia*, reduction of minerals' export; promotion of beneficiation of minerals; industrialisation with emphasis on manufacturing; promotion of entrepreneurship; skills development and capacity building; attracting foreign direct investments; liberalisation of labour regime and boosting productivity; mobilising domestic savings for economic growth and improving ethics, governance and accountability (!Gawaxab, 2008:1-89).

3.5 REPUBLIC OF ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe previously known as South Rhodesia was liberated from colonial rule in 1980 led by ZANU with President Mugabe as the head of state. In 2009 Zimbabwe formed a coalition government with its opposition party, Movement for Democratic Change (MDC). Morgan Tsvangirayi the leader of the MDC became the Prime Minister and Robert Mugabe became the President. The coalition government approved the Constitution through a plebiscite in preparation for the election in 2012 (Davidow, 2013: 1-78).

3.5.1 Salient Constitutional Mandates

The Constitution prescribed that the State must adopt and implement policies and legislation to develop accountability and openness, personal integrity and financial probity in the Government at all levels and in all public institutions; that particular, measures must be taken to expose, combat and eradicate corruption and abuse of power by those who held political and other public offices; that all citizens to have access to adequate and safe housing, basic health-care services,

sufficient and safe food and potable water and, the State must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources to achieve the progressive realisation of this right; that national, provincial and local spheres of government must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution (Zimbabwe Constitution, 2012).

3.5.2 Local Government System

The local government system in Zimbabwe was predicated on a decentralised mode of governance premised on the virtues of the principle of subsidiarity. The *modus operandi* of the Local Government sector is directed by the Provincial Councils and Administration Act; the Regional Town and Country Planning Act; the Urban Council Act; the Rural District Councils Act and the Traditional Leaders Act. These Acts mandated delivery of service as well as promoted general economic and social development. In the context of decentralisation, local authorities brought communities close to the decision making process, on local development initiatives, thereby inducing the indispensable sense of ownership and hence sustainability of such development endeavours. These local communities participated in the planning, programing, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of sub-national development undertakings (Zimbabwe Constitution, 2012).

3.5.3 Policies and Service Delivery

In terms of the Local Authority Funding policy local authorities received direct funding from central government in various forms. They also received funding from the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe in order to assist in ensuring that there was continued service delivery especially on water and sewerage provision. The funding was provided by the central government in the form of long term loans and grants. Long term loans had been extended to Councils ever since independence and generally are concessionary and had generous terms, such as, low interest rates and long repayment periods. There was clearly a need for policy and law reforms and also a need to enhance accountability regimes between Councils and the relevant minister and parliament (De Visser, Steytler & Machingauta, 2010:40-98).

The Zimbabwe's public service was one of the best in sub-Saharan Africa in the early 1990s, however, it has been severely weakened by its socio-economic and political crisis engendered by Robert Mugabe's aforementioned untenable policies. Apart from staff attrition and declining budgets to implement programmes, politicisation had compromised service delivery to all citizens. Resultantly major population movements had taken place as a result of the Zimbabwe crisis. It was estimated that 2.5 million Zimbabweans had migrated. Most skilled professionals remained within the region, especially South Africa, Botswana and Namibia, though a significant number migrated to Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the USA. Most migrants were able bodied and of working age, which had caused a major human capital loss and is partly responsible for the decline in productivity and service delivery. For instance, the poverty headcount of 72% experienced in 2003 seemed to be the worst in African history. Various reform initiatives were undertaken to improving service delivery and poverty reduction. Among others, the National Economic Consultative Forum (NECF) was launched in Parliament in 1998. This think tank brought together key stakeholders from all walks of life to contribute to reforms through open and transparent discussion of policies and strategies to enhance macroeconomic stabilisation, governance, job protection and conflict resolution. This also was meant to enhance the capacity of public servants to produce high quality policies and programmes through knowledge sharing between government officials and the citizens they serve (Chimhowu, 2010:1-345).

Political uncertainty and the magnitude of corruption, though not quantified, was also leading to poor quality service delivery, lethargy and poor work ethics. One of the problems was also that the legal framework on corruption was weak, as it placed the burden of proof on the prosecution instead of requiring the accused to prove how wealth was acquired. Therefore, in the absence of a strong command centre to allocate resources and to coordinate and provide political direction to reforms, the intended outcomes and benefits of the reforms were not met, thus impacting negatively on service delivery in the whole country (De Visser, *et al*, 2010: 40-98 & Chimhowu, 2010: 1-345).

It seemed that Zimbabwe's socio-economic and political situation that impacts negatively on its service delivery currently appeared the worst amongst the Southern African countries.

3.6 REPUBLIC OF MOZAMBIQUE

3.6.1 Background

Mozambique with a population of roughly 23 million was initially a Portuguese colony when in 1975 it became an independent nation. However the new government (under Frelimo party) adopted socialist policies which left Mozambique impoverished. Worse, from 1977 Mozambique was riven by civil war. An anti-Communist organisation called Renamo fought the government for 15 years. In 1989 Frelimo had given up its socialist policies and in 1990 it published a new constitution. Then in 1992 a peace agreement was signed with Renamo. In 1994 elections were held and Mozambique recovered from the war, and was developing rapidly (www.govnet.gov.mz – accessed on 3/12/2014).

The Mozambique Constitution of 1990, among others, introduced the democratic rule of law, based on the separation and interdependence of powers and on pluralism. It laid down the structural parameters for modernisation, making a decisive contribution to the beginning of a democratic -climate that led the country to its first multiparty elections (Constitution, 1990:1-100).

3.6.2 Salient Constitutional Mandates

The Constitution (1990:1-100), among others, upheld the following:

Chapter 4, Article 262 advocated that the function of local state bodies to represent the State at local level, in the administration and development of their respective territories, and they contributed to national integration and unity. Article 263 stated that the organisation and operation of local state bodies adhered to the principles of decentralisation and de-concentration, without prejudice to unified action and the directive powers of Government. In their operation, local state bodies promoted the use of available resources, ensured the active participation of citizens and encouraged local initiative in solving problems of their communities. In their actions, local state bodies respected the attributes, powers and autonomy of local authorities, so

that it exercised its particular powers. The State ensured that it was represented in the territorial constituency of every local authority; the law established institutional mechanisms for liaison with local communities, and it delegated to local communities certain functions that were within the powers of the State.

Article 264 mandated that local state bodies, within their respective territories, and without prejudice to the autonomy of local authorities, ensured that economic, cultural and social programmes and tasks of local and national interest were implemented, in accordance with the Constitution and with the decisions of the Assembly of the Republic, the Council of Ministers, and higher ranking State offices; the organisation, functioning and powers of the local state bodies regulated by law.

3.6.3 Local Government System

The Mozambique local government system was enshrined in the Constitution (1990:1-100) as amended by Law No. 9/96. The Constitution (1990:1-100) now defined two types of local authority: Municipalities in the cities and the town and village councils in rural areas, which cover the areas of the administrators. It also enshrined local democracy, requiring assemblies to be elected by proportional representation, and the President or Mayor of a council directly elected.

According to the main legislative texts: Law No. 9/96, known as the Local Authority Law – amended the Constitution (1900: 1-100) and introduced a new local government structure and revised electoral arrangements. Law No. 2/97, known as the Municipalities Law – established Municipalities in Maputo City and the ten provincial capital cities. Law No. 10/97 – established as Municipalities the remaining 22 cities and ten towns in the districts. Law No. 11/97 – established the financial frame work for Municipalities. Law No. 9/97 – defined the roles and responsibilities of office-holders and members of the Municipality. Laws No. 4/97, 5/97 and 6/97 – specifications regarding electoral matters (www.govnet.gov.mz, accessed on 3/12/2014).

Only a portion of Mozambique had local government. There are 33 Municipalities covering Mozambique's 23 cities and ten of the 116 towns in the districts, and the Minister of State Administration was responsible for the administration of the laws overseeing local government ((www.govnet.gov.mz, accessed on 3/12/2014).

3.6.4 Policies and Service Delivery

Under Law No. 11/97 central government transferred funds to the Municipalities through the Municipal Compensation Fund to enable local government to undertake a number of statutory functions including the execution of economic, cultural and social programmes, and the execution of its action plan and the implementation of its budget. It shared many responsibilities with other spheres of government. Most Municipalities own primary schools, dispensaries and other health facilities whose staff were paid directly by the central government. In Mozambique central government retains a major role in local government (Constitution, 1990:1-100).

The problems that Mozambique's Municipalities face were often described as lack of resources and poorly defined responsibilities. Reforms during the early years of independence extended the responsibilities of local government to the entire urban population rather than just the "cement city", and added new social, economic, and political obligations. Financial resources, however, were not increased, and an exodus of trained personnel coincided with the cessation of local tax efforts and greatly increased centralisation. Unfortunately, Municipalities struggled to pay wages and are forced to operate on a fire brigade principle – acting where the urgency or the political pressure was strongest. Staffs are usually poorly paid and they often lack motivation (www.clgf.org.uk, accessed on 3/12/2014).

The above situation in Mozambique reflected on generally poor service delivery at local government sphere.

3.6.5 Decentralisation and Performance of Local Government in Mozambique

Reaud (2012: 1-242) observed that governments in weak states routinely failed to deliver services they promised to provide their citizens. In theory, decentralisation was supposed to promote accountability at the local level and hence, improve Municipal performance by encouraging public participation, building government capacity, and increasing political competition. The Reaud's study also noted that decentralisation should improve performance because it gives civil society, voters, and fee payers an opportunity to hold local officials accountable by incentivising them with political and revenue pressures (Reaud, 2012: 1-242). However, the study argued that even in cases where decentralisation has occurred, local Municipalities vary in the extent to which they were effective suppliers of services. The study

reported that the literature on decentralisation and performance suggested that participation, resources and voting were three accountability mechanisms that affect Municipal performance (Crook and Manor 1998: 1-325; Agrawal and Ribot 1999: 344 405; Cheema and Rondinelli 2007:210-335).

The study asserted that Mozambique, was a post-conflict, low-income new democracy that implemented a major decentralisation effort in 1998 and it provided a natural laboratory in which to investigate how these factors caused variation in Municipal performance. The study found that public participation was low and donor-dependent, Municipalities still relied on central government transfers and donor funding, and a single party dominated state resources, which limited political competition and accountability (Reaud (2012: 1-242).

Whereas theory predicted that these conditions would not foster accountability and incubate Municipal performance, the study found that donors, unearned income, mayoral leadership and political competition improved Municipal performance in three cases. First, donors provided resources that capacitated public participation and funded services. Second, decentralisation provided authorities with incentives for Municipalities to double revenue collections in the face of high aid and central government transfers. Third, mayoral leadership was critical in using resources and authorities to improve performance. Lastly, decentralisation provided the political opening in a *de facto* one-party state for an opposition mayor who performed well to win re-election and launch a new national party. The study asserted that even in the context of weak institutions and serious constraints, local governments were able to build revenue capacity, improve service delivery, and sustainable political independence in dominant-party states through decentralisation reforms (Reaud (2012: 1-242).

3.6.6 Impact of Decentralisation on Capacities for Service Delivery in Municipalities: Dondo, Matola, Manhiça, Nacala-Porto and Chimoio in Mozambique

A study by Machohe (2011:1-222) aimed to assess the extent to which decentralisation of powers to Municipalities is able to respond to the needs and wants of the communities they claim to represent, and considered the aim of decentralisation down to the local level was to cure the ills of centralisation of decision making, when devolving powers and competences to Municipalities,

it was important to develop local capacities for effective basic service delivery coverage (Machohe, 2011:1-222). Although the decentralisation process was still relatively in its infancy, the study found that the existing Municipal capacity to deliver services was still poor in most Municipalities studied, and this was due to, among others, the Central Government resistance to change from fear of the unknown and departure from the *status quo*. (Machohe, 2011:1-222).

3.7 THE KINGDOM OF SWAZILAND

3.7.1 Background

The country derived its name from a later king named Mswati II. KaNgwane, name for Ngwane III, is an alternative name for Swaziland the surname of whose royal house remains *Nkhosi* Dlamini. *Nkhosi* literally means king. Mswati II was the greatest of the fighting kings of Swaziland, and he greatly extended the area of the country to twice its current size. Swaziland was a protected State until Britain granted it full independence in 1968. Following the elections of 1973, the constitution of Swaziland was suspended by King Sobhuza II, who thereafter ruled the country for 83 years by decree until his death in 1982, and Mswati III, the son was crowned king of Swaziland in 1986. The 1990s saw a rise in student and labour protests pressuring the King to introduce reforms. Thus, progress toward constitutional reforms began, culminating with the introduction of the current Swaziland Constitution in 2005 (www.clgf.org.uk, accessed on 3/12/2014).

However, the Kingdom of Swaziland was a unitary state, with King Mswati III as the head of state. The king yields a considerable amount of power, appointing both the prime minister and the cabinet. The 55 members of the House of Assembly get elected by universal suffrage, whereas the senate was made of 20 members appointed by the monarch. The King also appointed senior civil servants (www.clgf.org.uk, accessed on 3/12/2014).

3.7.2 Salient Constitutional Mandates

The Constitution of the Kingdom of Swaziland Act No: 001 (2005:1-159) provided that:

- ▪ Article 281(1) Parliament within five years of the commencement of this Constitution provided for the establishment of a single country-wide system of local government

which was based on the *tinkhundla* system of government, hierarchically organised according to the volume or complexity of service rendered and integrated so as to avoid the urban/ rural dichotomy

- Article 281(2) The primary objective of the *tinkhundla* – based system of government was to bring government closer to the people so that the people at sub-national or local community level progressively take control of their own affairs and govern themselves

- Article 281(3) Local government organised and administered, as far as practicable, through democratically established regional and sub-regional councils or committees

- Article 219(1) Parliament provided for the division of Swaziland into as many local government areas as the Elections and Boundaries Commission may from time to time recommend

- Article 219 (2) In defining local government areas the Commission provided for:
  (a) Take into account existing chiefdom areas
  (b) Redraw *tinkhundla* boundaries as may be necessary
  (c) Integrate urban and rural areas where necessary
  (d) take into consideration - the population, the physical size, the geographical features, the economic resources, the existing or planned infrastructure of each area; the possibilities of facilitating the most rational management and use of the resources and infrastructure of the area, with a view to ensuring that a local government area was, or had the potential for becoming, economically sustainable;

- Article 220(1) A local government area administered by an elected or appointed, or partly elected and partly appointed council or committee as Parliament prescribe

- Article 220(2) Subject to re-election or re-appointment, the term of office of a council or committee were similar to that for members of Parliament

- Article 221(1) The primary duty of a local government authority was to ensure, in accordance with the law, the efficient management and development of the area under its jurisdiction in consultation with local traditional authority where applicable

- Article 221(3) Depending on its level of development, a local government authority determined, planned, initiated and executed policies, taking into account national policy or development plan.

3.7.3 Local Government System

In Swaziland, local government was divided into rural and urban councils, both differently structured. The urban councils were Municipalities and the rural councils were the *tinkundla*. In total there were 12 Municipalities and 55 *tinkundla*. The urban authorities, Municipalities, have substantially more autonomy than their rural counterpart, the *tinkundla*. The major responsibilities of urban councils were in the areas of housing and town planning, the environment and public sanitation (Wunsch, 2014).

Both the urban and rural local government representatives were sub-divided into three tiers. In the urban areas these were: city councils, town councils and town boards. The three tiers of local government in the rural areas were: regional administration, *tinkundla* and chiefdoms, see Figure 21 (Peltola, 2012: 55-105).

Legislation outside the framework of the constitution regulated local government. The urban local authorities were established and administered under the Urban Government Act No. 8 of 1969. The Ministers authority over local authorities was strong. The Minister responsible for urban government through a notice in the Gazette declared an area to be either a Municipality or a town (Peltola, 2012: 55-105).

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT **King** **Cabinet** **Parliament**: - House of Assembly - Senate			
REGIONAL GOVERNMENT - the country is divided into four regions - Regional council - Regional administrator			
LOCAL GOVERNMENT			
Urban areas Urban council - Municipality x 12			**Rural areas** Rural council - Tinkhundla x 55
City council	Town council	Town board	Bucopho (Board)
Wards			Chiefdoms

Figure 21: Government System in Swaziland

(Source: Peltola, 2012: 55-105)

3.7.4 Policies and Service Delivery

Under the Urban Government Act, 1996, local authorities in Swaziland have the power to undertake following urban service functions:

- Infrastructure – roads, drainage, footpaths, street lightning, water, sewage, electricity, telecommunication and transport planning
- Public facilities – bus terminals, cemeteries, sport facilities, community centres, public toilets, parks and open space
- Environmental services – solid waste, landfills, septic services and environmental control

- Regulatory/Law enforcement functions – local ordinance enforcements, licences, nuisance abatement, land use control, building control, traffic and parking regulation
- Economic Development – land development, residential.

Mkhonta (2012:1-450) asserted that in the application of the performance management framework of the 4Es – efficiency, effectiveness, economy and equity, it was found that there was a performance gap in the service rendering activities of Swaziland's Municipalities to achieve the above mentioned mandates, in that they were not properly adjusted to achieving sustainable high performance in their service rendering role. Among others, the study contended that Municipal authorities in Swaziland had not yet been oriented towards good governance, that is, none of the Municipalities in the study were found to have outstanding ratings in relation to the universally sanctioned good governance criteria of accountability and transparency, responsiveness, representativeness, participation and effective leadership (Mkhonta, 2012:1-450).

This confirmed the original presumption of the study that only limited progress had been made to construct a local government system that was oriented towards good governance in the Swaziland urban area. The study concluded that the traditional authority system was considered the most decisive socio-political factor in Swaziland due to its impact on the Swazi society in general and the public sector in particular (Mkhonta, 2012:1-450).

3.7.5 Requirement for Competent Administration in Urban Areas, Local Government in Swaziland

The focus of Mkhonta (2007:1-270) study was on service function and responsibility of the government sector. The study in Swaziland local government was driven by the view that with the rise of the new public management the public sector was failing in public service delivery.

Notwithstanding the cynicism the government sector had encountered, the study rested on the premise that government must spearhead the developmental process and serve the citizens through the various public institutions and improve performance in service delivery, and the study argued that local government could serve as the primary level of development for improving the living standards of the citizens. Hence the Swaziland Municipalities were the focal

point of the study premised on the 4E framework of efficiency, effectiveness, economy and equity (Mkhonta, 2007:1-270). It was found that Swaziland Municipalities were not properly adjusted to achieve sustained high performance in their service rendering role (Mkhonta, 2007:1-270).

3.8 OTHER FACTORS IMPACTING ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE WITHIN THE AFRICAN CONTEXT

The democracy and political governance initiative of the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), whose purpose was to contribute to strengthening the political and administrative framework of participating African countries, good governance was emphasised as a *sine qua non* for sustainable development. It was contended in much of the existing body of literature that NEPAD was anchored on the concept of good governance, which underpinned the essence of Africa's contemporary development trajectory (Maserumule, 2011: 1-644).

The issue of governance was associated with public sector performance. The concept of governance referred to the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions were implemented or not implemented. It was a process that included elements from within society that possess power and authority to influence public policy and decisions concerning public affairs. Thus governance signified the existence of stakeholders and cannot be conceived of as the preserve of government alone (Sindane, 2009:45-55).

Intellectual and organisational triangulation of policy provisions could provide the vital stimulus for leadership in the public sector which focused on the tangential hinge of governance and public policy (Kuye & Tshiyoyo, 2009:1-60). It was argued that trust, which was linked to accountability, openness, transparency and integrity, matters a lot to public governance. It could largely reduce the cost of governance and increase the benefits of citizens to good governance (Hexing, 2009:1-40; Kuye & Tshiyoyo, 2009:1-60).

In a study of factors affecting performance of staff of local authorities in Kenya, leadership was a very important factor in pursuing high performance. In all aspects of performance, leadership could be forces that could help public institutions achieve the high levels of public service delivery. On the other hand, technology just like leadership was found to be a very important

factor in all aspects of performance. Proper, adequate and appropriate technology was inevitable to success in delivering service in the public institution. The study found out that motivation was a very strategic tool of ensuring high levels of performance (Nyarangi, 2012: 1-73).

3.9 SUMMARY

The Southern African countries had generally good Constitutions and their policies are also a product of the respective ruling party's political philosophy as dictated by socio-economic phenomena. Despite the differences in nature and degree of their policies, South African government policies are conceptually on par with that of Southern Africa countries. However, the implementation and success thereof at the local government sphere was a matter of good governance and accountability as perceived by the following writers.

In most African states attempts were made to utilise local government to effect government performance and service delivery and the *modus operandi* was diverse and intricate. To this end, over the past 15 years there had been a broad policy shift in favour of local governance in many African states. However, there were serious political, contextual and institutional design issues that undermine these efforts (Olowu & Wunsch, 2010: 1-254).

It was noticed that there was a tendency to avoid rather than engage in open debate on controversial issues amongst the African Union members. This was understood as a reflection of wider Southern African political processes and traditions as opposed to the South African civil communities' rampant and sometimes violent reactions to poor service delivery. Similarly, the institutional fragmentation which had underpinned the inability of both government and civil society to develop political or operational cohesion on service delivery was a general characteristic of the current South African polity (Crush and Williams, 2008:1-206).

A reflection on the comparable service delivery trajectory of Southern African countries was undertaken in the following sub-section.

3.10 COMPARING AND CONTRASTING SOUTH AFRICAN SERVICE DELIVERY WITH THAT OF SELECTED SOUTHERN AFRICAN COUNTRIES

3.10.1 Introduction

When comparing service delivery regimes in Southern Africa, it was important to briefly review how various service delivery modalities pose different balances or trade-offs between rapid re-establishment of services on the one hand and strengthening of long-term governance on the other (Organisational Economic Co-operation and Development, 2008). The picture becomes more complex when service delivery was disaggregated into its two main components: allocation and production. A given service delivered with different modalities for these two components – for example, state or NGO allocation with contracting or co-production. Also, each model made different demands of the donor agencies, NGO or government. This analysis indicated which service delivery components may be missing or compromised as shown in Figure 22, that is, what impact to anticipate and how international donor resources or any source of revenue might be concentrated on points of vulnerability. The Figure 22 suggested factors that compromise service delivery in an African government context from grants source and/or tax collection (OECD, 2008). The use of the latter was driven by the kind of policies in place, financial frameworks, leadership/management style/political will, technical know-how of public servants, production capacity and delivery system of government. Most of African countries were faced with these challenges in governance and service delivery and their strength and weakness in this regard manifested their vulnerability (OECD, 2008: 60-90).
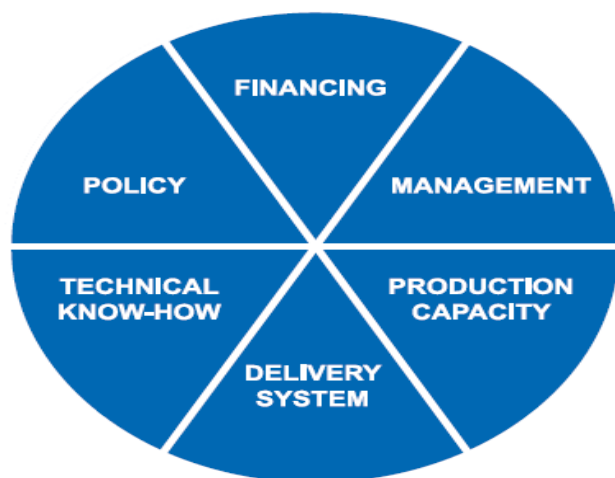
Figure 22: Service sector components subject to fragility

(Source: OECD, 2008: 60-90)

3.10.2 Comparative Service Delivery

This section compared and contrasted the service delivery situations of the selected Southern African countries with that of South Africa to highlight similarities and difference in policies' implementation.

Malawi *vis-à-vis* South Africa

Malawi had progressive and developmental policies in place such as Vision 2020, MPRSP and MGDS. However, according to the Malawi Public Service Charter (2009) Malawi was still presented with numerous economic and social challenges especially in the rural areas. The poor socio-economic development was exacerbated by Malawi's weak mechanism for translating policy targets at local government level. South Africa was also experiencing similar service delivery scenario in rural areas and some urban townships despite its improved economic situation and capital resources.

Botswana *vis-a-vis* South Africa

Comparatively, Botswana's (a country with a strong currency, that is, *Pula* than the South African Rand) local government displayed unusually high levels of performance, both in its internal management and its record of delivering services (that is, education, water, roads, social

and economic relief, and health care) throughout most of the country. In each respect, it was unusual in Africa and, indeed, for most of the developing world.

Contributing to Botswana's success were several key factors: a substantial and sustained flow of fiscal and personnel resources; a national climate which has remained open to local party politics; an open and critical media; activity by diverse voluntary and civic organisations; a stable legal environment and a sustained commitment from the centre to maintaining real local government and significant responsibilities though, limited authority, for local governments. The outcome of these factors was that local governments were able to perform many activities and functions. Though to some extent, personnel (both political and professional) were sometimes frustrated by the encumbrances which prevent them from doing more. It was noted that that the current post-apartheid political process in South Africa was weak at the local level in all respects: civil society, political parties, the legislative arena, information flows, and informed and active publics resulting in problematic service delivery as compared to that in Botswana. Table 5 graphically portrays the comparative local government situation in South Africa and Botswana (Wunsch, 2010:112-145).

TABLE 5: Botswana vis-a-vis South Africa

Country	Resource Availability	Authority	Local Political Process	Performance: Management and Operations	Performance: Service Delivery
South Africa	very strong	strong	weak	very strong	weak
Botswana	strong	moderate	moderate	moderate	strong

(Source: Wunsch, 2010: 112-145)

Namibia *vis-a-vis* South Africa

Namibia had a relatively strong economy based on minerals and agriculture and it subscribed to the MDG in terms of its goals to reduce poverty. The Namibian socio-economic situation resembled that of South Africa, namely, poverty, unemployment, inequality and general service delivery challenges as observed by (Kaure, 2012: 101-105 & !Gawaxab (2008:1-89). Briefly, on account of the latter similar challenges, Namibia was not better off in service delivery as compared with South Africa.

Zimbabwe *vis-a-vis* South Africa

Zimbabwe's public service was one of the best in sub-Saharan Africa in the 1990s. However, it was drastically destroyed by the socio-economic and political crisis caused by President Mugabe's regime. Consequently, its service delivery to its citizens was severely compromised. Zimbabwe's socio-economic situation with its worsening inflation rate was not comparable to that of any country in Africa (Chimhowu, 2010:1-345).

In summary, it seemed local governments in Southern Africa present a mixed but not discouraging picture. The variance among them can be explained by their respective environments and policy choices. At the theoretical level, South Africa could develop a viable political process. Botswana, Malawi and Namibia had comparatively the easiest challenge, gradually to enhance the authority and responsibility its localities already have. Of course, translating theory into policy was often difficult, as it involved such unknowns as political will, governance, good luck, astute leadership, accountability, and other variables. These were rare in any political system. Zimbabwe on the one hand, was facing numerous challenges, among others, its transitional governance continued to fail in ironing out political differences between the ruling party and the opposing party. Its ravaged economy will however take some time to recover. These challenges were exacerbated by the prolonged re-drafting of the Constitution before the next general election.

3.10.3 The State of Service Delivery and Possible Interventions in Southern Africa

On reviewing the state of Southern Africa's service delivery and in particular South Africa, hereunder are some observations.

The unenviable state of service delivery in most of the Southern African countries was attributed to, among others, the institutional legacy of settler colonialism as expressed through race and nation (Bratton, 2003:303-323).

Wunsch (2010:112-145) was of the opinion that the highly centralised and top-down service delivery found in most African countries was expensive, cumbersome, and inflexible and adapted slowly to new information, if at all and was prone to political abuse. This led to an underdeveloped local civil society that left local governments rudderless as they tried to develop policy and deliver services. Ramphele (2012, website blog) observed that there was no global example of success in making the transition from liberation politics to a democratic dispensation, especially where liberation movements are involved. Post - colonial Africa, including South Africa, had failed to learn this lesson. Africa continued to wrestle with the challenges of transition from post-colonial underdevelopment to claim the 21st century. The key reason for the failure to make the transition from liberation politics to democratic politics lied in the radical difference in the values of framework. Liberation movements in Africa tended to simplify socio-economic and political conflicts as simple black/white issues and no ambiguity was tolerated. It was striking how many African countries had replicated the very colonial governance systems they purported to abhor. The very fact of African countries today defining themselves as Francophone, Lusophone and Anglophone demonstrated how deeply Africa has imbibed the values, systems, languages and symbols – replete with white wigs – of their former masters.

The failure of leadership by African's elite was identified as being at the heart of the continents inability to harness its considerable resources to establish sustainable prosperity for its people. At the heart of the failure on leadership was the absence of a frame of reference for governance that was a fundamental break with colonial past. Leaders of most liberation movements derived their education and training from the very systems they later set out to oppose or even wage war against. But opposition to one system of governance does not necessarily signal a commitment to a radically different one (Mbeki, 2009:121-124).

According to Mashele (2012:1-330) heroism was blamed as one's failure to acknowledge the crippling trap that a number of post–colonial African societies had proven incapable of escaping. Heroism was defined as a way of thinking that makes a multitude of people believe that their social, political and economic fates depend on actions or benevolence of special individuals in society who possesses extraordinary abilities and powers that were beyond ordinary citizens. South Africa had not escaped this trap. It seemed South Africa fell into the most complex and binding trap of all, namely, the blessing - of former President Nelson Mandela as its hero of its struggle for liberation and, its first President of a democratic South Africa. Therefore, South Africa's ability to escape heroic politics and make the transition to a more open society and true multiparty democracy depend on its willingness of taking the risk to go beyond liberation politics.

An evaluative report of the Brooking Institution characterised poor performing or critically weak states in sub-Saharan Africa as countries that lack the essential capacity and/or will to fulfil critical government responsibilities, among others, fostering an environment conducive to sustainable and equitable economic growth; establishing and maintaining legitimate, transparent and accountable political institutions and meeting the basic needs of their population (Mashele, 2012)

In line with the concerns expressed by, among others, Bratton (2003), Wunsch (2010), Ramphele (2012), Mbeki (2009) and Mashele (2012) there was also a growing consensus that for example, transparent, accountable, effective, and equitable governance cannot be achieved by governments alone. Good governance requires strong, effective government and the active involvement of citizens and civil society organisations. Around the world, citizens and NGOs have responded to this challenge by affirming citizen rights and supporting initiatives that empower citizens to participate in and influence governance processes, beyond simply voting once every few years. Many dedicated government actors, at both local and national levels, had also proactively created space and mechanisms for citizens to participate more meaningfully in processes of public decision making that affect their lives. Participatory governance had thus

become widely recognised as a crucial element of developing political democracy (Malena, 2009: 1-358).

South Africa was downgraded in 2014 by both Standard and Poor and Moody's ratings. South African governance was also ranked unfavourably by the Mo Ibrahim Foundation (The IIAG, (2014: 1-41). The latter found that African continent's powerhouses including Egypt, Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa had shown discouraging governance performance in the past six year. This could be attributed to, *inter alia*, the practice of unethical governance and lack of accountability by politicians at all levels of government.

South African Municipal governance was at the coalface of governance and it was in a mess as identified by the latest Auditor General Report (2014). Among others, lack of skilled personnel, no proper financial controls and systems, corruption and – in some cases – sheer ignorance and ineptitude were why many of the local government structures were in crisis. Municipalities which had managed to improve their situation all had one thing in common: sound leadership. There is a perception among the political class in South Africa that local government was not prestigious or important enough to send the best and the brightest. It is a hierarchical approach which leads to the sharpest minds being handpicked to serve at provincial and national levels. A historical drawback of Municipalities was that South African spatial realities were so rooted in apartheid inequalities that it was incredibly difficult to reconstruct Municipalities into sound entities, not only in democratic terms, but also in refashioning sustainable revenue bases. This delay in settling the Municipal landscape had untenable consequences which continued to plague South Africa (Brown, 2012:18).

The Mayor of the City of Johannesburg requested the Public Protector and the City's Integrity Commissioner to investigate media allegations of tender impropriety in his family. This was in line with his belief that leadership in public office should submit to public scrutiny so they can measure up to building good governance and inspire confidence among communities that elected politicians to serve them (The New Age, 2012:8).

Tau's (The New Age, 2012:8) assertion that if all politicians in South Africa could adopt ethical and accountability approach of transparency, the citizenry will have little cause to complain about service delivery in general was indeed valid.

The Democratic Party asserted that the government cannot continue blaming everything on Apartheid anymore for its failings as a state because for almost two decades the public had been patient in the face of mediocre services. Among others, the current state of service delivery was attributed to a blurring of lines of accountability brought about by the appointment of state officials through political patronage and, who believe that they were accountable to the ruling party instead of citizens that they serve (The Times, 2013:7).

It was suggested by Minish-Majanja and Ondari-Okenwa (2009: 77-102) that e-Government had been credited for enhancing effectiveness in management and providing superior quality of basic government service delivery in the Asian countries as compared with African countries. While governments around the world had implemented a wide range of ICT applications that were considered to be essential for, and enablers of, e-Governance, many sub-Saharan Africa countries were still grappling with the issue of the digital divide. E-governance promoted transparency and efficient service delivery, and exposes the rampant inadequacies, loopholes and secrets that many governments would like to conceal. It was instructive that e-Government tools are technology-oriented, and were not available in sub-Saharan Africa. Other factors that militate against the implementation of e-Governance in the sub-Saharan region include: lack of political goodwill, bureaucracy in the civil service, absence of knowledge friendly environments, absence of initiative, and the crippling poverty and illiteracy levels in civil society. However, the logic behind e-government was the desire and need to improve the delivery of basic government services.

3.11 CONCLUSION

The above mentioned comparative synthesis of the four Southern African countries' service delivery seemed to be a microcosm of a situation that pervades the whole of Africa except for a few exceptions. As suggested by the afore mentioned scholars, most African countries, in particular South Africa can only succeed in improving their service delivery provided they start by undertaking dramatic political and economic transformation from liberation politics to democratic governance that affects the whole citizenry irrespective of its political allegiance or persuasion. To add to this, it seemed South Africa, like the Southern African countries, is affected by, *inter alia*, heroism, burdened by highly centralised and top-down service delivery, lack of the leadership, accountability, commitment and perhaps *political will* to undertake this needed paradigm shift to turn around its abysmal service delivery situation.

It seemed this could be the first step to take to a brighter and prosperous future as suggested by the theme of this study, namely that, *political will* as a variable was the cornerstone of this study with special reference to Municipal performance.

CHAPTER 4

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES OF PERFORMANCE (SERVICE DELIVERY) IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The Chapter focused on factors influencing performance (service delivery) in local government globally and summarised relevant information by identifying gaps between business plans and performance of Municipalities. The Chapter was divided into two categories, namely: (a) Performance of local government in developed countries, and (b) Performance of local government in developing countries.

4.2 PERFORMANCE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

The exploration of performance of local government in developed countries included Australia, the United States of America, New Zealand, Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom.

4.2.1 Local Government Performance in Australia

In this sub-heading the discussion on local government performance in Australia included cities in the Victorian state and Western Australia.

The Victorian local government study was a review from the following perspectives: the context within which the local government undertook its roles; the limitations or barriers that impeded achievement of these roles; how these roles benefited the community; and what proposals were introduced to enhance their implementation. Its roles were also examined within its historical, political and financial context. The study identified, *inter alia*, the following limitations for not achieving effective provision of services (Dale: 2008:1-340):

- Lack of sufficient resources

- The lack of tax distribution to local government

- State government had too much control over funding

- State and federal governments did not delegate to local government

- Greater recognition was needed of local government's role from federal and state governments

- Arguments between levels of government impact on services for the community

- Local government did not understand its capacity to change things

- State government's Land Use Planning policies forced development that the community did not want

- Local government was unable to direct resources appropriately

- Other levels of government blamed local government when things went wrong

- Local government was unable to deliver the same level of services across Municipalities

- Appropriate levels of infrastructure were not provided by State government

- State and Federal governments were not aware that services need to be different for different communities

- Local government did not speak with a unified voice.

The study recommended the following interventions for improved services by the Victorian local government: Understanding local needs; policy development; advocate for change in land use planning; adequate allocation of resources by Federal Government; continuous engagement with the community and stakeholders; prioritisation of services; accountability to the community and confirmation of the boundary between urban and green wedge areas. A final recommendation was that the local government needed to operate on a more regional basis with advocacy strategies, networking and the sharing of ideas among local government Councils (Dale, 2008:1-340).

A somewhat parallel study of local government performance in Australia dealt specifically to Western Australia. The focus, however, was whether local government in Western Australia was held accountable for its financial management, efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of service delivery to their communities. The findings were listed under six core category headings as depicted in Figure 23 (Quinlivan, 2012: 104).

Figure 23: Local government performance - Western Australian

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 104)
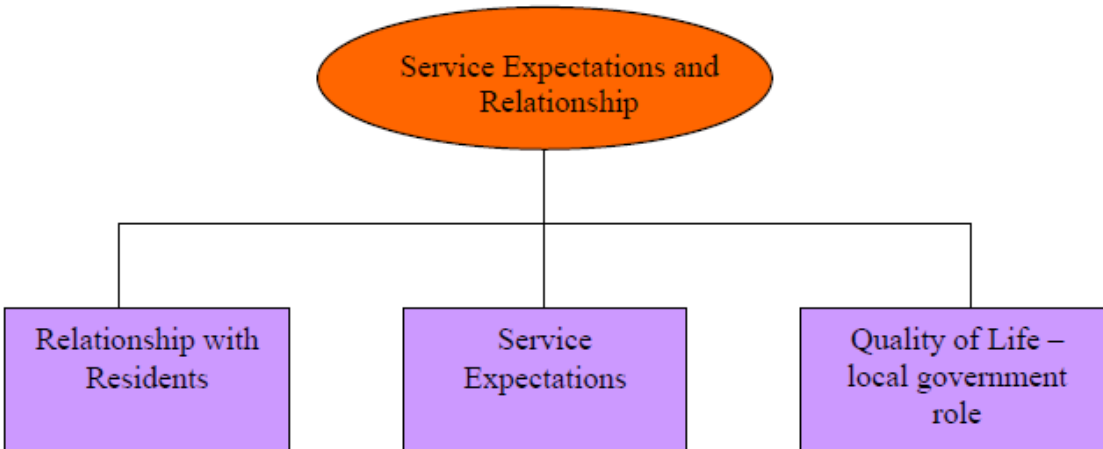
Figure 24: Service expectations and relationship

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 106)

A. Service expectations and relationship

The managers of large and medium cities in Western Australia believed that overall the local government had a good relationship with the residents and this implied satisfaction with service expectations (see Figure 24). There was a strongly held view by residents that the local government played a significant role in the overall quality of life of the residents (Quinlivan, 2012:106).
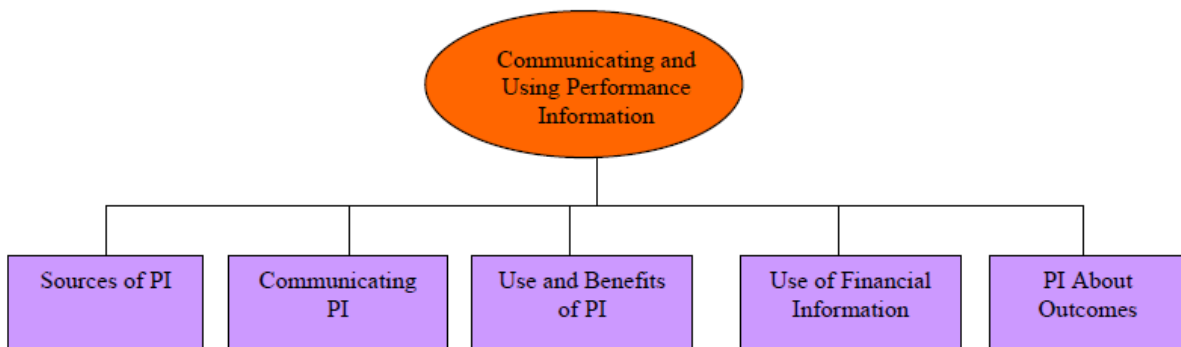
Figure 25: Communicating and using performance information

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 129)

B. Communicating and using performance information

The research indicated that there was support for local government to be the source of information on the area it was responsible for, and that local government provided information about outcomes. Strong support was also expressed to publish how finances of local government were used and not wasted. The research found that people wanted to know what services were available to them as well and that many residents used the local newspaper as a primary source of information (see Figure 25). In addition, the local government's own newsletter and website were other primary sources of information (Quinlivan, 2012: 129).
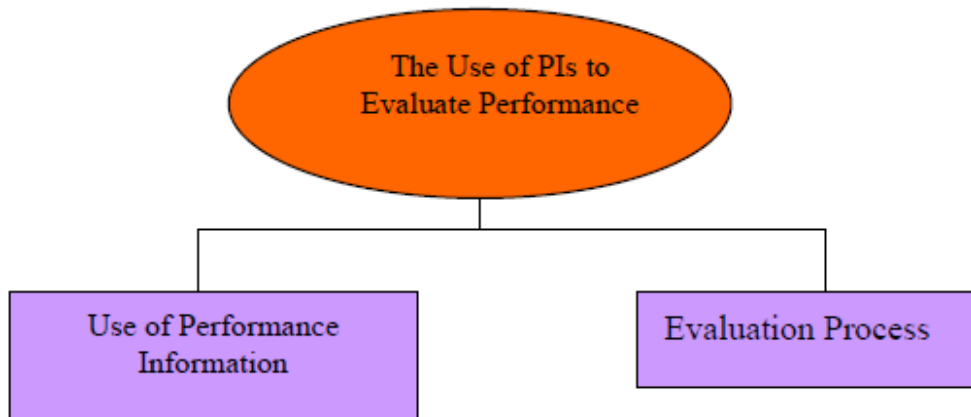
Figure 26: The use of performance information to evaluate performance

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 144)

C. The use of performance information to evaluate performance

An earlier discussion on the use of performance information by the community indicated that there was little use for it, particularly in relation to financial performance (see Figure 26). Notwithstanding, it was found that performance measures were used by residents if they had a specific interest in general performance information (Quinlivan, 2012: 144).
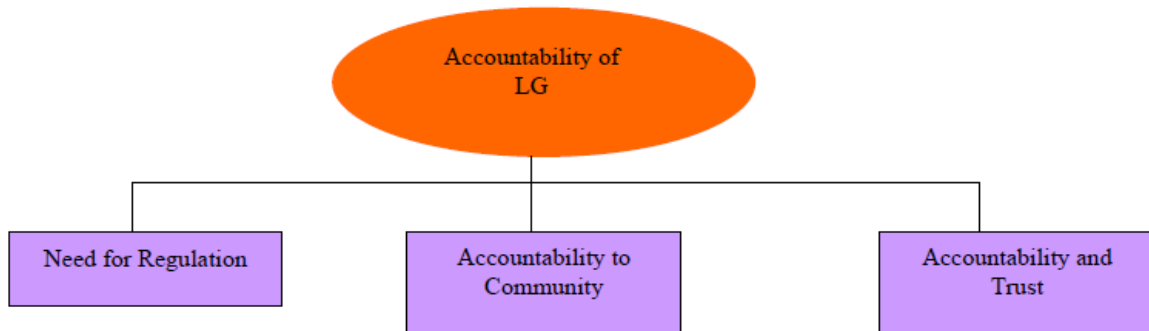
Figure 27: Accountability of local government

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 155)

D. Accountability of local government

It appeared that there was little support for more regulation of local government by the State Government. Accountability for achieving the outcomes desired by the community was a matter for the community to judge and not the State Government. Informing the community about performance assisted in maintaining the transparency and accountability of local government (see Figure 27). The difficulty in making local government accountable to the community for its performance was the low level of interest by some residents (Quinlivan, 2012: 155).
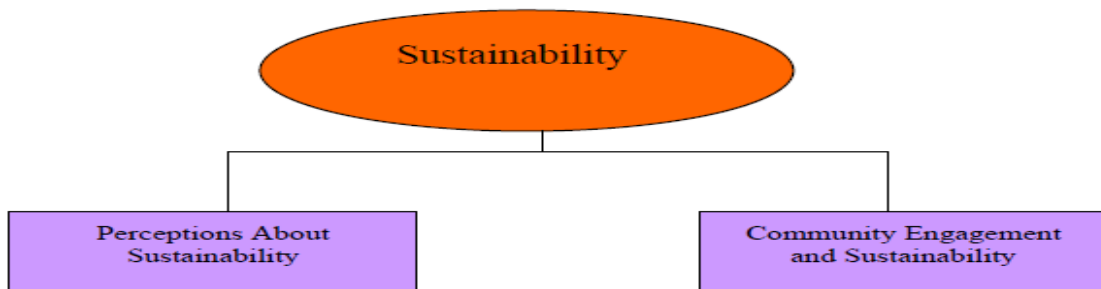
Figure 28: Sustainability

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 166)

E. Perceptions about sustainability

Participants in the study had a good understanding of the concept of sustainability with most responding that it was about making decisions for the long term in relation to social, economic and environmental dimensions of society (see figure 28). There was a strong support from the participants for the need for local government to engage with the community in actions to improve sustainability (Quinlivan, 2012:166).
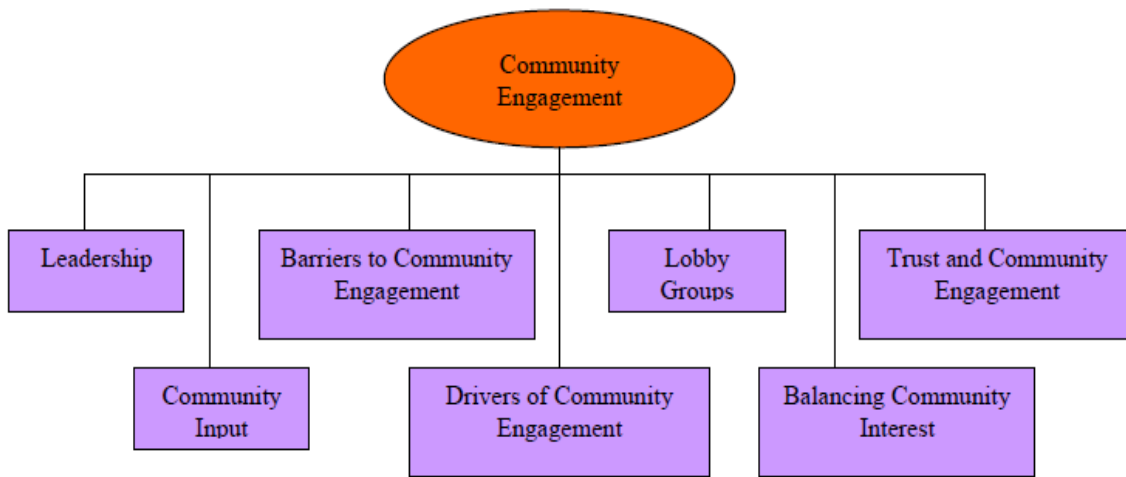
Figure 29: Community engagement

(Source: Quinlivan, 2012: 173)

F. Community engagement

Effective public consultation was also seen as a way of getting people involved in decision making. Most participants in the study suggested that apathy was the biggest hurdle to getting people involved in local government affairs (see Figure 29). Also, that people will take an interest in things that affect them on a personal level more readily than with broad community issues (Quinlivan, 2012:173).

Literature about the use of performance information in local government and how measures of its performance were used to make it accountable shows that there are many facets to it: there was the question of what local government was accountable for? How, and if it was measured? And

how that information was used in a way that provides assurance to those that it was accountable to? It raised further questions about the relationship of the local government to its community, and whether it was primarily a provider of services to a community that were consumers of that service, or if it was a partner with the community to achieve community outcomes, and, where accountability was achieved through the involvement of stakeholders (Quinlivan, 2012: 173).

A significant contribution of this study was the recognition that the relationship between a Municipality and its community was premised on trust and assurance rather than accountability, as it was found that communities' perceptions on the performance of local government build over time through the interaction of many factors. It would appear that for most communities the perception they form was not based on facts, but a general feeling that they trusted the local government, and have faith in their ability to provide an efficient service and make decisions that are mutually beneficial. In other words, this was as much a measure of the relationship the local government had with a community that served as an assessment of its performance (Quinlivan, 2012: 173).

The two studies in Australia dealt with different factors that served to improve service delivery in local government. However, despite their differences, they concurred on the following issues for the enhancement of services in local government, namely, continuous engagement with the community and stakeholders, accountability of local government to community, networking and the sharing of ideas between local government Councils, and using performance information to communicate with communities (Dale, 2008:1-340 & Quinlivan, 2012: 1-293).

4.2.2 Local Government Performance in the United States of America

A study covering 146 cities in the US found that despite the increased interest among local governments in collecting data on performance measurement, empirical evidence was still limited regarding the extent to which these data were utilized to assess the impact on efficiency of economies of scale and uncontrollable factors. Data envelopment analysis (DEA) was a linear programming method designed to estimate the relative efficiency of decision-making units. In addition to assessing relative efficiency, DEA can estimate scale efficiency and incorporate the impact of uncontrollable factors. Using data from the International City/County Association

(ICMA), the study utilized DEA to evaluate the impact of economies of scale and uncontrollable factors on the relative efficiency of Municipal service delivery in the United States. The findings indicated that uncontrollable variables such as population density, unemployment, and household income overwhelm the relative efficiency of local government. Moreover, the findings implied that the prevalence of economies of scale in city governments depend on the types of services these governments provide (Allaf, 2012: 1-111).

The research examined the relationship between citizen satisfaction and local government performance. The results generated four major findings, namely, firstly: citizens who were predisposed to supporting the local jurisdiction were more likely to rate service delivery high. Secondly: customer service was important and thirdly: those who experience government services similarly collectively reacted similarly to the service experience. Finally: the length of residency has an impact on satisfaction levels with specific services (McNamara (2012:1-151).

The results of an investigation with regard to *citizen evaluation of local government performance and service*, were the following: customer service was emphasised as important to the relationship between local governments and their citizens; customer service was identified as an integral component of service delivery and customer satisfaction.

The findings underscored the importance of customer service as an integral component to the organisational culture of local government. In other words, if local government provided successful customer service transactions, their opportunity to win back their customers was rewarded via a renewal of citizen satisfaction. In doing so, this kept citizens engaged and develop and strengthen civic participation. It was a general view that citizen evaluations of local government derive in part from their general feeling about the whole government (Elazar, 1984:1-234 & Lieske, 1994:888-891). Broader ideological considerations contributed to one's overall general feeling of local government, and such considerations included political ideology, political culture within the region, and a sense of *trust* in government (Gamson, 1968:1-453; Christensen & Laegreid, 2005:487-511). This formulation was helpful in understanding why specific city services differ within local governments throughout a region (McNamara, 2012:1-151; Gamson, 1968:1-453; Christensen & Laegreid, 2005:487-511).

It was found that citizen satisfaction and trust were positively correlated, and that there were strong linkages between *overall satisfaction* with public services at the local level and *confidence* in government. A major finding of the study related to the relationship between residential tenure and service delivery, where, for example residents who had lived in the city longer, were less likely to rate the city high on service delivery across the board (McNamara, 2012:1-151).

4.2.3 Local Government Performance in Germany

A cross-sectional study on 30 small- to medium-size Municipalities in East and West Germany found that power diffusion or political culture within governmental institutions blocked or hindered effective public policy, and thereby undermined the democratic performance of local government. Empirical analysis supported this position. It was also found that where administrative authority and legislative control was concentrated in the hands of a directly elected chief executive, performance (as reflected in citizens' satisfaction with the performance of their local government institutions) was significantly higher. Where power was diffused, and the chief executive was administratively weak and dominated by legislative actors, service delivery was problematic. In summary, institutions do matter, even in political cultures where one might expect poor performance, an appropriate institutional arrangement made a significant difference in terms of democratic performance (Cusack, 1999:1-34).

4.2.4 Local Government Performance in Spain

An investigation on the determinants of local government performance in Spain found that inefficiency was not entirely attributed to poor management only. Both *fiscal* and *political variables* – such as revenue, grants and policy of the governing party were explicably related to Municipal performance *per se* (Beleaguer-Call, Prior & Tortosa-Aussina, 2007: 425-451).

4.2.5 Local Government Performance in the United Kingdom

The concept of shared services had been heavily promoted by the United Kingdom's central government, reportedly offering a mechanism to reduce costs and improve service performance. This advocacy of shared services advanced ahead of academic research and evidence (Pike, 2012: 121 & 224). The study of thirty five local Councils in Britain aimed to assess whether

using the *model* of shared services results reduced costs and improved performance in local government. A theory-driven research framework was used to assess the impact of using this form of partnership. The dominant theoretical rationale underpinning shared services was intended to create a partnership to generate economies of scale, achieving reduced costs and improved local government performance. The model was thought to benefit from effective relationships which reduced supervision costs, and was dependent on effective implementation processes (Pike, 2012:121 & 224).

Among others, the findings of the study indicated that, firstly, in comparison with other models of service delivery, clients of shared services reported a more negative perception of performance. Secondly, it appeared that respondents in those local government authorities using shared services extensively were more likely to perceive that performance had declined. Thirdly, the study's qualitative data indicated that shared corporate services were implemented in a limited form, most often constituting a shared management arrangement, perceived to deliver cost reduction but with little evidence of performance improvement. Finally, the study's findings offered limited evidence of economies of scale, although the data provided some support for the notion that *high-trust partnership* relationships reduced supervision costs, and conversely, finding that partnership working also resulted in disruption or dysfunction which may brought the partnership to an end (Pike, 2012:121 & 224).

The latter finding of the study offered support for the notion that *high-trust partnership* relationships contributed to improved local government performance and reduced supervision costs, corroborated with the *Emerging Model of Assurance* based on *trust* and *assurance* of Quinlivan (2012: 173).

The study offered recommendations for theory, research and policy. For instance, it suggested that overall that the effectiveness of shared service partnerships was highly depended upon the form they take, the effectiveness of the implementation process and a clear understanding of the associated benefits and risks (Pike, 2012:121 & 244).

4.2.6 Local Government Performance in New Zealand

Local government was the second tier of the New Zealand government (Keerasuntonpong, 2011:1-207). Among the wide range of community services provided by New Zealand local authorities, water and sanitation services represented one of the most crucial services. A study by Keerasuntonpong (2011:1-207) specific to water and sanitation services suggested that New Zealand constituents expected to be concerned not only about the performance of these services provided by their local authorities, but also with the disclosures about that performance (Keerasuntonpong, 2011:1-207).

4.2.7 Summary

In summary, the broad Australian local government situation indicated that resident's perception of performance of local government was premised on engagement of community, trust, assurance and accountability, and it was built over time through integration of many factors, resulting in citizens having faith in their Municipalities' ability to provide efficient services and making decisions that were in the interest of communities. An important factor that contributed to building reliable relationships between state and citizens was the practice of enabling citizen engagement that strengthens citizens' voice and action.

In the USA, the literature offered empirical evidence whereby citizens' satisfaction and trust were positively correlated, and where there were strong linkages between overall satisfaction and confidence with public services at local government level.

In Germany it was found that political diffusion or political culture hindered effective public policy thereby undermining democratic performance of local government.

In the United Kingdom the research indicated that effectiveness of shared service partnership was highly contingent upon the form they take, the effectiveness of the implementation process and a clear understanding of the associated benefits and risks to communities.

4.3 PERFORMANCE (SERVICE DELIVERY) OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Performance of local government in developing countries covered the following countries, viz. India, Indonesia, Pakistan and Latin America.

4.3.1 Local Government Performance in India

A study undertaken in the state of Himachal Pradesh in India noted that decentralisation and participation increased Municipal performance or basic service delivery success. By the same token it found that a lack of political commitment, bureaucratic resistance and inadequate resources contributed to often disappointing results. It reported that a community influenced implementation in two ways: by participating in planning, decision making and executing the tasks assigned to it under different schemes, and by exerting *pressure from below* on *influencing bureaucracy to implement* (see Figure 30). The role of community, however, depended upon availability of *invited space*. Invited spaces offered one important vehicle through which development intervention supported more transformative participation and engagement of community (Pathania, 2008: 1-62).

Another identified factor that contributed to community participation and ultimate delivery of services was *political control from principals* (see Figure 30), referred to as strategic bureaucracy (Pathania, 2008: 1-62). A strategic bureaucrat had a tendency to shirk and resorted to organisational cheating (as a form of shirking) that allowed a bureaucrat to meet the demands of political principals by maximising desired outputs (see Figure 30), while at the same time engaging in behaviours inconsistent with the spirit of guidelines established by political principals. A strategic bureaucrat had the choice to manipulate the output measures strategically, and it used three options, namely, lying, cutting corners (a way to generate positive numbers to please principals) and generating biased samples - conscious selection of cases that generates the most positive result - a sophisticated way of cheating (Pathania, 2008: 1-62).

Among other factors, it was concluded that politicians have only one handicap, lack of information. Once they have information, they were capable of exercising effective control over bureaucracy. It appeared that politicians were held responsible because they had no constraints to gain information from any officer or any agency in the state. It was very well within their reach to solve the problem of under-spending and ensured proper implementation of centrally sponsored schemes (CSSs), if goal consensus was achieved between them and the bureaucracy and information asymmetry was reduced to bare minimum, if not zero (Pathania, 2008: 1-62).

Blame was often apportioned to the project implementing agencies (PIAs) for massive under-spending but the research exposed their constraints and handicaps of implementing on allocated local government projects. For instance, it was found that implementation was severely hampered by lack of institutional, organisational, task network and human capabilities, and that this was not a difficult task for local government because expertise was readily available and the state had funds for it. According to Pathania (2008:1-62) there were massive funds available under CSSs. However, it was observed that all this was possible but the only requirement to make it possible was strong *political will*. In other words, *Himachal will* in India as noted by Pathania (2008:1-62).

The research alluded to a lack of strong *political will* at CSSs as one important factor that hampered service delivery in addition to others.
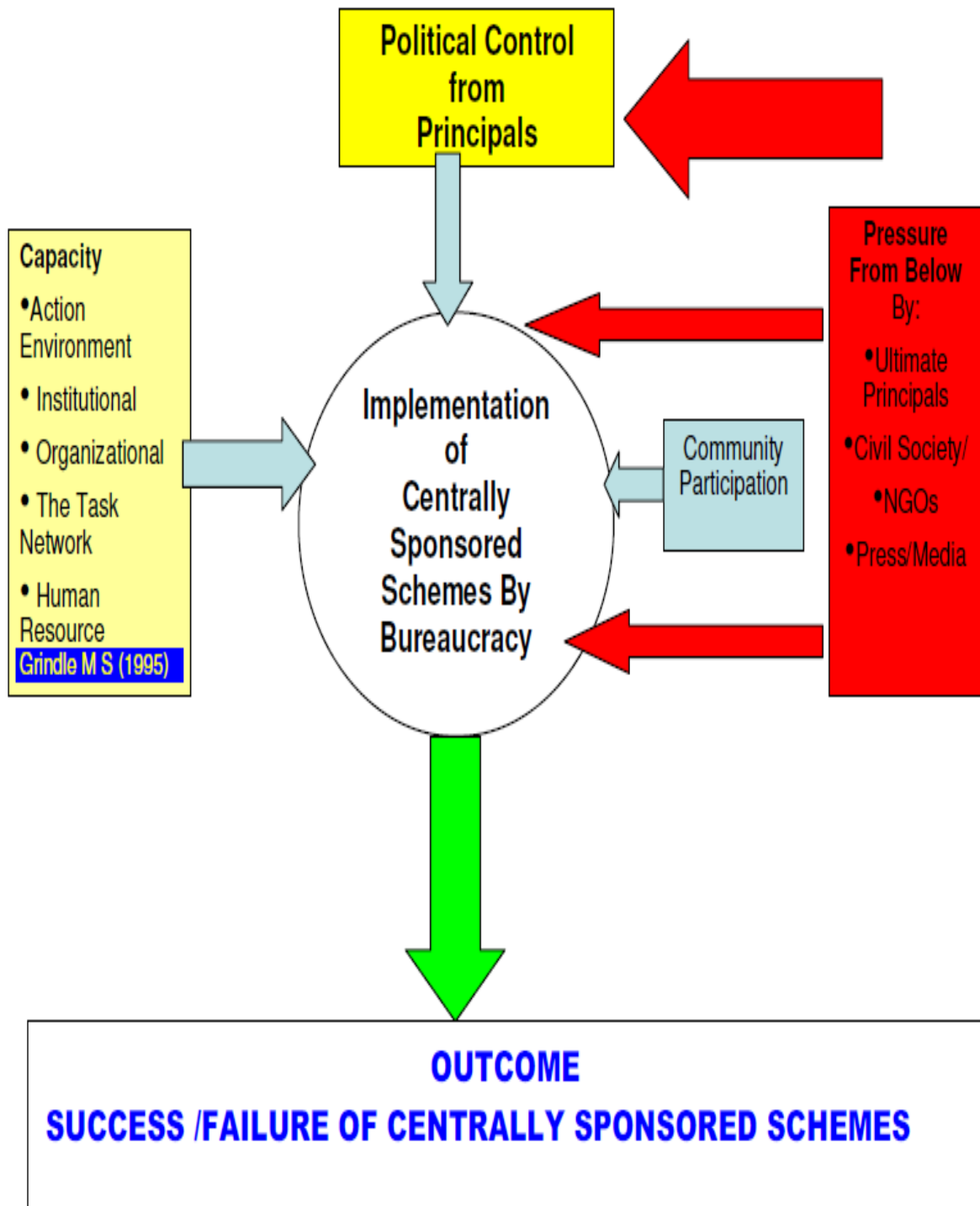
Figure 30: Analytical framework

(Source: Pathania, 2008: 1-62)

Another study in India indicated that policy on e-government suggested that the government expects information communication technology (ICT) usage to promote better service provision and facilitate democratic outreach between government and citizens. To this end, it was stated that the debate on the scope and meaning of e-government had a wide range and, it had been defined as the delivery of information and services online via the Internet. Further, it was argued that a comprehensive understanding of e-government included employing information technologies to cut costs and improve efficiency of government processes. The latter was labelled as e-Administration, e-Citizens and e-Services and e-Society (Heeks, 2012:111-250).

The study examined the impact of ICTs on the civic lives of people in Bangalore City, the information capital of India. It analysed the e-government efforts of the local government in Bangalore City; studied the efforts of citizen's group to facilitate participatory democracy among Bangaloreans; and what e-government meant in the context of Bangalore City. The results of the study suggested that the democratic potential of the Internet had been marginalised and efficiency concerns drive reliance on digital government in a top down process, with citizens' demands not being considered an important factor. The focus had been on the 'e' rather than on basic governance that reaches the average citizen (Raman, 2006:155).

To understand how information technology might help citizen participation in governance, the study also analysed Public Record of Operations and Finance (PROOF: see Figure 31). This initiative was an example of how computerisation of information management in local administration helped Bangaloreans engage with their local government. The strategies through which citizens of Bangalore were able to participate more in local government and the role ICTs had played in those strategies was examined through the related Ward Works initiative (see Figure 31). Ward Works was an initiative that allows citizens to participate in prioritising, monitoring and evaluating works undertaken by the local government in their wards. The successful PROOF and Ward Works' initiatives were a case of IT interacting with the structure and process of local government in tandem with civic action (Raman, 2006:155).

Other findings of the study were: while the *state government* (i.e. central government) had discouraged decentralisation and sharing of power in practice, citizens groups were able to take advantage of a simple computerisation process within local government to gain more space for participation in governance; PROOF and Ward Works were successful because considerable energy was spent in mobilising existing neighbourhood organisations and resident welfare associations to generate resources locally. These initiatives indicated that community leaders who identified and engaged efficient government administrators were catalysts to reform. Local government officials were intricately embedded in local social relations and responded to community pressure if it was backed by political leaders at a higher level (Raman, 2006:155).
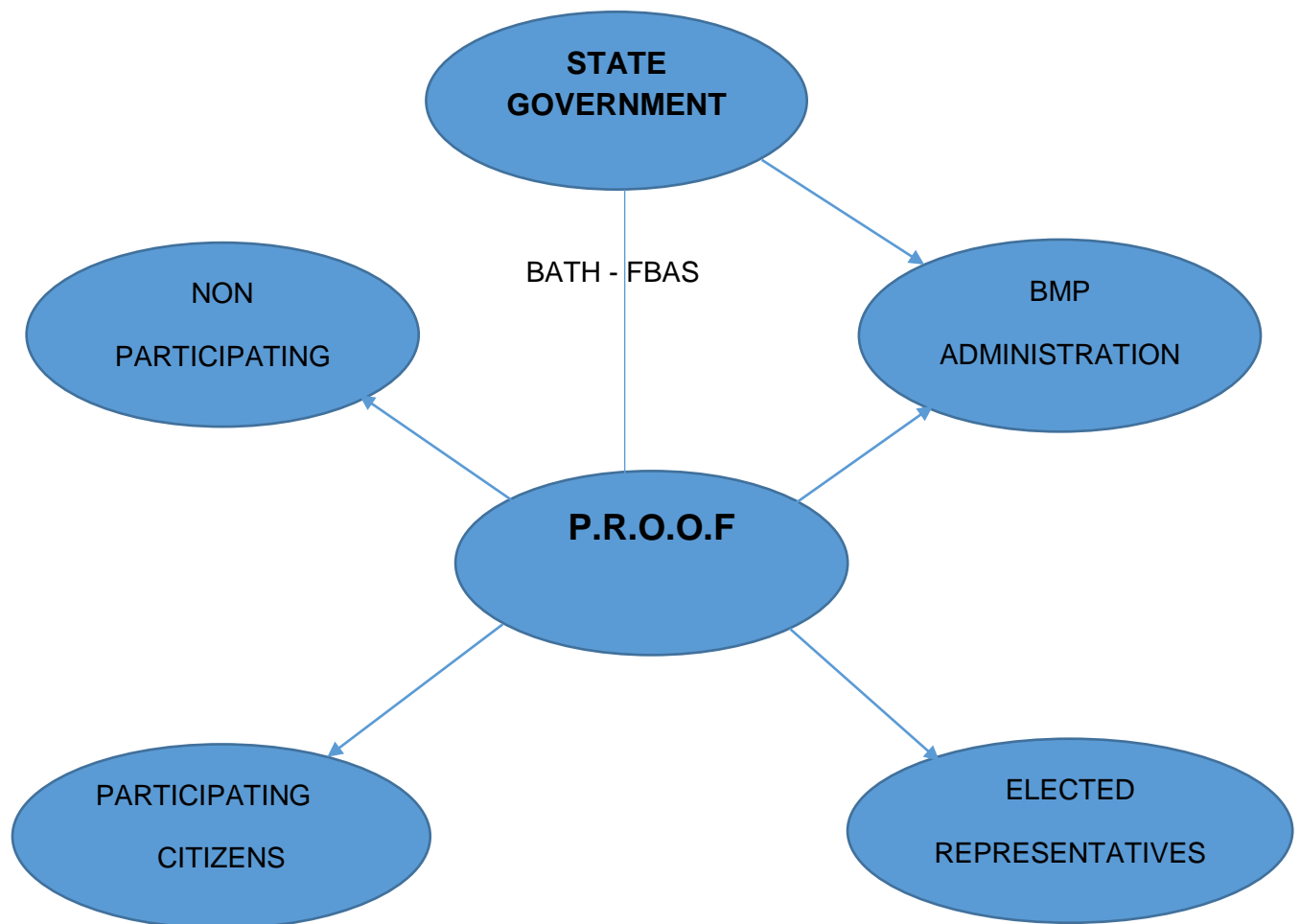
Figure 31: PROOF - stakeholders

(Source: Raman, 2006:155)

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The survey on the role of ICTs in citizens' civic and political engagement in Bangalore City noted that IT was a factor that facilitates transparency and allows administrators to be accountable if they choose to share information with the citizens, and that IT was still not the key factor that encourages citizen participation in governance. However, IT altered information flows that were used by citizens to participate in governance (Raman, 2006:155).

All of the Indian studies concurred that citizens influence the performance drive in local government, namely, by exerting pressure from below in influencing bureaucracy to implement policy (Pathania, 2008: 1-62). PROOF allowed citizens to engage with their local government about performance from their local government which they examined and asked questions and suggested alternatives for improvement (Raman, 2006:155). Other factors that impelled local government performance were the following: community participation and ultimate delivery of services was driven by political control from principals; whereas lack of strong political will at CSSs was one important factor that hampers service delivery, in addition to others (Pathania, 2008: 1-62). It was argued that e-government included employing information technologies to cut costs and improve efficiency of government processes. The latter was labelled as e-Administration, e-Citizens, e-Society and e-Services (Heeks, 2012:111-250).

4.3.2 Local Government Performance in Indonesia

A study on the capacity of local government agencies in Makassar, Indonesia to provide services to the public indicated that the institutional capacity of local government agencies varies and overall it was found to be relatively low or unsatisfactory. Only one agency out of the four studied was able to deliver quality higher services than the level expected by the clients, suggesting that the degree of accountability of the local government agencies was relatively weak. In other words, the degree of accountability did not have a significant impact on the agencies' performance. A more effective strategy to develop the capacity of government agencies was to enhance organisational structure; management practices; the management of human resources in public organisations and Municipalities; and to introduce competition into the delivery of public services was recommended by the study (Imbaruddin, 2003:1-335).

In another Indonesian study that focused on investigating public sector efficiency (PSE), that is, performance of decentralised local governments, improved efficiency was considered as the main outcome expected from a decentralised system of public service provision (Kurnia, 2012:1-71). Hence analysing public sector efficiency provided the *de facto* measure of the ability of decentralised local government in internalising the benefits of fiscal and political decentralisation (Kurnia, 2012:1-71).

Figure 32 illustrated the flow of the accountability relationship in the provision of public goods and services which translated into public sector efficiency (PSE) and/or optimal performance at local government level. The figure provided a micro-foundation of contractual transactions in order to pursue collective objectives and public resources mobilisation to meet the objectives of citizens. The accountability relationship between citizens and politicians was linked through voice and, voice is a point of departure on the flow accountability relationship (Kurnia, 2012:1-71).

It was stated that the quality of institutional governance and its impact on PSE was represented by a corruption perception index and an infrastructure perception index, and that estimation results reveal evidence that public sector efficiency is positively associated with the infrastructure perception index, but failed to find evidence of an effect for the corruption perception index. The study indicated that the outcome of decentralisation was not supportive of the perception about corruption as it was prevalent in decentralised Indonesia. It appeared that this occurred in almost at all levels of government and institutions.   Decentralisation results in improved efficiency was not due to a decrease in corruption but rather due to variations in the level of infrastructure (Kurnia, 2012:71).

The two Indonesian studies highlighted different factors that impacted on local government performance, namely, that a more effective strategy to develop the capacity of government agencies was to enhance organisational management practices, the management of human resources in public organisations and Municipalities, and to introduce competition into the delivery of public services (Imbaruddin, 2003:1-335). It was asserted that the accountability relationship between citizens and politicians was linked through voice, and voice is a point of departure on the flow (Kurnia, 2012:71).
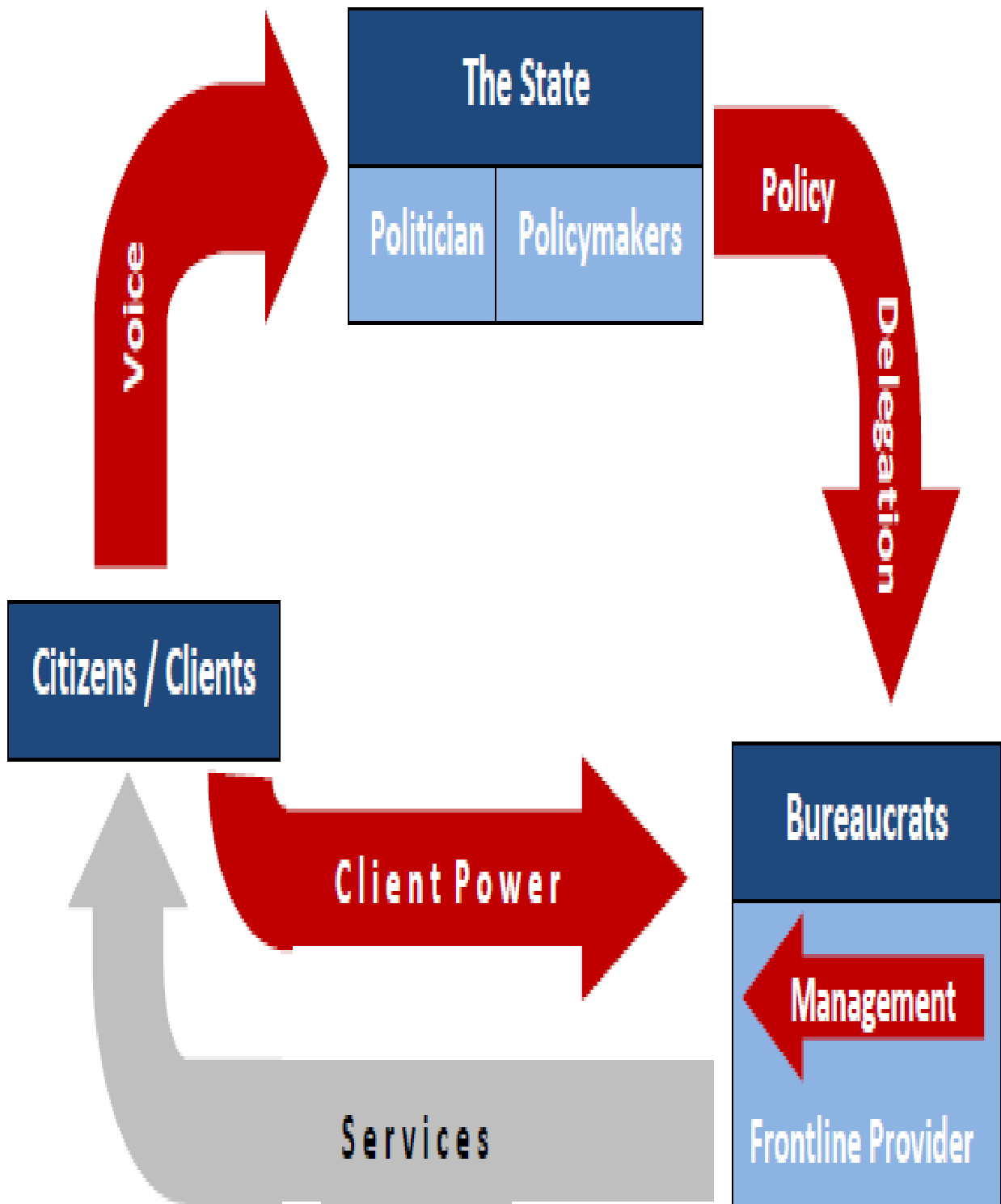
Figure 32: Accountability relationship in the provision of public services

(Source: Kurnia, 2012:1-71)

4.3.3 Local Government Performance in Pakistan

The key aim of this study was to empirically evaluate the relationship between decentralisation and institutional performance of local government in Pakistan. It was argued that public sector organisations could not be separated from their political environment. To address this concern, the research developed a conceptual framework based on three theoretical aspects, namely, the economic, political and new public management. Each aspect focused on a different level of analysis and identified a different way of explaining the phenomenon of decentralisation, and its impact on institutional performance. A comprehensive research methodology was utilised to establish a link between decentralisation and performance through a multiple case study approach. The main empirical elements of the research included a community survey comprising two communities in two local authorities; and an organisational survey of two sectors - education and water and sanitation (Farooqi, 2013:1-612).

The findings of the study indicated that decentralisation reforms in developing countries remain focused on structural decentralisation and needed strong political and bureaucratic commitment for real autonomy to be transferred down the hierarchy. However, the contextual environment played a significant role in affecting the performance of service provision. An outcome of this research was that a comprehensive assessment of the decentralised service delivery model in Pakistan was developed (Farooqi, 2013: 1-612).

The empirical findings of the study indicated that decentralisation reforms in developing countries remain focused on structural decentralisation and needed strong political and bureaucratic commitment for real autonomy to be transferred down the hierarchy. One implication of this study was that it provided a comprehensive assessment of the decentralised service delivery model in Pakistan and identified the nature of reforms developing countries were taking up and the constraints on public sector organizations, and hence contributed to the emerging literature on public management reforms in developing countries (McCourt & Martin, 2008: 1-218). It was asserted that a political, fiscal and managerial analysis of local government provide a plausible explanation of the relationship between decentralisation and institutional performance of local government in Pakistan A brief overview of the analysis is presented in Figure 33 (Farooqi, 2013:131).
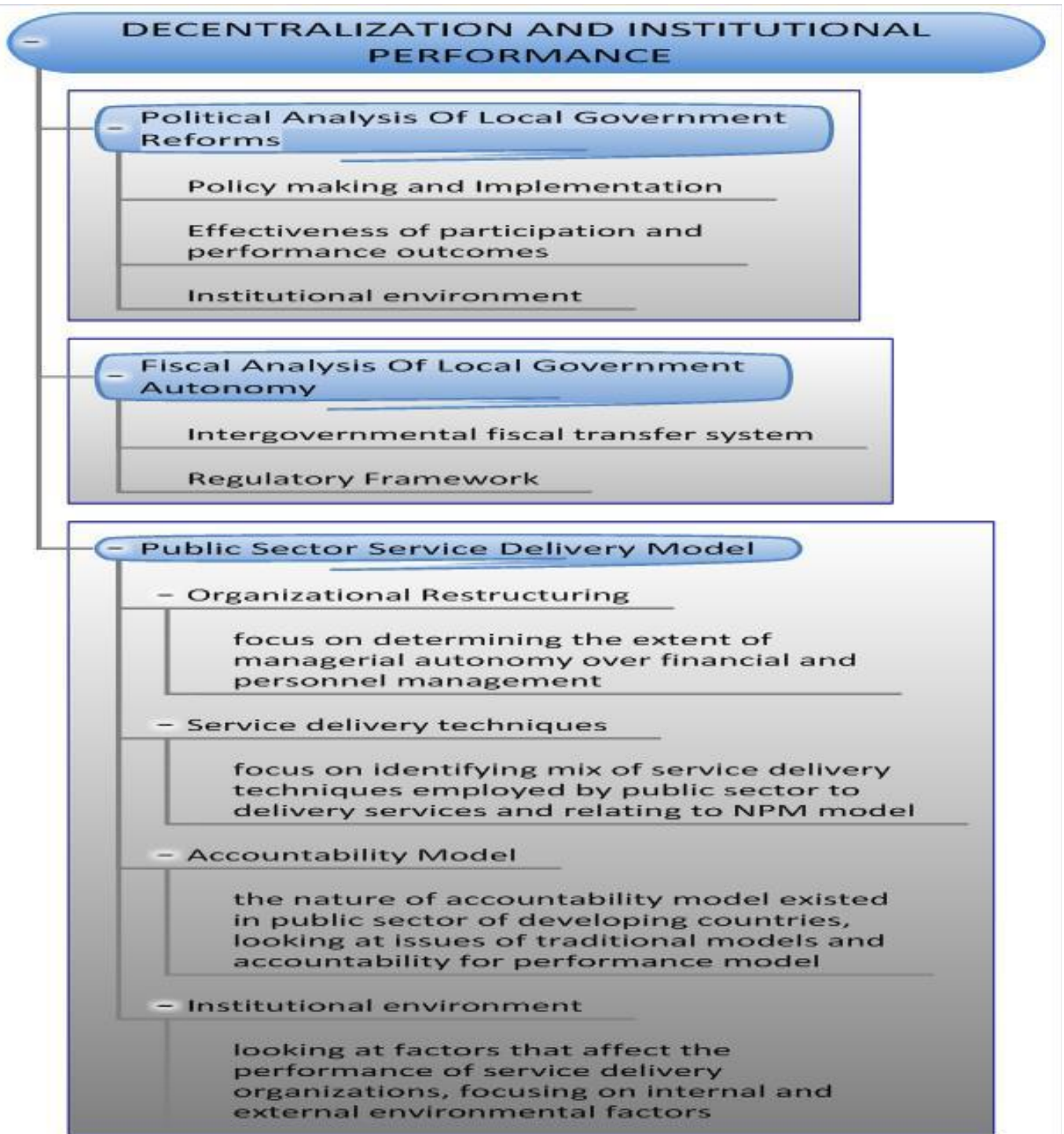
Figure 33: Decentralisation and institutional performance in Pakistan

(Source: Farooqi, 2013:131)

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4.3.4 Local Government Performance in Latin America

According to Montalvo (2009:1-6), if local institutions were unable to satisfy citizens' demands, citizens would not only express their discontent with local governments, but they could also be increasingly dissatisfied with the way democracy works in the entire nation. In a survey by the Latin American Public Opinion Project (LAPOP) in 23 nations as captured in Figure 34 (although the USA is included, it was not considered in the discussion, given that it was a developed country), the average satisfaction with Municipal services in the region was 50.13 out of 100 possible points. The statistics shows some differentiation among countries. At one end, the citizens of Brazil, Dominican Republic and Ecuador showed the highest degree of satisfaction with Municipal services, with levels of 58.2, 56.9 and 52.3 points, respectively. At the other end, the citizens of Belize, Haiti and Jamaica showed the lowest degree of satisfaction, with levels of 39.6, 39.5 and 37.0 points, respectively (Montalvo, 2009:1-6).

From this study it was inferred that politicians could use the citizens' local government satisfaction index as a litmus test of how a country is governed.
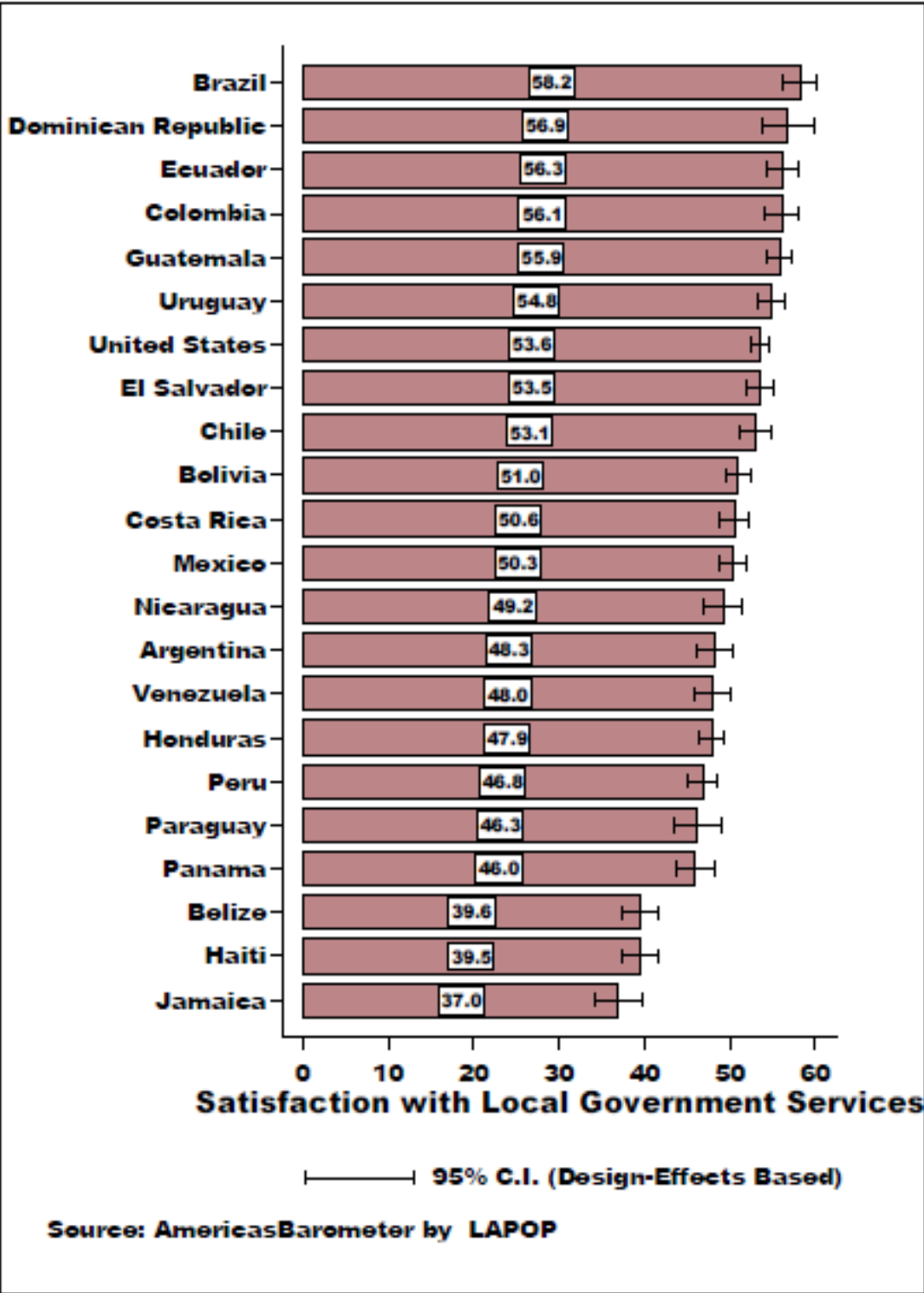
Figure 34: Average satisfaction with Municipal services in the Americas

(Source: Montalvo, 2009: 5)

It was suggested that to explain variation across Latin American countries, the survey considered socio-economic and demographic characteristics to be included in the Americas-Barometer survey, namely, education, gender, age, geographic zone, and wealth (Figure 35). Holding constant all other variables, it was found that richer individuals in Latin America showed a higher satisfaction with Municipal services. Additionally, people living in urban areas, as opposed to people living in rural areas, showed greater satisfaction with local government services. Finally, in holding everything else constant, women were slightly more satisfied with local government services than men (Montalvo, 2009:1-6). It was inferred that satisfaction with local government services by richer individuals and people living in urban areas was informed by their socio-economic status and/or their advancement in terms of the Maslow needs satisfaction. Whereas women's (especially house wives) slight satisfaction with local government services could, among others, be ascribed to their easy access to local government information or reasons for failed services and subsequently being sympathetic thereof.

R-Squared ∎0.067
F∎29.068
N ∎31832
Country Fixed Effects and Intercept Included
but not Shown Here

95% C.I. (Design-Effects Based)

Source: AmericasBarometer by LAPOP
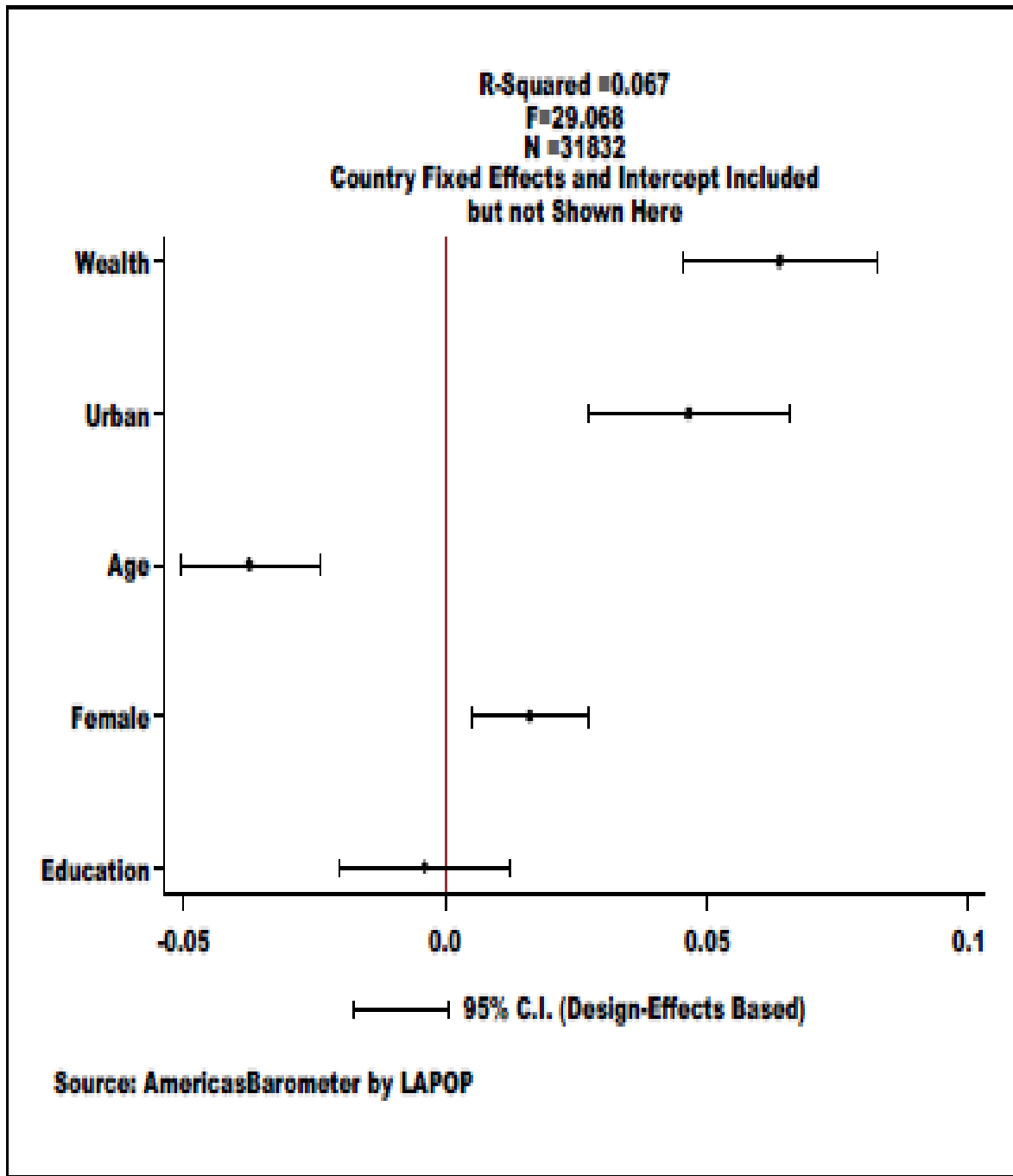
Figure 35: Socio-economic and demographic determinants of citizen satisfaction with Municipal services in Latin America

(Source: Montalvo, 2009:1-6)

The investigation also explored the relationship between sex, geographical area and wealth on the one hand, and citizen satisfaction with Municipal performance on the other hand as exhibited in Figure 36 (Montalvo, 2009:1-6).
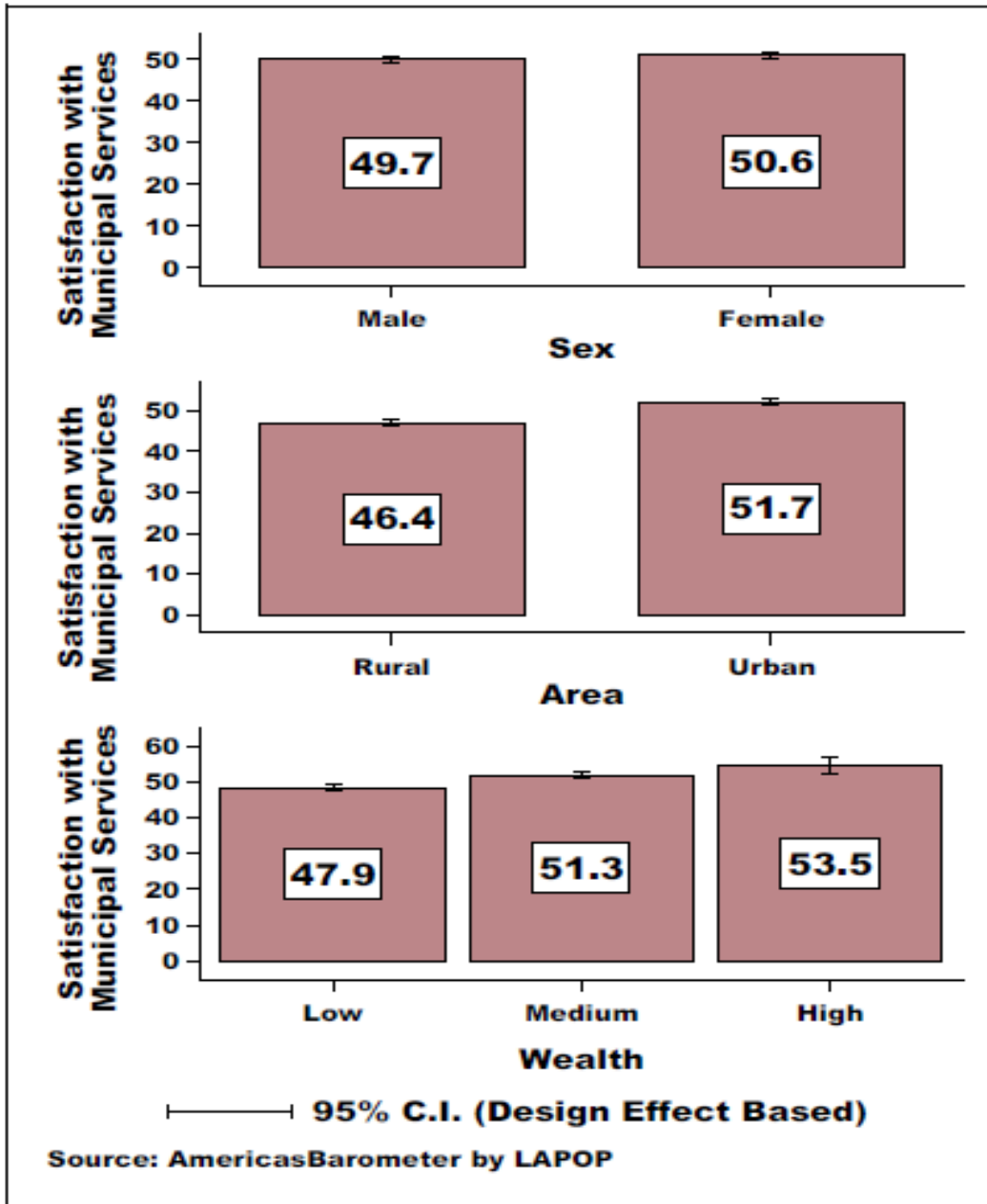
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Figure 36: Age, education, sex, gender throughout area size, wealth and satisfaction with Municipal services in Latin America and the Caribbean

(Source: Montalvo, 2009:5)

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According to Montalvo (2009:1-6) the impact of socio-economic and demographic variables on citizen satisfaction with local government services was found to be statistically significant and substantively robust, as shown in both Figures 35 and 36. Overall the survey indicated that the assessments of personal and national economic situation were positively related to satisfaction with local government performance or services. Further, as citizens perceived that their personal economic situation improved, their satisfaction with the services provided by the local government increased as well. Accordingly, holding all other factors constant, individuals who evaluate the national economic situation more positively are more satisfied with local government services. (Montalvo, 2009:1-6).

In addition to the Americas studies, a study on Mexican Municipalities indicated that *capacity building initiatives* were undertaken by local officials who represented a range of political parties to contribute to Municipal performance. It was clear that, although not necessarily partisan, capacity building initiatives were political in the sense that they responded to the preferences of political leaders; were dependent on electoral cycles for their timing, rationale and implementation; and they were facilitated and constrained by political rules of the game about the scope of action available to Municipal leaders (Grindle, 2006:55-69).

The Latin American perspectives on local government performance referred to varied influential factors, namely, that if local institutions were unable to satisfy citizens' demands, citizens will not only express their discontent with local government service delivery, but they can also be increasingly dissatisfied with the way democracy works in the entire nation. Holding constant all other variables, it was found that richer individuals in Latin America showed a higher satisfaction with Municipal services. Additionally, people living in urban areas, as opposed to people living in rural areas, manifested greater satisfaction with local government services.

It was inferred that findings in Latin Americas are somewhat relatively similar to the South African situation. Using protests as a symptom of dissatisfaction with local government in South Africa, namely, in the Gauteng and North West provinces, they were mostly from the so-called squatter camp areas outside towns and cities. These were the areas with little or no basic local government infrastructures and services.

4.3.5 Summary

The research on local government in India revealed that there was a high degree of public dissatisfaction towards the delivery and quality of the services provided through the Municipal system, and that very little attention was given to this issue for improving the condition. It was also highlighted the dilapidated state of management of the Municipalities and the near total collapse of Municipal capacity that steered many policy makers and managers to propose improvements. To this end, the Assignment Model of Municipal Enterprise and System (AMMES model) that served as a panacea to the Indian Municipal services challenges was developed. The AMMES model could be universally applicable to all public services by making appropriate variations in the details of the service and other terms of reference. Further, studies suggested that politicians are held responsible for service delivery; that it was very well within their reach to solve the problem of under-spending and ensure proper implementation of centrally sponsored schemes (CSSs). However, it was observed that all this was possible but the only requirement to make it possible was strong political will. Another Indian study suggests that policy on e-government made it clear that the government expects information communication technology (ICT) usage to promote better service provision and facilitate democratic outreach between government and citizens supported by the employment of the Public Record of Operations and Finance (PROOF) and Ward Works.

The Indonesian studies showed that a more effective strategy to develop the capacity of government agencies was to enhance organisational structure management practices, the management of human resources in public organisations and Municipalities and to introduce competition into the delivery of public services. It was asserted that the accountability relationship between citizens and politicians was linked through voice, and voice is a point of departure in the provision of public goods and services which translate into public sector efficiency (PSE) and/or optimal performance at local government level.

In Pakistan studies asserted that political, fiscal and managerial analysis of local government provided a plausible explanation of the relationship between decentralisation and institutional performance. However the contextual environment played a significant role in affecting the performance of service provision.

Studies in local government performance in Latin America suggested that the impact of socio-economic and demographic variables on citizen satisfaction with Municipal services were statistically significant and substantively robust, as shown in both Figures 34 and 35. Overall the survey indicated that the assessments of personal and the national economic situation were positively related to satisfaction with Municipal performance or services. Further, it was clear that as citizens perceived that their personal economic situation improved, their satisfaction with the services provided by the local government increased as well.

Similarly, as in developed countries, satisfaction with service delivery in developing countries was contingent on the effective performance of their local government.

4.4 OTHER FACTORS IMPACTING ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE IN A GLOBAL CONTEXT

The influence of *political and socioeconomic factors* on Municipalities' fiscal situations was an issue that needs to be considered. It was clear that economic factors were not enough to explain public-sector financial performance, but that the political framework also played a significant role. According to Bastilda, Benito and Guillanmon (2009:484-499) there was no observable impact of political ideology of the governing parties on local government spending or tax levels, in other words, the impact of over spending and taxes came from political strength and not from the political ideology of the ruling party (Bastilda, Benito & Guillanmon, 2009:484-499).

Abraham (2012: 51-65) suggested that there was a need for inducting the private sector in the management of Municipal systems, and also a need to induct specialised private entities in providing services to Municipalities. It was not enough to bring in any private sector entity for providing services on a tendering basis. The private entity should be specialised to provide services to be sensitive to the needs of a public system. Further it was suggested that this was necessary to identify, train, and nurture such private entities for long term sustainable involvement in service delivery (Abraham, 2012: 51-65). The above mentioned situation was what obtained mostly in developed countries globally.

In developing countries, it seemed that most Municipalities did not have, *inter alia*, adequate technically skilled personnel in their service delivery sections or departments as well as strong and good *governance structures*. As a result they were forced to outsource or tender most of their delivery projects to service providers. Some, if not most of the latter, failed in their contracts, thus reflecting negatively on Municipal performance (Abraham, 2012: 51-65).

Experiences from a number of developed and developing countries had shown that *e-governance* initiatives can promote greater transparency with the goal of cutting corruption. *E-governance* was another key enabler for new policies and business processes transformation aimed at providing better and more efficient public services. E-governance had the most immediate applications where services are highly clerical and transactional oriented (Naz, Rahman, Agarwal & Smith, 2006: 1-103).

According to Majanja and Okenwa (2009:17–35) *e-governance*, among others, enhanced government basic service delivery and performance effectiveness. However, it was noted that e-governance by no means provided the only ultimate solution. Designing and implementing e-governance was a challenge in itself. *E-governance* should not be seen narrowly as a technology issue and isolated from the main thrust of governance and national policy reform (Majanja & Okenwa, 2009:17–35).

An investigation on *online performance reporting* that was *e-governance* in Municipalities in the USA highlighted that providing performance reports online was still dismal. Only 29% of local governments provided city-wide performance data online. The results may be viewed as an indication that online performance reporting was a unique feature of local governments, and it was a phenomenon deeply rooted within the culture of governments whose aim was to be accountable, responsive and transparent to the public they serve. The process of doing this was outlined in Figure 37 (Furge, 2011: 1-280). The emphasis is on the significance of good governance including e-governance in the public sector for improved service delivery. Therefore, the absence of the usage of e-governance in developed and developing countries could be linked to their poor local government performance.

5th Stage of E-Governance Performance Improvement

Citizen-Informed Decision Making

2. What are the driving factors considered when your municipal government decides to report performance online?
5. What impact does the reporting of performance measurement information online have on decision making?
7. How do you determine whether the information reported online meets the needs of citizens?

Citizen Engagement

21. Are citizens included in deciding what information is reported online?
22. At what point of the process are they included?
23. How are they informed in order to provide input?
24. How do they know their input will be included in the final product?

Online Performance Reporting
(Cities that report performance online)

Figure 37: E-Governance to performance improvement

(Source: Furge, 2011: 1-280)

Studies in Italy on applying *system dynamics* to foster organisational change, accountability, and to support effective decision making in the public sector, identified a number of challenges which are contingent, not only because of the specific complexity of the public sector itself, but also as a consequence of specific issues that were found on a territorial base. In other words, the role of *system dynamics* supported the management of public sector organisation to promptly recover efficiency, improve outcomes and performance at the same time (System Research & Behavioural Science, 2010: 395-420).

According to Jean-Paul Faguet (2000: 127-176) the central government was instrumental in any *decentralisation programme*. The rationale was that in a decentralisation programme the power of the central government would extend to local government even in a highly centralised situation. The behaviour of central government would do much to define the context in which local government operates and possibilities that are open to it. A significant degree of local autonomy was crucial if local democratic incentives and controls are to have any meaning, and to increase local government effectiveness, distributive equity and service delivery.

It seemed that there was a medium positive relationship between *new ways of working* and local government performance. This means that the hypothesis that new ways of working increases performance was valid and that it was mainly the flexibility in work that increases the performance. If employees are afforded flexibility in forms of autonomy, for example, teleworking, they could become more committed to their organisation (Pierik (2011:1-101) where they feel more responsible for the organisational performance (Sanchez, Perez, Carnicer & Velajimenez, 2007: 42-64).

Among others, Okafor (2009: 1-65) asserted that lack of *political will* was responsible for poor implementation in the public sector. Despite the impressive successes and significant impacts of participatory governance experiences, lack of *political will* in participatory governance remains a stumbling block. Although participatory governance practices offer important concrete benefits, citizen participation in governance processes are frequently faced with *political won't*.

A lack of political will was, however, marginally cited as a serious problem, and was poorly understood and under-analysed in many studies. Even the essential theme of how to build

genuine political will for participatory governance remained under-explored, scantily documented, and, as a result, inadequately addressed (Malena, 2009:1-358).

4.5 CONCLUSION

The evaluation of the international perspectives on the factors that impact on public sector service delivery, and specifically on the performance of Municipalities were not comprehensive enough to include all independent variables, more importantly, *political will*. However, Okafor (2009: 1-65) referred, among others, to political will as influential to public sector performance. It was asserted that political will was required to allow continued participation of community structures in decision-making (Mubangizi, 2007:4-17). Also, it was noted by Pathania (2008: 1-62) that all functions in the public sector (i.e. India) are possible, but the only requirement to make them possible was a strong political will. Despite the impressive successes and significant impacts of participatory governance experiences, lack of political will for participatory governance remains a stumbling block (Malena, 2009: 1-358).

The partial references to *political will,* were not substantive and comprehensive enough to outline its association with public sector performance, and specifically in the local government sphere. Therefore, *the association of political will with Municipal performance globally and in South Africa* is an understudied theme.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, the context in which the study was undertaken was identified and the need for the study explored. The research problem and general hypothesis were formulated. The theoretical framework within which the study was undertaken and the performance measurement were outlined. The research design for this study is discussed in this Chapter. The chapter gave an outline of the scientific beliefs and paradigms informing the study. The Chapter also covered the research approach, methodology and the process to test the hypothesis as well as validity and reliability of the study.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A distinction between research methodologies and research designs is necessary. Research methodology is often used interchangeably with research design as if they mean the same thing. Mouton (2008: 55-56) explained that these were two different aspects of a research project, which were inextricably intertwined and, as such, researchers confuse them. Research design was a plan outlining how one intends to conduct scientific inquiry into a particular phenomenon, entity, process or event identified as the object of study or unit of analysis (Neumann, 2006: 1-315).

Research design constituted the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. To this end, the research design attempted to find answers to the following questions: Is the blueprint to include experiments, interviews, observations, analysis of records and simulations or a combination of these? Are methods of data collection and the research situation highly structured? Is an intensive study of small samples more effective than a less intensive study of a large sample? Should the analysis be primarily quantitative or qualitative? What kind of sample

will be used? How will time and cost constraints be dealt with? (Cooper & Schindler, 2010:1-325).

Cooper and Schindler (2010:1-325) affirm three types of research design that were employed in this study:

5.2.1 Exploratory Study

Through exploration researchers develop concepts more clearly, establish priorities, develop operational definitions and improve the final research design with reliance on qualitative and quantitative techniques. The literature review was normally the first part in exploratory study (Mouton, 2008: 55-56). Data from literature review help researchers to decide what needs to be done and can be a rich source of most hypotheses (Mouton & Marais, 1996: 1-205). Exploratory study was chosen for this study because it would be appropriate to explore what was available in the literature and to investigate the impact of a new construct, that is, political will on organisational performance.

5.2.2 Descriptive Study

In contrast to exploratory, formal or descriptive studies were typically structured with clearly stated hypotheses or investigative questions. Formal studies serve a variety of research objectives (Neumann, 2006: 1-315):

(i) Description of phenomena or characteristics associated with a subject population, that is, who, what, when and how of a topic;

(ii) Estimates of the proportions of a population that has these characteristics;

(iii) Discovery of associations among different variables;

(iv) Discovery and measurement of cause-and-effect relationship among variables.

Descriptive study assisted to provide answers to the null hypothesis and research questions.

5.2.3 Causal Study

The essential elements of causal studies are that empirical conclusions are inferences – inductive conclusions. As such they were probabilistic statements based on what we observe and measure. Most research analysts look for asymmetrical relationships. With these it was postulated how an independent variable influence a dependent variable. The research design assisted to determine and measure the relationship between political will "A" and organisational performance "B". In testing the hypothesis the study examined this evidence: Covariation between A and B; did we find that A and B occurred together in the way hypothesised? When A did not occur, was there also an absence of B? When there was more or less of A, did one also find more or less of B (Leeds & Ormond, 2005: 1-239)?

5.2.4 Research Approach and Strategy – Empirical Approach

Research strategy was defined as a high level approach to research that determined the detailed work (Money, 2004:107-122). This high level approach to research was often thought to be the study's basic philosophical beliefs and understanding of the nature of the research to be undertaken. To achieve its aims a study involved the choice of a research approach and research strategy and tactics. A research approach could either be theoretical or empirical (Money, 2004: 107-122). This study adopted an empirical approach, see Figure 38.
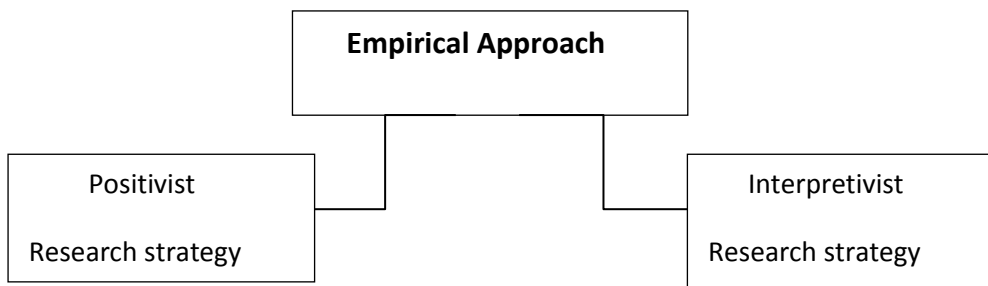
Figure 38: Research design approach

(Source: Money, 2004:107-122)

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Social science research could be conducted mainly within three paradigms. These were the quantitative, qualitative and critical social science paradigms (Neumann, 2006:1-315). The first two paradigms were the most frequently used approaches in social science research. The critical social science paradigm was rather a philosophy about the purpose of research than a methodology. The philosophy of the critical social science paradigm was that any approach (e.g. qualitative or quantitative) was acceptable as long as it contributed to the ideal of improving the quality of society (Cooper & Schindler, 2010:1-325).

Qualitative and quantitative approaches to research were often positioned as opposing approaches. Although there was no rule that only one approach may be used in research. Researchers usually embrace only one of the two or both. However, the most reliable methods of research was the mixed methods that was both quantitative and qualitative where the data was triangulated for accuracy as reported under paragraph 5.2.5 Mixed Method Research.

(i) Research paradigms

The research paradigms driving quantitative and qualitative research were described as follows (Schurink, 1998: 241):

- The quantitative paradigm was based on positivism, which took scientific explanation to be nomothetic (i.e. based on universal laws). Its main aims were to objectively measure the social world, to test hypotheses and to predict and control human behaviour
- In contrast, the qualitative paradigm stemmed from the anti-positivistic, interpretative approach, was idiographic, thus holistic in nature, and the aim was to understand social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life.

The differences in approach of quantitative and qualitative research as applied in this study with regard to different research perspectives (Meta – theoretical, epistemology, ontology and methodology) was shown in Figure 39.
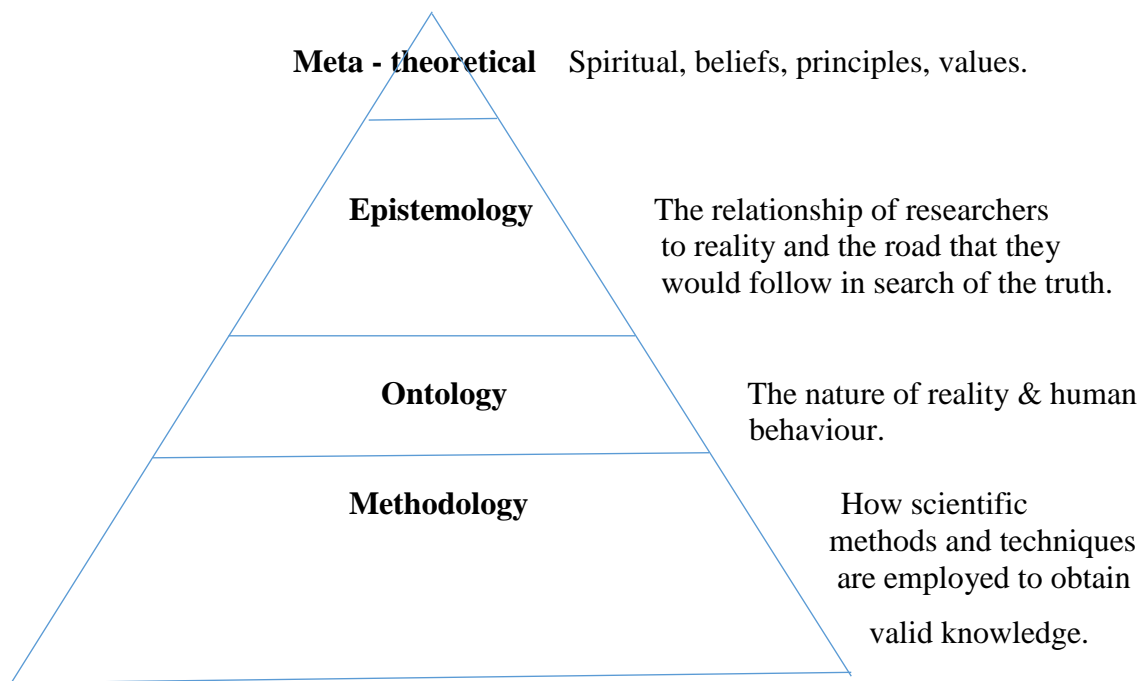
Figure 39: A Philosophy of life

Source: Schurink, 1998: 241

Significantly, a researcher was bound within a net of epistemological and ontological premises which regardless of ultimate truth or falsity, became partially self-validating (Bateson, 1972: 314). The beliefs that guide action and inform the researcher's epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises, were termed a paradigm (Guba, 1990:1-354), or interpretive framework. All research was in this sense interpretive, in so far as it is guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied. Some of these beliefs were taken for granted, only assumed; others were highly problematic and controversial. While interpretive approaches followed ideas from philosophical phenomenology and its emphasis on lived experience as the basis of human action and activities (Sandberg, 2005:41-68). They were guided by highly abstract principles (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:1-207; Bateson, 1972:1-267) that combined beliefs about ontology - what kind of being was the human being? What was the nature of reality? Epistemology - what was the relationship between the inquirer and the known? And methodology - how did we know the world, or gain knowledge of it? These beliefs shaped how a researcher saw the world and acted in it in the context of:

A. *Positivist*, being objective by using a quantitative approach in collecting data and find answers to hypotheses and using validity and reliability instrument to measure data.

B. *Interpretivist,* being subjective by applying qualitative approach in gathering data and find answers to why, how, etc.

C. *Transformationist,* The approach referred to action research, that is, instead of conducting research on the subjects you do it with them. Action research was longitudinal by nature (O'Donnell & Cummin, 1999: 82-91).

(ii) Differences between quantitative research and qualitative research

It was noted that qualitative research used ethnographic prose, historical narratives, first-person accounts and biographical and autobiographical materials, among others while quantitative research used mathematical models, statistical tables and graphs, and research was written in impersonal, third-person prose (Blaxter, Hughes, C & Tight, 2001: 1-384).

Further to the above mentioned differences, five variations between quantitative research and qualitative research were outlined (Bateson, 1972:1-267):

- **Uses of positivism**

  Both research methodologies were shaped by the positivist and post-positivist traditions within the physical and social sciences. These traditions clanged to naïve and critical realist positions concerning reality and its perception (Das, 1983: 301-314). Positivists contended that there was a reality out there to be studied, captured, and understood, whereas post-positivists argued that reality could never be fully apprehended, only approximated (Guba & Lincoln 1990: 1-354). Post-positivism relied on multiple methods as a way of capturing as much of reality as possible, and placed emphasis on the discovery and verification of theories. Traditional evaluation criteria, such as internal and external validity, were stressed, as was the use of qualitative procedures that lend themselves to structured, sometimes statistical analysis (Van Maanen, 1979: 539 - 550).

- **Acceptance of postmodern sensibilities**

  A new generation of qualitative researchers argued that positivist methods were but one way of telling a story about society. They were no better nor worse than any other method - they just told a different kind of story (Guba & Lincoln 1990: 1-354). This tolerant view was not shared by everyone. Many members of the critical theory, constructivist, post-structural, and post-modern schools of thought rejected positivist criteria when evaluating their own work. They saw these criteria as irrelevant to their work, contending that they reproduced only a certain kind of science, a science that silences too many voices (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 1-207). These researchers sought alternative methods for evaluating their work, including verisimilitude, emotionality, personal responsibility, an ethic of caring, political praxis, multi-voiced texts, and dialogues with subjects. In response, positivists and post-positivists argued that what they do was good science, free of individual bias and subjectivity.

- **Capturing the individual's point of view**

  Both qualitative and quantitative research were concerned with the individual's point of view. However, qualitative investigators thought they could move closer to the individual's perspective through detailed interviewing and observation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994: 1-207). It was argued that quantitative research was seldom able to capture the subject's perspective because it needed to rely on more remote, inferential, empirical materials. The empirical materials produced by the softer, interpretive methods were regarded by many quantitative researchers as unreliable, impressionable and not objective (Blaxter, Hughes, C & Tight, 2001: 1-384).

- **Examining the constraints of life**

  Qualitative research was more likely than quantitative research to confront the constraints of the everyday social world. In terms of qualitative approach the world was perceived in action and with embedded findings in it (Guba & Lincoln 1990: 1-354). Quantitative research sought a nomothetic (based on a system of law) or etic (without consideration to the role of a unit in a system) science based on probabilities derived from the study of

large numbers of randomly selected cases (Van Maanen, 1979: 539 - 550). These kinds of studies stand above and outside the constraints of everyday life. Qualitative research was committed to an emic (consideration of the role of the unit in a system), idiographic (study of individuals), case-based position, which directed its attention to the specifics of particular cases (Guba & Lincoln 1990: 1-354).

- **Securing rich descriptions**

  Qualitative research was premised on the understanding that rich descriptions of the social world are valuable, whereas quantitative research, with its etic, nomothetic commitments, was less concerned with such detail (Das, 1983: 301-314). The five points above reflect different traditions, classics, and forms or representation, interpretation and evaluation (Blaxter, Hughes, C & Tight, 2001: 1-384). While quantitative research was about metrics, design instruments, classification categories and data synthesis, qualitative research produced findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. It was open-ended, and sought to achieve depth of exploration by collecting as much information as possible about smaller numbers of critical incidents, events, situations and people interactions (Van Maanen, 1979: 539 - 550; Das, 1983: 301-314). Qualitative research sought to achieve depth rather than breadth (Blaxter, Hughes, C & Tight, 2001: 1-384).

5.2.5 Mixed methods research

As indicated before, the most reliable methods of research was the mixed methods, that is, both quantitative and qualitative where the data was triangulated for accuracy. The purpose of this research was to examine *the link between political will and performance of selected Municipalities in South Africa*. It was hypothesised that political will is the *sine qua non* of poor performance of most Municipalities in South Africa. However, extant theory suggested that multi-dimensional factors were responsible for organisational performance. While a great deal of research was done on Municipal performance globally, there was no systematic research that examined the black box of the hypothesised relationships between political will and Municipal performance in South Africa.

Given the primary research question, this study linked qualitative and quantitative survey research methods where data was triangulated for accuracy of results. The use of both the qualitative and quantitative research methods in a methodological triangulation approach resulted in a more comprehensive understanding of political will by allowing for triangulation of data and providing a deeper understanding of political will influences on Municipal performance (Altrichter, Posch & Somekh 1996:1-310).

The quantitative paradigm was considered appropriate for this study as it involved the systematic collection of observable, measurable data, the statistical analysis of the data and the development of a statistical model. The aim was to empirically examine the relationship among variables that are measurable and that had accepted validated measurement instruments. Additionally, the research attempted to quantitatively link the relationship among a specified set of variables. All of the concepts of interest in the study had accepted measures and could not be described as underdeveloped phenomenon. The study was conducted within the ideals of a scientific approach. A scientific approach was defined as the systematic, controlled, empirical, amoral, public and critical investigation of natural phenomena. It was guided by theory and hypotheses about the presumed relations amongst such phenomena (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000:14).

The quantitative method was generally designed to ensure objectivity, generalisability and reliability. Research participants were selected randomly from the study population in an unbiased manner, and statistical methods were used to test predetermined hypotheses regarding the relationships between specific variables. The researcher was considered external to the actual research, and results were expected to be replicable no matter who conducted the research (Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird, & McCormick, 1992:1-8; McConney, Rudd & Ayers, 2002:121-140; O'Donnell & Cummins, 1999:82-91; Hines, 2000:7-16).

The strengths of the quantitative paradigm were that its methods produce quantifiable, reliable data that were usually generalisable to some larger population. This paradigm broke down when the phenomenon under study was difficult to measure or quantify. The greatest weakness of the quantitative approach was that it decontextualised human behaviour in a way that removed the event from its real world setting and ignored the effects of variables that have not been included in the model. That was why methodological triangulation was important for this study (Steckler,

McLeroy, Goodman, Bird, & McCormick, 1992:1-8; McConney, Rudd & Ayers, 2002:121-140; O'Donnell & Cummins, 1999:82-91; Hines, 2000:7-16).

The qualitative method was designed to provide the researcher with the perspective of target audience members through immersion in a situation and direct interaction with the people under study. Qualitative methods included in-depth interviews. The method was designed to help researcher understand the meanings people assigned to social phenomena and to elucidated the mental processes underlying behaviours. Hypotheses were generated during data collection and analysis, and measurement tended to be subjective. In the qualitative paradigm, the researcher became the instrument of data collection, and results varied greatly depending upon who conducted the research (Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird, & McCormick, 1992:1-8; McConney, Rudd & Ayers, 2002:121-140; O'Donnell & Cummins, 1999:82-91; Hines, 2000:7-16).

The advantage of using qualitative method was that it generated rich, detailed data that left the participants' perspectives intact and provided a context for health behaviour. The focus upon processes and "reasons why" differed from that of quantitative research, which addresses correlations between variables. A disadvantage was that data collection and analysis were labour intensive and time-consuming (Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird, & McCormick, 1992:1-8; McConney, Rudd & Ayers, 2002:121-140; O'Donnell & Cummins, 1999:82-91; Hines, 2000:7-16).

Pérez-Díaz (2003: 427-489) emphasised the importance of combining quantitative and qualitative methods in social research. Responses of individuals to survey questionnaires, argued Pérez-Díaz (2003: 427-489) reflected generalised opinions. In order to obtain a richer understanding of a phenomenon the researcher considered the use of interviews where people's deep attitudes towards such a phenomenon are recorded and later narrated (Pérez-Díaz, 2003:427-489).

This study agreed with the notion that the use of mixed-method research or methodological triangulation approach appeared a necessary step, not only for overcoming the quantitative-qualitative methodological differences (Dunning, Williams, Abonyi & Crooks, 2008:145- 158), but also for developing new and more comprehensive and explanatory models of assessment and

interpretation of data. By doing so, the new strategies increased the confidence in the data and the findings, helped review existing theories, and broaden the knowledge of the phenomena under analysis (Dunning, Williams, Abonyi & Crooks, 2008:145- 158). Dunning et al (2008:145-158) also argued that mixed methods research as the third research paradigm helped bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research. Narrow views were misleading and approaching a subject from different angles helped provide that holistic complete view (Dunning *et al*, 2008:145-158).

(i) Triangulation method

Triangulation was used in this study to ensure reliability and validity. Triangulation was defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of human behaviour. Triangular techniques in the social sciences attempted to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint and, making use of both quantitative and qualitative data. The more the methods contrast with each other, the greater the researcher's confidence (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:1-546). Davids, Theron and Maphunye (2005:1-510) suggested that triangulation meant to use a range of methods, types of information, investigators and/or disciplines to cross-check data. It was further asserted that triangulation was the mixing of data or methods (qualitative & quantitative) so that diverse viewpoints cast light upon a topic. The mixing of methodologies, for instance, mixing the use of survey data with interviews, was a more profound form of triangulation (Oslen, 2004:1-30).

Therefore, it was argued that triangulation generate a dialectical learning that thrived on the contrasts between what seemed self-evident in interviews, what seemed to underlie the lay discourses, what appeared to be generally true in surveys, and what differences arose when comparing all these with official interpretations of the same thing (Oslen, 2004:1-30).

Bryman (1998:1-504) was of the view quantitative and qualitative analysis needed to respond to what was happening in the qualitative social research tradition. Figure 40 showed the three polar positions that researchers had to choose from, and it was suggested that constructionism and imperialism are not adequate theories of what exist, but as bundles of techniques they were utilised as a pragmatic and well ground way (Oslen, 2004:1-30).
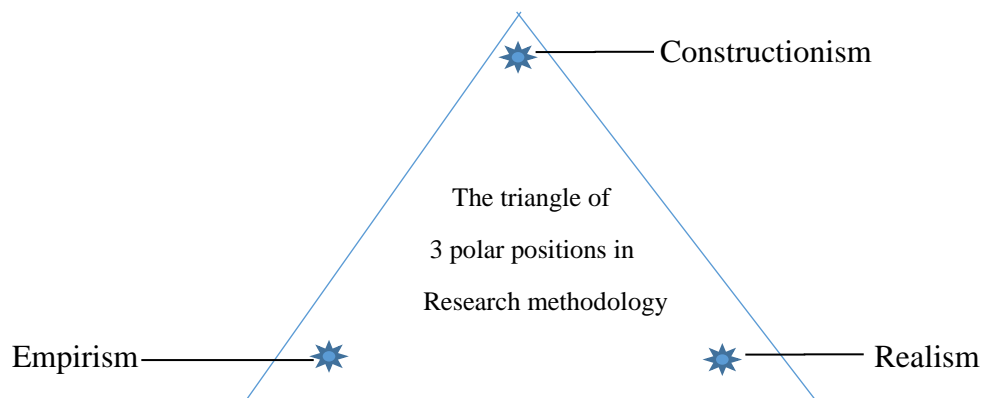
Figure 40: Traditions of triangulated research

(Source: Oslen, 2004:1-30)

Oslen (2004:1-30) argued that both theory and practical experiences helped researchers to work out which techniques were going to be useful in a given context, for example, discourse analysis from the constructivist tradition and tabulated matrices based upon qualitative categories, perhaps, from empiricist tradition.

Oslen (2004:1-30) asserted that triangulation cut across qualitative-quantitative divide and researchers used it in their mixed-methods studies; despite the empiricism, realism and constructionism theories being placed at different edge of a triangle of viewpoints, the realist approach was the one that best fits a mixed-methods research methodology. Thus triangulation across quantitative-qualitative divide was only consistent with a pluralist theoretical viewpoint.

In alignment with triangulation or mixed-methods methodology, the study's analysis of data were both quantitative - descriptive and inferential numeric analysis and qualitative - descriptive and thematic text or image analysis (Creswell, 2009: 1-401). Triangulation of data sources also added validity and reliability to the findings because corroborating and validating the results was an essential component of data analysis. Reliability was ensured by cross-verifying questionnaire data with interview data and secondary data. This was essential because an empirical study needs to present trustworthy results to the readers. Otherwise, a research exercise becomes a futile exercise.

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5.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology was defined as a basic procedure, and the steps in solving an unresolved problem (Leedy, 1997:1-389). This definition was supported by McNabb (2009:1-105). Research methodology was described in more specific terms as the how of collecting data and the processing thereof within the framework of the research processes (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:1-355). Research methodology focused on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used (Mouton, 2009:1-268). Compared with research design, research methodology was concerned with the collection and analysis of data using the most objective procedure (Mouton 2009:1-268). Research methodology also explained the fundamental concepts and building blocks of a detailed and comprehensive research design, namely, that methodology referred to the overall approach of the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of the data. Methods on the other hand, referred only to the various means by which data was collected and/or analysed (Hussey & Hussey, 1997:1-289). This study was empirical in nature and posited a reality question. A discussion of the research methods employed in the study followed.

5.3.1 The Study Setting

As far as it can be established this was the first empirical study of the relationship between political will and Municipal performance. This standpoint was substantiated by the literature review in chapter 2, 3 and 4. The study's setting referred to the ability to replicate a scenario and dictate a particular outcome; the ability to exclude, isolate, or manipulate the influence of a variable in a study; a critical factor in inference from an experiment, implied that all factors, with the exception of the independent variable, must be held constant and not confounded with another variable that was not part of the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2010:1-325; Mitchell & Jolley, 2007:1-396).

5.3.2 Population and Unit of Analysis

A population was a large pool of elements from which a study draws a sample and results generalised from the drawn sample (Mouton & Marais, 1996:1-205), while a sample was a subset of the population or a small collection of units selected from the population for studying and coming up with generalisations that should be representative of the population (Cooper and

Schindler, 2010: 1-325). A research study's target population should be clearly defined and the unit of analysis should be identified, which was not easy sometimes. The target population consisted of all the units being studied. The unit of analysis was the entity or what was being analysed (Cooper & Schindler, 2010:1-325). Examples of unit of analysis were individual people, groups, organisations, divisions or departments. The unit of analysis should therefore describe the level at which the research was performed or at which data are analysed, that is, the level at which objects are researched. Serumaga-Zake, 2011: 1-65) defined data as facts or recorded measures of certain phenomena (things or events); and emphasized that data was processed or summarised to give information that should be used to support decision making or define relationships between two facts or variables. From various levels of decision making, at a 'lower' level, management decisions, transactions or contracts, for instance, could also be units of analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2010:1-325).

The population sample comprised of Councillors and Municipal Managers of Municipalities in Gauteng and North West provinces in South Africa. Gauteng province had 12 Municipalities consisting of 3 Metropolitans, 3 Districts and 6 local Municipalities. Whilst the North West province had 25 Municipalities broken down into 4 Districts and 21 local Municipalities. The two provinces' Municipalities had a total of about 2000 Councillors and 37 Municipal Managers (COGTA, 2012: 1-138).

Reasons for selecting Councillors and Municipal Managers as a unit of analysis were as follow:

- They served as the political leadership at local government level
- They got their mandates for service delivery from their political parties
- They were in direct contact and communication with communities within Municipalities
- They were answerable to communities in terms of service delivery request or demands
- All service delivery projects were approved, monitored and evaluated by Councillors and Municipal Managers
- They (as local government leadership) had an oversight responsibility for top management commitment at the corporate level.

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According to Mouton (2009:1-268), Leedy (1997:1-389), McNabb (2009:1-105) and Brynard and Hanekom (1997:1-355) the Councillors and Municipal Managers as one unit of analysis fall within second-order of reality.

The second unit of analysis was the construct of *Municipal performance* in the Gauteng and Northwest provinces. The choice of units of analysis was guided by Serumaga-Zake's (2011: 1-65) assertion that the unit of analysis in research generally was related to the following three questions:

- What was your research problem and what do you really want to answer?
- What did you need to measure to answer your research problem or question?
- What did you want to do with the results of the study or whom did you address in your conclusion?

5.3.3 Selection of the Sample

Sampling was the process of defining a representative sub-population to study and there were two main categories of sampling, that is, probability and non-probability sampling (Lunsford & Lunsford, 1995: 105-129). The first potential problem in any system of selection was bias. Bias occurred easily and to avoid selection bias it was important to guarantee that each of the candidates for inclusion in the study had an equal opportunity for selection, and that guarantee required subjects to be selected at random, or that randomisation be employed. Randomisation was important for two basic reasons: first, it provided a sample that was not biased, and second, it met the requirements for statistical validity (Portney, 1993:1-301; Ader, Mellenbergh, & Hand, 2008:1-385). Several methods existed that could be used to randomly select subjects which included among others; simple random sampling, systemic random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, convenience sampling, consecutive sampling, judgmental sampling and quota sampling as shown in Figures 41 and 42 (Lunsford & Lunsford, 1995: 105-129).

Simple Random Sampling
- It's the most basic type of random sampling.
- everyone in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being in the final sample

Systematic Sampling
- It is a method frequently chosen for its simplicity because it is a periodic process .This method could be carried out by selecting the first subject randomly as described above and then selecting every second or third subject who comes to the office and meets the inclusion/exclusion criteria. This method,can however be problematic due to periodicity. There is no advantage to this method over simple random sampling.

Stratified Random Sampling
- It is a method by which subjects are grouped according to strata such as age, gender or diagnosis (left hemi vs. right hemi), etc. Using this method, subgroups of interest can be defined and equal numbers of subjects sampled for each group.

Cluster Random Sampling
- It is a method used to enable random sampling to occur while limiting the time and costs that would otherwise be required to sample from either a very large population or one that is geographically diverse . Thus clusters (e.g., a school, a classroom, a team) are randomly selected rather than individual type units in the first stage of sampling.

Source: (Lunsford and Lunsford, 1995)

Figure 41: Probability sampling methods

In research true random sampling was sometimes difficult to achieve, mainly due to time, cost and ethical considerations. It therefore became necessary to use other sampling techniques. Non-probability sampling methods were such that the sampling techniques were not random (Portney, 1993:1-301; Currier, 1984:1-285; Lunsford *et al*, 1995:105-129; Ader *et al*, 2008:1-385).

With non-probability sampling methods in Figure 42 the members of the population did not have an equal chance of being selected hence, it was unlikely that the population selected would have the correct proportions. Therefore, it was assumed that the sample fully represents the target, and any statement generalising the results beyond the actual sample tested must be stated with qualification (Portney, 1993:1-301; Currier, 1984:1-285; Heckathorn, 2002:1-395; Lunsford *et al*, 1995:105-129; Ader *et al*, 2008:1-385).

Convenience sampling	•With this method, subjects are selected because of their convenient accessibility to the researcher. These subjects are chosen simply because they are the easiest to obtain for the study. This technique is easy, fast and usually the least expensive and troublesome in that bias is introduced into the sample because the sample may not be representative of the larger overall population.
Consecutive sampling	•This is a strict version of convenience sampling where every available subject is selected, i.e., the complete accessible population is studied. This is the best choice of the nonprobability sampling techniques since by studying everybody available, a good representation of the overall population is possible in a reasonable period of time
Judgmental sampling	•This method is also called purposive sampling, it is another form of convenience sampling where subjects are handpicked from the accessible population. This technique leaves much to be desired because of its inherent bias. Subjects usually are selected using judgmental sampling because the researcher believes that certain subjects are likely to benefit or be more compliant.
Quota sampling	•It is a non-probability technique used to ensure equal representation of subjects in each layer of a stratified sample grouping.

Source: (Lunsford and Lunsford, 1995)

Figure 42: Non-probability sampling methods

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At the outset it was envisaged that the simple random sampling, i.e. probability sampling method was used as a sampling technique (Figure 41). It was the most basic type of random sampling which ensured that everyone in the sampling frame had an equal chance of being in the final sample (Lunsford *et al,* 1995:105-129).

In applying the simple random sampling technique the study was guided by these principles that influence sample size and choice (Tyilana, 2005:1-101):

- The greater the dispersion or variance within the population, the larger the sample must be to provide estimation precision
- The greater the desired precision of the estimate, the larger the sample must be
- The narrower the interval range, the larger the sample must be
- The higher the confidence level in the estimate, the larger the sample must be
- The greater the number of subgroups of interest within a sample, the greater the sample size must be, as each subgroup must meet minimum sample size requirements
- If the calculated sample size exceed five per cent of the population, sample size may be reduced without sacrificing precision.

In both Gauteng and North West provinces the cooperation and institutional support of the Departments of Local Government and Traditional leaders was solicited. Subsequently with the acquired written mandates Metropolitans in Gauteng and all sampled District Municipalities in the two provinces were approached to gain further cooperation and institutional support prior to approaching their local Municipalities.

The following logistics were applicable to both the pilot and full blown empirical studies. The researcher was assisted by an assistant to distribute questionnaires to respondents. The respondents were requested to place the completed questionnaire in a marked box at the reception area of Municipal offices within a specified time period. Attached to the questionnaire were letters from the Department granting permission to conduct the study and the letter of consent explaining to the respondents that completing the questionnaire was voluntarily and that confidentiality will be respected at all times. As a contingency, more questionnaires than planned for the surveys were distributed. The study was first pilot tested at a local Municipality in

Gauteng. Then the feedback was used to correct and update the questionnaire in readiness for a full blown empirical study.

Table 6: Random Sample of Councillors/Municipal Managers by Municipality

Councillors/Municipal Managers per Municipalities	Population	Sample Size	Sampling Strategy
			Simple Random Sampling: It is the most basic type of random sampling. Everyone in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being in the final sample
Bojanala	75	68	
Emfuleni	101	50	
Kgetleng	12	10	
Mafikeng	64	57	
Merafong	56	28	
Midvaal	31	15	
Mogale City	80	40	
Moretele	55	49	
Randfontein	52	32	
Ratlou	30	30	
Ruth	29	29	
Taung	51	47	
Tlokwe	52	48	
Tshwane	210	109	
Westonania	38	19	
Westrand	44	22	
Total	**980**	**653**	

Blue denotes Municipalities in Gauteng province. **Black** denotes Municipalities in Northwest province.

Remarks: From a population of 1706 Councillors/Municipal Managers in the two provinces a sample of 653 was selected randomly.

For the purpose of the study the population included all Municipalities in the Gauteng province (12) and Northwest province (22) totalling 34 Municipalities as well as all Councillors and Municipal Managers in the Gauteng province (1152) and Northwest province (554) adding up to 1706 Councillors. Using simple random sampling method, a sample of eight Municipalities from each province was randomly chosen and a sample of 653 Councillors and Municipal Managers was also randomly selected.

In the two provinces under study there were three metropolitan and five District Municipalities. One metropolitan, two Districts and four locals in each District were randomly selected, which means that 16 Municipalities were included in the study. At least four Municipalities per District were required to be part of the sample. These were randomly selected. Since it was found that there was not a sufficient distribution between Metropolitans and District Municipalities and, those Municipalities that were excluded, the deficiency was rectified by using randomly selected sampling. Finally 16 Municipalities formed part of the study (Table 7). All Councillors and Municipal Managers in these Municipalities were requested to complete the questionnaire, resulting in 653 responses, that is, 637 from Councillors and 16 from Municipal Managers (Table 6).

5.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

For the purpose of this study, the following method were used to collect data.

5.4.1 Methods, Instruments for Data Collection and Measurement

(i) Survey method

A questionnaire was used in the survey to collect quantitative data. The Likert scale was employed to measure the variables. Besides getting information quickly and easily, a questionnaire could be completely anonymous; it was inexpensive to administer and distributed to many people. However, the downside of a questionnaire design was the possibility of not getting substantial feedback from the respondents and the wording could easily bias the respondents' responses.

The questionnaire consisted of closed and open-ended questions. The first section of the questionnaire collected biographical data relating to: Age group: Interval data; Gender: Nominal data: Racial group: Nominal data; Level of education: Ordinal data; Department: Nominal data; Position: Ordinal data and Length of service: Ratio data. The second part of the questionnaire comprised questions on constructs designed on a five point Likert scale data (Cooper & Schindler, 2006: 1-325). The questions provided 5 possible responses namely: ☐ strongly disagree, ☐ disagree, 3 ☐ uncertain, ☐ agree, ☐ strongly agree.

Many previous studies had found that the scale between 5 to 7 points was more reliable and valid than the shorter or long scales (Knosnick & Fabrigar, 1997: 32-201). Section two of the questionnaire dealt with questions about the two constructs under investigation. The third section of the questionnaire was for the respondents to outline recommendations or the way forward. The data collection method used was in line with the empirical approach and positivist strategy of the study (see Appendix D).

(ii) Interviews

From an empirical perspective, face to face interviews were conducted to collect qualitative data. Interviews were conducted with so-called Municipal experts from COGTA (1), SALGA (1) and from the big four accounting and consulting firms: PricewaterhouseCoopers (1), KPMG (1), Deloitte and Touche (1) and Ernst &Young (1). The selected participants are a convenience sample (due to convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher) as most of them were headquartered in the Gauteng province. The researcher sent an interview guide via email or fax to all the ten (10) participants prior to interviews and all interviews were recorded on a digital recorder and stored electronically for transcription (see Appendix E).

(iii) Secondary data collection

In support of the above mentioned data collection methods, the study collected secondary data by reviewing Municipal IDPs, Annual Reports: 2013 and Auditor's Report: 2014 in the two provinces under study. Through secondary data *political will* or intentions from the IDPs and their linkage with *Municipal performance* from the Annual Reports and Auditor's Report (2014) were identified and analysed.

5.5 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:1-325) many forms of validity were mentioned in the research literature, and the number grew and expanded due to the concern for more scientific measurement. Validity in this context was the extent to which differences found with a measuring tool reflected true differences among respondents being tested. The researcher wanted the measuring tool to be sensitive to all nuances of meaning in the variable and to changes in nuances of meaning over time.

With regard to reliability, a measure was reliable to the degree that it supplies reliable results. Reliability was a measure contributing to validity but was not a sufficient condition for validity. Reliability was concerned with estimates of the degree to which a measurement was free of random or unstable error and, was not as valuable as validity determination, but it was much easier to assess (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:1-325).

5.5.1   Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

A questionnaire was the most widely used data collection instrument in evaluation research. To minimise measurement errors it was necessary to have a systematic development of a valid and reliable measurement instrument. Measurement error was referred to as the discrepancy between respondents' attributes and their survey responses. Testing the instrument enhanced data quality and utilisation of research (Groves, 1987:156-172).

Reliability estimated the consistency of the measurement, or more simply the degree to which an instrument measured the same way each time it was used under the same conditions with the same subjects. Validity, on the other hand, involved the degree to which you measure what you were supposed to, more simply, the accuracy of your measurement. The results of a research study were only useful to the extent that they were accurately and confidently interpreted. The issue of accuracy and confident interpretation of results was at the centre of any discussion of validity (Allen & Yen, 2002:1-406). When a group of items was considered to be reliably measured, then the items scores can reasonably be aggregated to create a composite scale to represent a named construct or dimension which was used to construct statistical models (Allen & Yen, 2002:1-406:1-406).

Accordingly, in this study, the scores of the questionnaire were summated to formulate composite variables for purposes of correlation and regression analysis. The summation of a group of item scores was beneficial because it reinforces the consistent or systematic components of a construct or dimension, that is, the unifying theme that it aimed to measure, whilst cancelling out the inconsistent or non-systematic components, that is, the sampling error (Allen & Yen, 2002:1-406).

Reliability was ensured using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. It was envisaged that the empirical results could be generalised in the two Provinces under study. However, future studies is recommended for to other provinces. As a contingency plan, a pilot study in one Municipality was conducted to test the data collection and analytical instrument before launching a full scale research and, the validity of the questionnaire was obtained by having it reviewed by two academics at Unisa, Graduate School of Business and by the researcher's supervisor. This was necessary because content and construct validity was determined by expert judgment (Nel, Radel & Louber, 1990:1-250 & Zikmund, 2011:1-448). The test and re-test method was used to confirm the reliability of the instrument.

(i)   Internal validity

Internal validity referred to the extent to which the results obtained in a research study were a function of the variables that were systematically manipulated, measured, and/or observed in the study. Internal validity was used to address the "true" causes of the outcomes that were observed in the study. Strong internal validity meant reliable measures of independent and dependent variables were in place and also that a strong justification that causally links the independent variables to the dependent variables. At the same time, extraneous variables, or alternative, often unanticipated as causes for the dependent variables were ruled out. A number of common areas for consideration with internal validity presented the framework for this section and provided strategies on how this study attempted to address the potential issues as a means to ensure validity of the study. The areas for consideration were history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression, selection, mortality, selection-maturation, and research bias.

To maximize the internal validity, steps were taken in the study to minimize the potential threats to internal validity. Four general procedures as asserted by Fraenkel and Wallen (1993:1-357) in which these threats were minimised were the following in terms of:

- Standardisation of the conditions under which the research study was carried out helped minimise threats to internal validity from history and instrumentation
- Obtaining as much information as possible about the participants in the research study aids in minimising threats to internal validity from mortality and selection
- Obtaining as much information as possible about the procedural details of the research, for example, where and when the study occurred, minimised threats to internal validity from history and instrumentation
- Choosing an appropriate research design helped control most other threats to internal validity.

The following were some specific factors also utilised for minimising the potential threat to internal validity in the study.

- **History**: Described as an internal threat to validity, history referred to the outside events that may influence the subjects during the course of the research or between repeated measures of the variables (Creswell, 2003:1-401)

- **Maturation**: The role of maturation as an internal threat to validity referred to the changes of the participants over the span of the study. Some of these changes were permanent (e.g., biological growth), while others are temporary (e.g., fatigue). It was the intention of this study to not allow for maturation, in the context of this definition, to occur because of the single survey. All data was collected at one point in time and maturation was not involved in this study. The earlier experience and maturation of participants influenced the perspectives provided in the survey, but that could be accounted for using the demographic data (Cook & Campbell, 2002:1-408; Shadish,

Cook & Campbell, 2002: 1-394; Schneider, Carnoy, Kilpatrick, Schmidt, & Shavelson 2007:1-135; Briggs, 2008:15-22)

- **Testing**: The prior measurement or surveys of the population influenced the types of responses provided in subsequent measurements was what was deemed as the testing internal validity threat. Control of outside surveys and information gathering mechanisms were not possible, but the type of information and engagement that would be conducted in this study was unique and a single survey eliminated in testing threat (Cook & Campbell, 2002:1-408; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002: 1-394; Schneider, Carnoy, Kilpatrick, Schmidt, & Shavelson 2007:1-135; Briggs, 2008:15-22)

- **Instrumentation**: A focus on the reliability of the instrument used to gauge the dependent variable changed in the course of the survey. Examples included changes in the actual measuring device used. The use of single survey event eliminated the threat for changes in the instrumentation over time. Aspects of the instrument's reliability were addressed through the process of the pilot study and the use of statistical validation (Cook & Campbell, 2002:1-408; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002: 1-394; Schneider, Carnoy, Kilpatrick, Schmidt, & Shavelson 2007:1-135; Briggs, 2008:15-22)

- **Statistical regression**: The problem of statistical regression within a study focused on the potential of the subjects with extreme scores on a first measure of the dependent variable trending to have scores closer to the mean on a second measure. Earley (2006:189) suggested that, a high score obtained from a measurement were lower in a second measurement because of statistical regression or because of the respondent's acclimation to the measurement process. The use of single survey instrument eliminated the validity issues associated with statistical regression, as the participants did not have an opportunity to adjust or change the perceptions or perspectives (Cook & Campbell, 2002:1-408; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002: 1-394; Schneider, Carnoy, Kilpatrick, Schmidt, & Shavelson 2007:1-135; Briggs, 2008:15-22)

- **Selection**: The internal validity of selection focused on the uneven engagement of the sample group whereby subjects brought into the investigation unique characteristics, some learned and some inherent. Examples included gender, attitude, personality and mental ability. The threat to internal validity was eliminated by using all of the potential participants for purposes of this study (Cook & Campbell, 2002:1-408; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002: 1-394; Schneider, Carnoy, Kilpatrick, Schmidt, & Shavelson 2007:1-135; Briggs, 2008:15-22)

- **Selection-maturation interaction**: The primary element of this validity threat focused on the interaction of time related variables and the potential interaction with the participants of the study. Because the proposed survey was a one-time event, the significance of selection-maturation threat was reduced to the time available for interaction with the survey. The window available for participating in the survey would be limited to reduce any potential of the selection-maturation interaction threat (Cook & Campbell, 2002:1-408; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002: 1-394; Schneider, Carnoy, Kilpatrick, Schmidt, & Shavelson 2007:1-135; Briggs, 2008:15-22).

The reliability of the measurement scales was as follows:

Table 7: Reliability of the measurement scales

Scale	Reliability
1. Understanding of opinions and attitudes	**.843**
2. Intensity of opinions and attitudes	**.729**
3. Salience of opinions and attitudes	**.689**
All scales: political will	**.847**
Municipal performance measures	**0.861**

5.5.2 Ethical requirements

Researchers in organisational behavioural studies needed to be aware of the fact that there can be incongruence between their own views or theoretical frameworks and those of the group or respondents in the research sample. Where differences existed between researcher and participant, they must be respected, and care must be exercised to not project one's own values into the research process, nor judge a participant's behaviour that varies from one's own opinion sanctioned standards (Lee, 1995:1-386). There were many ethical matters that do not have clear boundaries (Remenyi, Williams, Money & Swart, 1998:1-135). Ethics were moral principles, norms or standards of behaviour that guides moral choices about behaviour and relationships with others (Cooper and Schindler, 2006:1-325).

Research ethics related to gaining access, collecting data, processing and data storage, analysing data and writing up the research findings in a moral and responsible way. This meant that the design and method was both methodologically sound and morally defensible to all those who were involved (Saunders & Thornhill, 2007:1-243). It was critical to comply with the stringent ethical considerations and any deviations from ethical standards therefore needed to be thought through and justified very carefully, thus making ethical considerations a fundamental element to the credibility, validity and reliability of this research.

The study identified potential ethical issues for the survey, its application and overcoming of the ethical considerations (Creswell, 2003; Saunders & Thornhill, 2007:1-243; Remenyi *et al*, 1998:1-135). The study was explained to all respondents as voluntary and confidential based on full and open information. A basic moral principle was that deception and misrepresentation were not credible means to extract information from participants. Privacy and confidentiality needed to be respected, however, privacy protection could be meaningless if there was no consensus or unanimity on what was public and private (Creswell, 2003:1-401; Saunders and Thornhill, 2007:1-243; Remenyi *et al*, 1998:1-135. These ethical requirements were addressed in the study as outlined in Table 8.

Table 8: OVERVIEW OF ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical Consideration	Main Consideration Elements	Application and overcoming of ethical consideration
Ethical issues during research design and gaining access to respondents	· Concept to participate in a research project is not an obvious matter. · The way data is collected does not always imply consent about the way in which the data provided is subsequently used · Informed consent from respondents · Physical access to respondents for the qualitative interviews · Access to possible participants through snowball sampling method · Gaining cognitive access · Providing anonymity and confidentiality	· Researcher provided a very clear articulated cover letter that explained the research project (Appendix C1, C2 & C3) · A clear explanation was provided in the cover letter on how the data is going to be used after the research · Researcher obtained consent during the interviews · Use of questionnaires · Provided assurances of confidentiality and anonymity
Ethical issues during the data collection	· The research participants can withdraw and or decline to participate at any time, it's their right · Participation should be limited to the scope of access agreed upon, anything that will cause harm or intrude on the privacy of participants is not acceptable · Maintenance of research objectivity is required	· Researcher remained within the agreed upon scope of participation · Maintenance of confidentiality and anonymity · Maintenance of research objectivity
Ethical issues associated with storage of data and the processing of the data	Ethical and legal consideration to data Protection according to professional standards as well as legal requirements	· In cases were personal data was divulged permission was obtained and the researcher ensured compliance with the handling of such personal and or sensitive data
Ethical issues in relation to data reporting and analysis	· Selective use of data and misrepresentation of the statistical accuracy. · Potential for falsifying or inventing findings to meet a researcher's or audience's needs	· Used all data collected · Data will be maintained for a reasonable time (Sieber, 1998) recommends 5-10 years · Researcher investigated family businesses in which the researcher had no personal interest · Researcher provided an accurate account of the information. · Researcher releases the details of the research with the study design so that readers can determine for themselves the credibility of the study

Source: Creswell, 2003; Saunders and Thornhill, 2007; Remenyi et al, 1998

5.6 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Burns and Grove (2003), data analysis involved a mechanism for reducing and organizing data to produce findings that require interpretation by the researcher. DeVos (2002) stated that it is a challenging process that required a lot of creativity to transform raw data to useful information, which could be used for decision making. There were a variety of ways in which people approached data analysis, the important thing however, was to pay attention when data was analysed and to think critically about conclusions that will be drawn.

5.6.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

For qualitative approach, data analysis consisted of a number of steps which involved recording of data, preliminary analysis, reading and writing memos, categorisation and coding as well as generating themes and patterns. In this study, data analysis followed the following steps:

(i) Preliminary analysis

First the recorded data was subjected to preliminary analysis. De Vos (2005) argued that the interaction between data collection and analysis was a distinguishing feature of qualitative research. The author further emphasised that at this stage the researcher was guided by initial concepts and developing understanding but he/she shifted and modified them as the information was gathered and analysed. In this study, the researcher collected data from Councillors, Municipal Managers and Municipal experts while provisionally formulating the meanings the data gave in terms of addressing the research questions. This provided an opportunity for the researcher to seek further clarity when it was necessary by interviewing respondents again to enrich descriptions of their understanding on the subject matter.

(ii) Reading and writing memos

According to De Vos (2005), writing memos in the margins of the transcripts helped in classifying and interpreting of data. Such memos were often short phrases, ideas or key concepts that could occur to the reader. So, following DE Vos (2005), in this study, in order to capture all the ideas from the respondents, the researcher wrote some notes (memos) after reading the data

several times. This helped to code and categorise the data, and to identify patterns and themes that were unfolding.

(iii) Coding

Categories were coded – resulting in frequency counts (Lee, 1999). Terre Blanche *et al*. (2006: 324) state that coding entailed marking different sections of the data as being instances of, or relevant to, one or more of your themes. You could for example code a phrase, a line, a sentence, or a paragraph, identifying these textual "bits" by virtue of their containing material that pertains to the themes under considerations. Coding helped to ease the interpretation of the qualitative data. The criticism of the coding method however, was that coding sought to transform qualitative data into quantitative data, thereby reducing the detail (i.e. its variety, richness and individual character). However, careful definition of the codes and linking them to the underlying data helped to address this concern.

(iv) Generating themes and patterns

As mentioned above, after completing the process of reading and writing memos, coding and categorising the data, patterns and trends were identified and themes were generated, which were also coded to create frequency distributions. The process of identifying salient themes, recurring ideas and patterns included classifying the information into groups that reflected various meanings of the phenomenon. Common themes were carefully identified along with trends and patterns. The researcher also noted the common expressions used by respondents.

This was the last step of data analysis; it involved searching for alternative explanations, that is, a gradual building of an explanation through an iterative process where the data or evidence was examined to review the initial theoretical positions and re-examined again from this revised theoretical position. The identified common themes and patterns were considered in addressing the study objectives.

In summary, the various stages of data analysis were as follows:

Stage	Purpose
Stage	**Purpose**
Codes:	Identifying anchors that allowed the key points of the data to be gathered
Concepts:	Collections of codes of similar content that allowed the data to be grouped into a concept
Categories:	Broad groups of similar concepts that were used to generate a proposition or *theory*
Proposition:	A collection of categories that detailed the subject of the research.

An example of a pictorial representation of the whole process is shown in Figure 43. Each label of a concept represented a node linking together the transcript incidents although the initial nodes did not exists at the same level within the hierarchy of abstraction. As the level of abstraction/generalisation increases from codes, concepts, and categories it became more apparent that the core concepts begin to emerge.

Levels of abstraction

4. Proposition

Proposition 1

3. Categories

Category 1   Category 2   Category 3

2. Concepts

Concept 1   Concept 2   Concept 3   Concept 4

1. Codes

Code 1   Code 2   Code 3   Code 4   Code 5
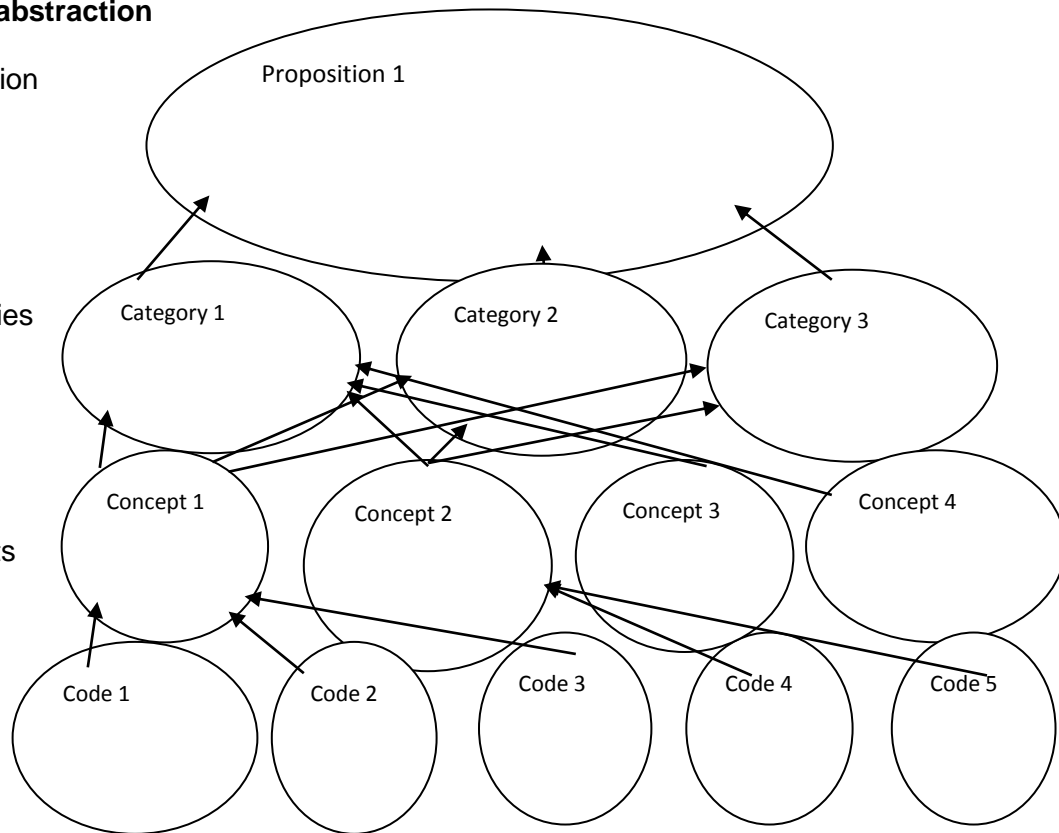
Figure 43: **Development of analysis structure from the levels of abstraction or generalisation stages (Concept discovery)**

Inherent within the concept discovery and labeling was the concept definition and elaboration of theory (i.e., the 'explanation building' element of the analysis). The practical approach of this was to group the transcript incidents together and form a common theme. The evolution of the conceptual label and their descriptions was arbitrary since some concepts are discarded and others retained. This analysis went through its iterative process in developing a proposition or a theory (Martin and Turner, 1986). The final stage was reviewing the concept descriptions and tying them into the existing literature. Thus concepts were used to support and explain the products of concept discovery and further informed the concept description stage in the explanation building process.

5.6.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

A. Descriptive analysis

The data was organised into summary statistics using frequency tables, diagrams, curves and measures of central tendency and variation. These were used to describe the main features of the data and the population. There were some situations in which the mean was not the "best" measure of central tendency, for example, when you know or believe that a distribution was skewed and when you have a small number of observations. Also, not all measures of central tendency are appropriate for all kinds of variables. For nominal data (e.g. gender or race), the mode was the only valid measure. In this study, the mean, median and mode were used to measure measures of central tendency. The standard deviation provided some idea about how the scores were scattered around the mean, a measure of central tendency. The smaller the standard deviation, the more narrow the range between the lowest and highest scores or the smaller the standard deviation the more closely the scores cluster around the mean score. For example, a standard deviation close to 0 indicated that the data points tend to be very close to the mean of the distribution, while a high standard deviation indicated that the data points are spread out over a wider range of values.

Skewness and kurtosis were also measured. Skewness was a measure of symmetry and Kurtosis was a measure of whether the data were peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution. A distribution, or data set, was symmetric if it looked the same to the left and right of the centre point. Data sets with low kurtosis tended to have a flat top near the mean rather than a sharp peak. The histogram was an effective graphical technique for showing both the skewness and kurtosis of data set. It was desirable that for the normal distribution of data the values of skewness should be near to 0. The values for asymmetry and kurtosis between -2 and +2 were considered acceptable in order to prove normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010).

Diagrammatic representation of data was also applied. This involved histograms, bar diagrams and pie charts.

B. Inferential analysis

(i) T test

The t distribution was used to compare the mean scores on the Likert scale with the undecided or neutral score of 2.5 which was the mid-point between agree and disagree by applying the one-sample t test.

$$T = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

Where $\overline{X}$ was the mean score, μ was the assumed mean value (in this case, it equals to 2.5), S was the standard deviation of the scores, $Xi's$ (where $i = 1, 2\dots n$) and n was the sample size.

This was done by testing the null hypothesis that the mean score for a particular question was equal to 3. If the difference between the two values was statistically significant from zero, and provided the mean score calculated from the data was less than 3, then this would provide a scientific proof that Municipal Managers and Councillors generally agreed with the statement. If the difference was not significant, it would mean that they were undecided or neutral. On the other hand, if the difference was significant and the mean score was more than 3 then it would mean that Municipal Managers and Councillors generally disagreed with the statement. The level of significance used was 0.05.

(ii) Chi-square test

We normally used chi-square statistic to test for association between two variables. In this study, the two variables were the political will which was measured on the Likert scale and Municipal performance. Results of this statistical procedure were evaluated by reference to the chi-square distribution. Chi-square test was used on variables which follow the normal distribution. It tested a null hypothesis stating that the frequency distribution of certain events observed in a sample was consistent with a particular theoretical distribution. The events considered were mutually exclusive and had total probability 1. A common case for this was where each event covers an outcome of a categorical variable.

The first step in the chi-square test was to calculate the chi-square statistic. The chi-square statistic was calculated by finding the difference between each observed and theoretical frequency for each possible outcome, squaring them, dividing each by the theoretical frequency, and taking the sum of the results. A second important part of determining the test statistic was to define the degrees of freedom of the test, that is, the number of observed frequencies adjusted for the effect of using some of those observations to define the theoretical frequencies.

(iii) Calculating the test-statistic

The value of the test-statistic is

$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

Where

X^2 = Pearson's cumulative test statistic, which asymptotically approaches a chi-square distribution

O_i = an observed frequency

E_i = an expected (theoretical) frequency, asserted by the null hypothesis

n = the number of cells in the table

If the probability corresponding to the calculated chi-square value exceeded the level of significance of 0.05, the null hypothesis for example, that the perception was consistent throughout the time period would not rejected, otherwise, if it was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis would be rejected and the alternative hypothesis that the perception varied during the time period, was accepted. Both t distribution and chi-square distribution were used only when the sample was normally distributed and the variables were normally distributed.

(iv) The logistic function

Logistic regression was also applied to analyse the quantitative data. The logistic function was normally applied to identify the underlying factors of a categorical variable. The logistic curve (see Figure 43) was usually used to model a categorical or binary dependent variables coded 0 or 1 because (unlike the linear regression function) the logistic function was bounded by 0 and 1.
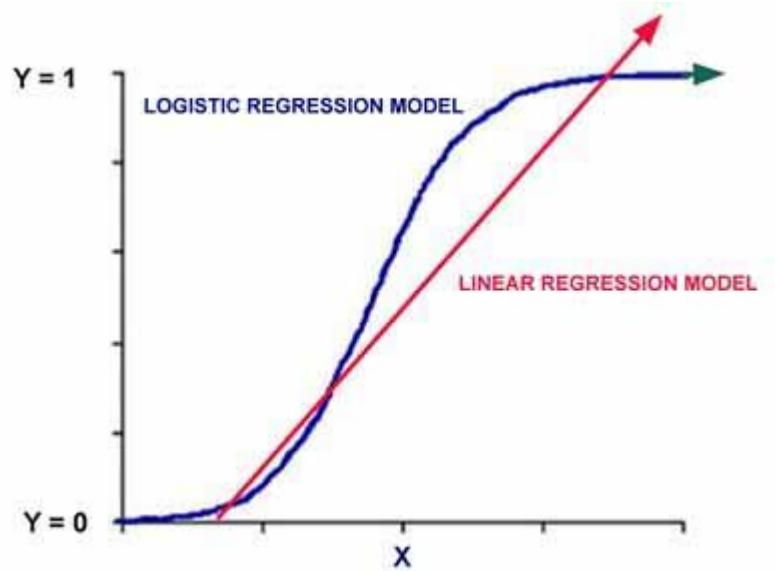
Figure 44: Logistic curve

The logistic function was used to predict the probability of an event, which was a particular value of y, the dependent variable.

Let π_i be the probability that event *i* would take place. We could model this probability in terms of the *log odds* of this event taking place, called the *logit,*

$$logit(\pi_i) = \log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) \qquad (1)$$

The *logistic regression model* fitted the log odds by a linear function of the independent variables (or the factors that affect the event).

$$\log it(\pi_i) = \alpha + x_{i1}\beta_1 + ... + x_{ij}\beta_j + ... + x_{ip}\beta_p \qquad (2)$$

Where α is the intercept and β_j is the regression coefficient associated with the independent variable x_j and the effect of x_j on the log odds (event *i*). In this study, Municipal performance was modelled using multinomial logistic regression.

5.7 SUMMARY

In Chapter 5 the research design was presented to outline the study's blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data as well as positing the research approach and strategy. The research methodology was discussed as the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used for data collection and analysis. Among others, the following were referred to in details: The study setting – nexus search established that, *this is the first empirical study of the relationship between political will and performance at the local sphere of government* and, it seemed there was no research that had attempted to establish this linkage. Population and unit of analysis - the population sample comprised of Councillors and Municipal Managers of Municipalities in Gauteng and North West provinces in South Africa; selection of the sample – a random sample was chosen of Councillors and Municipal Managers and a convenience sample was selected for Municipal experts. Data collection methods - questionnaire, interviews and secondary data collection was used. Data analysis methods – the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) and content analysis was utilised.

The Chapter concluded with a discussion of how the data was verified in terms of its validity and reliability by the utilisation of varied instruments and measurements. For instance, reliability estimated the consistency of measurements using a reliability coefficient example of Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. Validity was applied from internal and external perspectives in an attempt to ensure that the number of intervening variables in the context of the study were reduced or eliminated and to determine what populations, settings or measurements variables involved in

the study provided an inability to generalise to a larger population. This was to ensure that the results of the study were valid to the extent that they were accurately and confidently interpreted.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Pertinent to the study's research design strategy of using mixed methods, this Chapter presents the findings and results from both primary and secondary data. Primary data was gathered through a questionnaire administered to Municipal Councillors and Municipal managers (i.e. quantitative data) and through personal interviews (i.e. qualitative data) with selected Municipal experts as per Appendix C. Secondary data was gathered from reports such as Municipal Integrated Development Plans (IDPs), Municipal Annual Reports, 2013 (i.e. qualitative data) of a random sample of Municipalities in the two provinces, The Auditor-General Report (2014), newspapers and political analysts' briefs. The following quantitative data analysis should be read together with Appendix B.

It was significant to highlight that the Gauteng and Northwest provinces (i.e. locus of study), similar to other provinces in South Africa, were in turmoil and were beset by intermittent service delivery protests or uneasiness since 2011 (City Press, 2013:14). In this context the Councillors and Municipal Managers (i.e. unit of analysis) as political heads in Municipalities were affected more severely than any other stakeholder in the equation.

Their responsibility and performance were resultantly curtailed or derailed, by among others, the following:

- Municipalities under administration – Councillors' responsibilities were suspended until further notice as in Table 9. No Municipality was under administration in Gauteng at the time of the study

- Councillors were unable to meet in committees and/or in bimonthly meetings to approve

projects or tenders due to political and logistical challenges

- Councillors were cagey to be interrogated about anything related to Municipal performance and/or service delivery.

In this context a random sampling method was used to distribute questionnaires to Municipalities excluding those that were under administration (Tables 9 & 10).

Table 9: Municipalities under administration in Northwest – interventions in terms of Section 139 of the Constitution

	Year of Intervention	End of intervention	Nature of Problem
1. Ngaka Modiri Molemela District Municipality	01 April 2012	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality
2. Moses Kotane Local Municipality (Bojanala Platinum District Municipality)	01 April 2012	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality
3. Tswaing Local Municipality (Ngaka Modiri Molemela District Municipality)	01 July 2012	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality.
4. Madibeng Local Municipality (Bojanala Platinum District Municipality)	01 July 2012	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality.
5. Maquassi Hills LM (Kenneth Kaunda District)	01 April 2013	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality.
6. Matlosana Local Municipality (Dr. Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality)	01 April 2013	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality.
7. Ditsobotla Local Municipality (Ngaka Modiri Molemela District)	01 April 2013	Current	Governance, financial and administrative dysfunctionality.

(Source: COGTA Report, 2013)

Table 10: Distribution of sample responses (Councillors/Municipal Managers) by Municipality

Municipalities	Population	Responses	Percentage
Bojanala	75	68	10.4
Emfuleni	101	50	7.7
Kgetleng	12	10	1.5
Mafikeng	64	57	8.7
Merafong	56	28	4.3
Midvaal	31	15	2.3
Mogale City	80	40	6.1
Moretele	55	49	7.5
Randfontein	52	32	4.9
Ratlou	30	30	4.6
Ruth	29	29	4.4
Taung	51	47	7.2
Tlokwe	52	48	7.4
Tshwane	210	109	16.7
Westonania	38	19	2.9
Westrand	44	22	3.4
Total	**980**	**653**	**100.0**

Blue denotes Municipalities in Gauteng province. **Black** denotes Municipalities in Northwest province.

Remarks: From a population of 1706 Councillors/Municipal Managers in the two provinces a sample of 653 provides a confidence level of 95% with a margin of error of 2.5%.

6.2 DEMOGRAPHICS

(i) Age Group

In the questionnaire respondents indicated their age in years in categories such as 18-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and more than 60 years. In Table 11 and Figure 45, it was evident that most of the respondents were between 41 and 50 years followed by the age group of 51 and 60, while the least number of the respondents were less than 30 years old. The majority (95.1%) were between ages 31 to 60 and more. This could be ascribed to perhaps that fewer young people choose to participate in politics and/or perhaps they haven't as yet reached the Maslow's need satisfaction level of self-actualisation. Whilst those who are in the system remained probably due to a sense of job satisfaction.

Table 11: Age group

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
18 – 30	16	2.5	2.5	2.5
31 – 40	161	24.7	24.7	27.1
41 – 50	262	40.1	40.2	67.3
51 – 60	197	30.2	30.2	97.5
60 +	16	2.5	2.5	100.0
Total	652	99.8	100.0	
Missing data	1	.2		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		
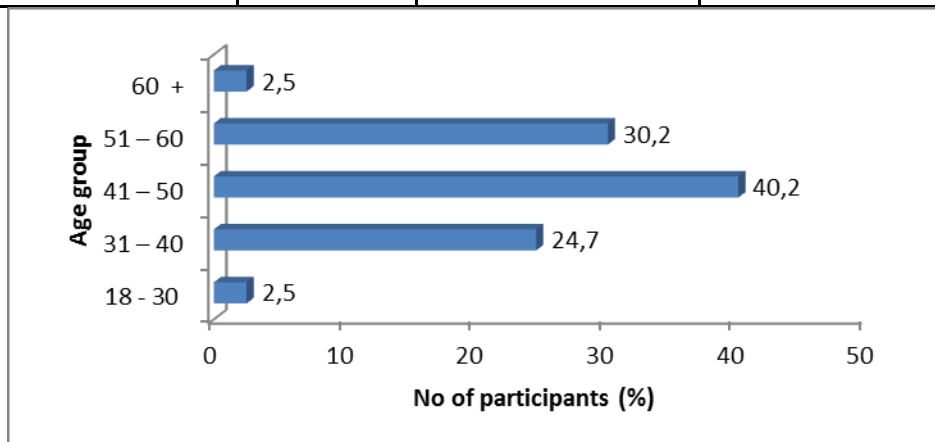
Figure 45: Distribution of participants by age

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(ii) Gender

Table 12 and Figure 46 indicated that 39.1% were males and 60.9% females respectively. The data showed a strong presence of female Councillors/Municipal Managers in the system could partially be explained by Table 12 and Figure 46 which indicated that the male/female ratios within the two provinces are heavily weighted towards the female gender as shown below. The predominance of female Councillors/Municipal Managers could be ascribed to the ruling party's (ANC) female majority and its policy of 50:50 ratio of male and female in all levels of government.

Table 12: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Male	252	38.6	39.1
Female	393	60.2	60.9
Total	645	98.8	100.0
Missing data	8	1.2	
Total	**653**	**100.0**	
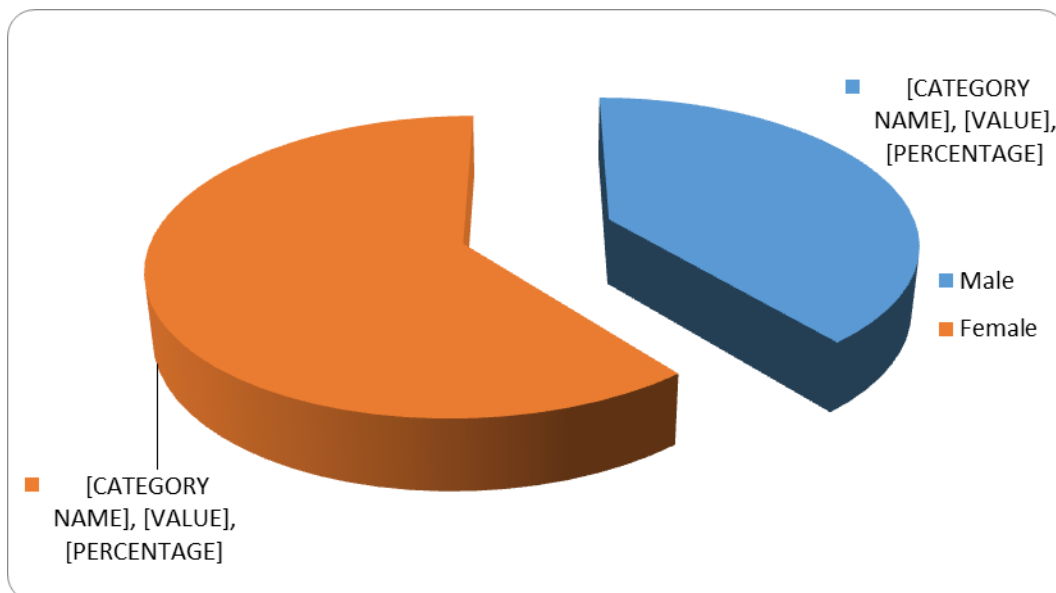
Figure 46: Distribution of participants by gender

(iii) Work level group: categories of participants

Table 13 and Figure 47 showed the percentage distribution of categories of participants by work level group. It was indicated that 16 (2.8%) Municipal Managers completed questionnaires, and the overwhelming majority, 637 (97.2%) were Councillors. The Councillors and Municipal Managers as political appointees were the study's unit of analysis.

Table 13: Work level group

Work level group	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Municipal Managers	16	2.8	2.8
Councillors	632	96.5	97.2
Total	648	99.2	100.0
Missing data	5	.8	
Total	**653**	**100.0**	

See Figure 46 for a more clear illustration
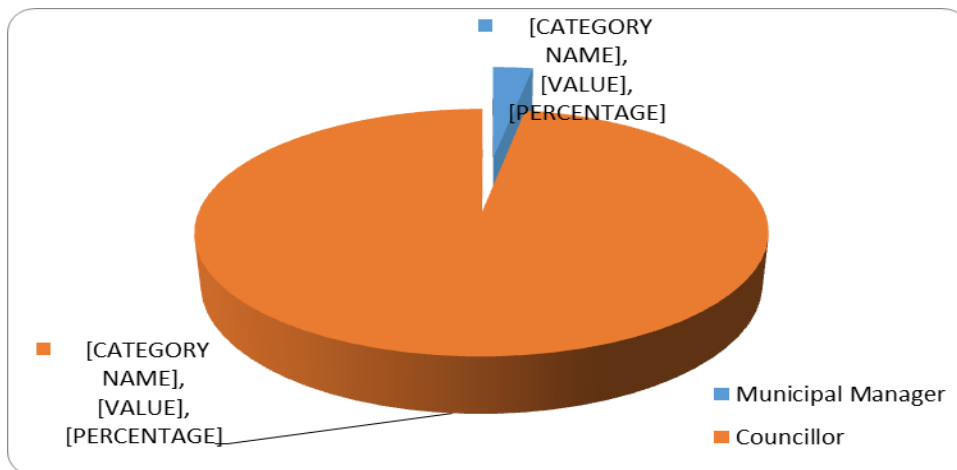
Figure 47: Distribution of participants by work level group

(iv) Work experience

Another important factor researched was the years of work experience of Councillors and Municipal Managers. Table 14 and Figure 48 indicate that the majority (79.1%) of Councillors and Municipal Managers had worked in the Municipality for between 3 to 15 years, whereas a small percentage of them (12.2%) had worked in the Municipality for less than 3 years. These percentages illustrated the point raised previously that perhaps fewer young people are in political positions and those in politics were inclined to serve longer in all levels of government.

Table 14: Work experience in the municipality (in years)

Work experience	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
0 – 3	78	11.9	12.2	12.2
3 – 5	129	19.8	20.2	32.3
5 – 10	189	28.9	29.5	61.9
10 – 15	188	28.8	29.4	91.3
15 – 20	55	8.4	8.6	99.8
20 +	1	.2	.2	100.0
Total	640	98.0	100.0	
Missing data	13	2.0		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		
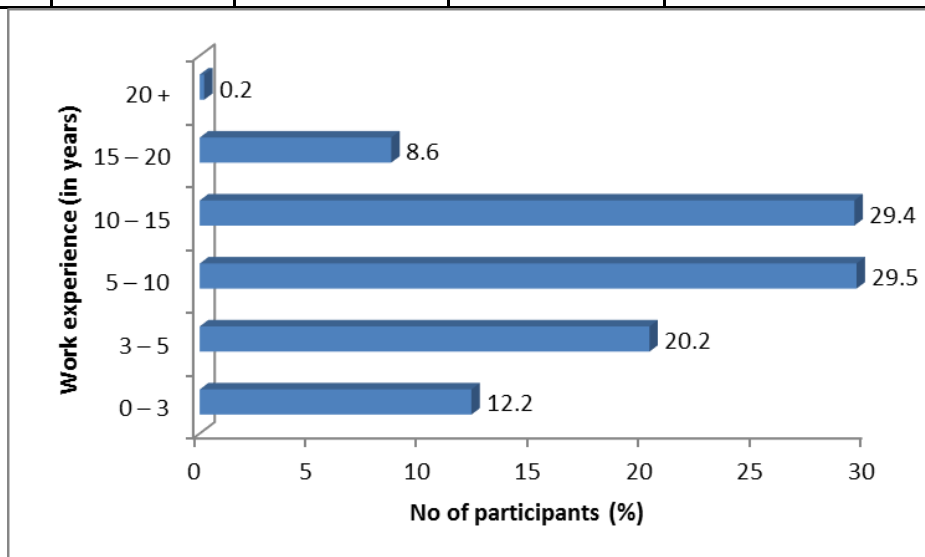
Figure 48: Distribution of participants by work experience

(v) Education

According to Table 15, 27.3% of the participants had either a Matric or no other qualification; 69.5% had either a Diploma or university degree including a Master's or PhD. Table 15 and Figure 49 gives a more clear illustration. These high levels of educational standards could be ascribed to the fact that the majority of Councillors/Municipal Managers were drawn from educators.

Table 15: Education

Highest qualification	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Std/Grade Passed	22	3.4	3.5	3.5
Grade 12 (Matric)	156	23.9	24.7	28.2
Technical Certificate (N4, N5, N6)	134	20.5	21.2	49.4
B Degree/B Tech/National Diploma	194	29.7	30.7	80.1
Honours Degree	109	16.7	17.2	97.3
Master's Degree or PhD	17	2.6	2.7	100.0
Total	632	96.8	100.0	
Missing data	21	3.2		
Total	653	100.0		
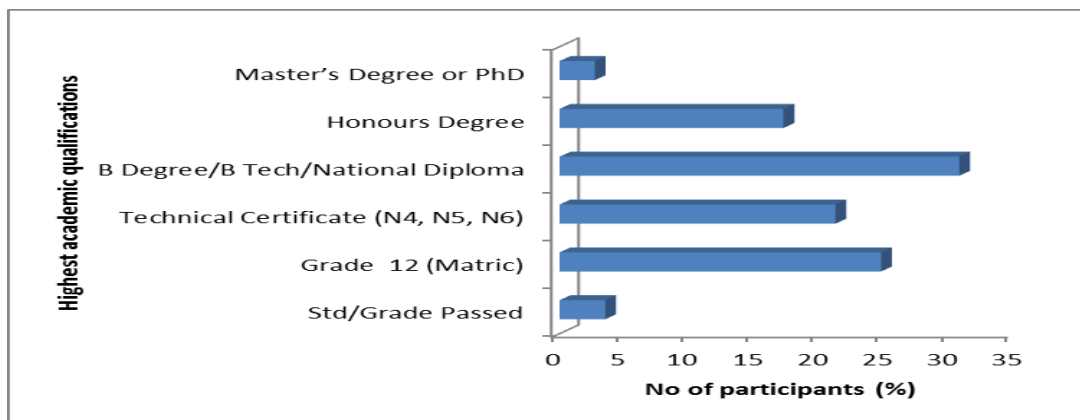
Figure 49: Distribution of participants by education

(vi) Department, section or area of responsibility

Another important factor researched was the distribution of Councillors by department, section or area of responsibility. Municipal Managers, although politically appointed also served as administrative leaders (.9%). The majority of Councillors (64.0%) were responsible for departments such as corporate services (8.0%), Finance (4.9%), procurement (4.5%), social services (6.8%), and others as shown in Table 16 and Figure 50. Generally the majority of Councillors (63.7) were not allocated specific responsibility due to their lack of relevant business skills and technical education.

Table 16: Distribution of participants by department, section or area of responsibility

Dept., Section of Responsibility	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Municipal Manager	6	.9	.9	.9
Corporate Services	52	8.0	8.0	8.9
Finance	32	4.9	4.9	13.8
Procurement	29	4.4	4.5	18.3
Social Services	44	6.7	6.8	25.1
Communications	12	1.8	1.8	26.9
Economic Development	20	3.1	3.1	30.0
Infrastructural Development	39	6.0	6.0	36.0
Other	416	63.7	64.0	100.0
Total	650	99.5	100.0	
Missing data	3	.5		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		
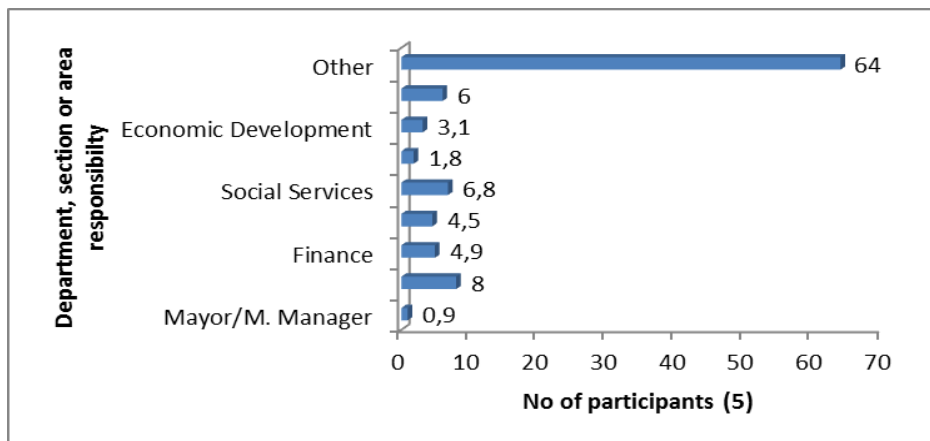
Figure 50: Distribution of participants by department, section or area of responsibility

6.3 STUDY'S OBJECTIVES

6.3.1 Objective 1

To establish the "opinions" held by Municipal political leaders about service delivery will be demonstrated by their political attitudes towards their work.

Tables 17, 18 and 19 show the average (mode) ratings of the items in the three Likert Scales of *understanding* of opinions and attitudes, *intensity* of opinions and attitudes, and *salience* of opinions and attitudes respectively. They also showed the percentage distributions of the ratings. The participants scored all the items in Likert scale very highly at a 4 or 5. According to Table 16, the average ratings of all the items are either a 4 or 5, indicating that on average, the participants either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements. Combining "strongly disagree" with "disagree"; and "agree" with "strongly agree" one can compare the two sides of the Likert scale in terms of "disagree" and "agree". Referring to Table 16, all the differences between the percentages of "disagree" and those of "agree" were obviously huge. For example, for item no. 2 (i.e. my political will is dictated by the party's policies), the percentage for "disagree" was 3.1 compared to 84.7% for "agree". The majority (95.1%) of participants in the study were between ages 31 to 60; that 39.1% were males and 60.9% females respectively; that the majority (79.1%) of Councillors and Municipal Managers had worked in the Municipality for between 3 to 15 years and 69.5% had either a Diploma or university degree including a Master's or PhD. This implied that the expressed opinions and attitudes were from Municipal leaders (mostly women) that are matured, educated and experienced in local government matters. The majority (95.1%) of participants in the study were between ages 31 to 60; that 39.1% were males and 60.9% females respectively; that the majority (79.1%) of Councillors and Municipal Managers had worked in the Municipality for between 3 to 15 years and 69.5% had either a Diploma or university degree including a Master's or PhD. This implied that the expressed opinions and attitudes were from Municipal leaders (mostly women) that were matured, educated and experienced in local government matters.

Table 17: Average values of ratings of the individual Likert scale items (Understanding)

Ser. No	Questionnaire	Average (Mode)	Perception rating (%)					Total
			1	2	3	4	5	
1	My party has spelled out political will to Councillors and Municipal Managers	5	7 1.1%	14 2.2%	51 8.0%	259 40.5%	309 48.3%	640 100.0%
2	My political will is dictated by its policies	5	0 0.0%	20 3.1%	79 12.2%	267 41.3%	281 43.4%	647 100.0%
3	My leadership style is part of my political will	5	1 .2%	33 5.1%	44 6.8%	273 42.2%	296 45.7%	647 100.0%
4	I know my party political will	5	3 .5%	13 2.0%	67 10.3%	260 40.1%	305 47.1%	648 100.0%
5	My political will is to deliver to constituencies needs	5	6 .9%	10 1.5%	37 5.7%	279 43.1%	316 48.8%	648 100.0%
6	Our political will and policies is one and the same thing	4	4 .6%	32 5.0%	60 9.3%	290 45.0%	258 40.1%	644 100.0%
7	Municipal leader should reflect policies and will	5	7 1.1%	29 4.5%	62 9.6%	248 38.2%	303 46.7%	649 100.0%
8	My political will is similar to the one of my party	4	6 .9%	24 3.7%	44 6.8%	287 44.4%	286 44.2%	647 100.0%
9	Political will is more important than leadership style	4	39 6.0%	45 6.9%	69 10.6%	322 49.7%	173 26.7%	648 100.0%
10	Municipal leaders should share a similar understand of their party's political will	5	22 3.4%	20 3.1%	126 19.4%	198 30.5%	284 43.7%	650 100.0%
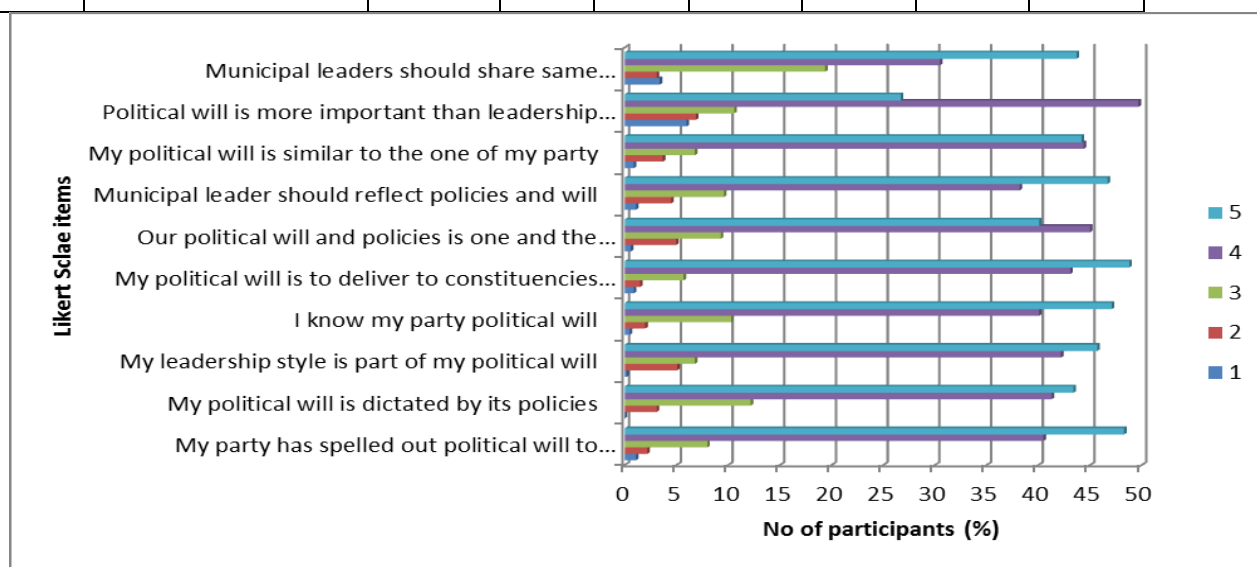
Figure 51: Understanding of opinions and attitudes

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Table 17 and Figure 51 illustrate more clearly that the participants and indeed the Municipal Managers and Councillors in general had a good sense and understanding of political will as dictated by their political parties, and that the political will was to deliver to the needs of their communities. This was despite the performance of their Municipalities as reflected in sub-section 6.3 Qualitative Data.

6.3.2 Objective 2
To determine the "intensity" of these political opinions about motivating people to deliver

Table 18 shows that all the average ratings of the items except one are a 4 indicating that on average, the participants agreed with the statements. Combining "strongly disagree" with "disagree" and "agree" with "strongly agree" one found that almost all the percentages for "agree" are higher than those for "disagree" by far. For example, the percentage for "disagree" is 12.0% and is 79.6% for "agree" for item no. 2 (i.e. my work is driven by my party political will). This implied that on average, the participants and indeed the Municipal Managers and Councillors in general had strong opinions and attitudes towards their party political will, and their work was driven by their political will.

Four items were outstanding; namely, (1) My work was driven by my party political will (66.1% + 13.5% = 79.6%), (2) I strongly believed in my party political will (69.0% + 17.9% = 86.9%), (3) Leaders voluntarily follow their party policies (66.0% + 13.7% = 79.7%), and (4) Organisational culture was strongly informed by party policies (68.6% + 16.5% = 85.1%). The participants scored these items very highly – at ratings of 4 and 5 respectively. The item, 'We talk about political will in the Council quite often' scored 24.4% for '2' which was relatively high. Table 18 and Figure 52 illustrated this phenomenon more clearly. The majority (95.1%) of participants in the study were between ages 31 to 60; that 39.1% were males and 60.9% females respectively; that the majority (79.1%) of Councillors and Municipal Managers had worked in the Municipality for between 3 to 15 years and 69.5% had either a Diploma or university degree including a Master's or PhD. This implied that the full understanding of political will was from Municipal leaders (mostly women) that were matured, educated and experienced in local government matters.

Table 18: Average values of ratings of the individual Likert scale items (Intensity)

Ser. No	Questionnaire	Average (Mode)	Perception rating (%)					Total
			1	2	3	4	5	
11	We talk about political will in the Council quite often	4	7 1.1%	159 24.4%	152 23.3%	245 37.6%	88 13.5%	651 100.0%
12	My work is driven by my party political will	4	52 8.0%	26 4.0%	55 8.4%	430 66.1%	88 13.5%	651 100.0%
13	I strongly believe in my party political will	4	5 .8%	28 4.3%	52 8.0%	448 69.0%	116 17.9%	641 100.0%
14	Municipality mission is underpinned by party political will and policies	4	21 3.3%	91 14.2%	136 21.1%	206 32.1%	188 29.3%	641 100.0%
15	Leaders are motivated by party policies	5	15 2.3%	23 3.5%	136 20.9%	188 28.9%	289 44.4%	651 100.0%
16	Leadership has clear guiding political philosophy	4	24 3.7%	44 6.8%	147 22.9%	251 39.0%	177 27.5%	643 100.0%
17	Leaders strongly adhere to party policies	4	20 3.1%	102 15.7%	106 16.4%	272 42.0%	148 22.8%	648 100.0%
18	Leaders are aware and practice party political will	4	16 2.5%	32 5.0%	108 16.8%	275 42.8%	211 32.9%	642 100.0%
19	Leaders voluntarily follow their party policies	4	38 5.9%	31 4.8%	62 9.6%	425 66.0%	88 13.7%	644 100.0%
20	Organisational culture is strongly informed by party policies	4	9 1.4%	33 5.1%	54 8.3%	444 68.6%	107 16.5%	647 100.0%

Figure 51 illustrates this phenomenon more clearly.
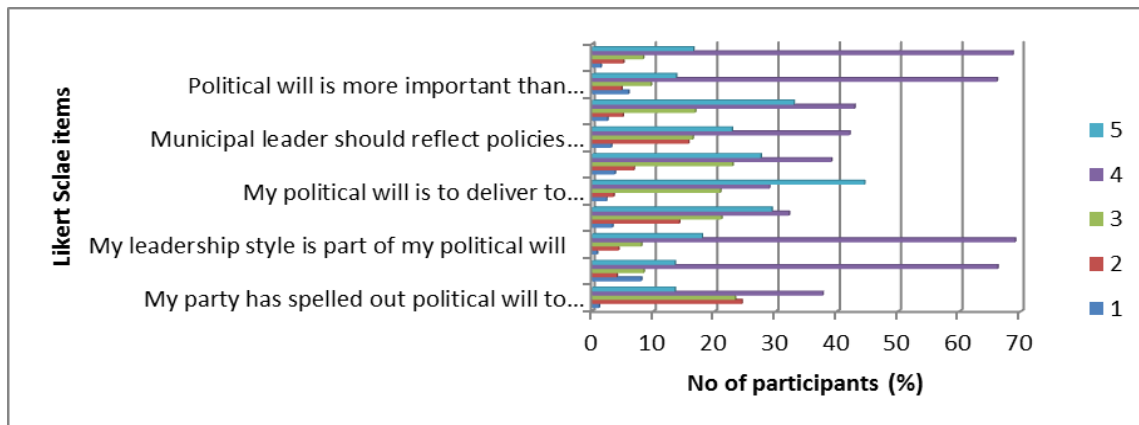
Figure 52: Intensity of opinions and attitudes

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From Table 18 and Figure 52 it was apparent that Councillors and Municipal Managers strongly understand (i.e. intensity) their political will that should motive them to deliver according to their political mandates. In other words, they knew what was expected of them in Municipalities. Again this intensive comprehension on the part of the participants was contrary to the performance of their Municipalities as reflected in sub-section 6.3 Qualitative Data. An interesting outcome was their low score (24.4%) relating to their discussion of political will in the Council. This was not surprising because in the Council, Councillors should focus on the IDP's matters agreed upon jointly. The issues of political will and party policies were to be dealt with in their respective, *inter alia*, political meetings, conferences and rallies.

6.3.3 Objective 3

To assess the "salience" of the said political opinions and attitudes towards achieving Municipal performance based on community expectations

Table 19 and Figure 53, indicate all the average ratings at a 4, indicating that on average, the participants agreed with the statements. Also when "strongly disagree" was combined with "disagree" and "agree" was combined with "strongly agree", one finds that the percentages for "disagree" range from 10% (Lack of political would amongst Municipal leaders resulted in inept and poor performance) to 32.3% (Party policies were not adhered to in Municipality) whereas for "agree" they ranged from 50.9% (Leaders actively participate in planning and implementing service delivery programmes) to 74.4% (Leaders could be sanctioned if they violate party policies). This implied that the participants and indeed the Municipal Managers and Councillors at large believed and had a good sense of the relevance between political will and Municipal performance. 'Party policies were not adhered to in Municipality' had an exceptionally high percentage of 15.2 for '1', which might be a good reflection for Municipal performance. 'Leaders could be sanctioned if they violated party policies' had relatively a high percentage of 30.6 for '3'. The same applied to 'Leaders engage and consult with communities in what they demand (24.3%)' and 'Lack of political will amongst Municipal leaders resulted in inept and poor performance (22.4%)'. Table 19 and Figure 53 illustrate this phenomenon more clearly.

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The majority (95.1%) of participants in the study were between ages 31 to 60; that 39.1% were males and 60.9% females respectively; that the majority (79.1%) of Councillors and Municipal Managers had worked in the Municipality for between 3 to 15 years and 69.5% had either a Diploma or university degree including a Master's or PhD. This implied that the participants (mostly women that were mature, educated and experienced in local government matters) believed and had a good sense of the relevance between political will and Municipal performance.

Table 19: Average values of ratings of the individual Likert scale items (Salience)

Ser. No	Questionnaire	Average (Mode)	Perception rating (%)					Total
			1	2	3	4	5	
21	There is connection between political will and Municipal performance	4	18 2.8%	148 22.8%	50 7.7%	367 56.5%	66 10.2%	649 100.0%
22	Party policies should be answerable to communities needs	4	10 2.8%	23 22.8%	58 7.7%	445 56.5%	112 10.2%	648 100.0%
23	Our political will always drives service delivery in the Municipality	4	13 2.0%	105 16.2%	60 9.2%	374 57.6%	97 14.9%	649 100.0%
24	Lack of political will amongst Municipal leaders result in inept and poor performance	4	30 4.6%	35 5.4%	145 22.4%	329 50.8%	109 16.8%	648 100.0%
25	Party policies are not adhered to in Municipality	4	98 15.2%	110 17.1%	76 11.8%	308 47.8%	52 8.1%	644 100.0%
26	Leaders engage and consult with communities in what they demand	4	52 8.0%	48 7.4%	158 24.3%	298 45.8%	94 14.5%	650 100.0%
27	Leaders continually fight for improved service delivery in communities	4	59 9.1%	34 5.2%	71 11.0%	396 61.1%	88 13.6%	648 100.0%
28	Leaders could be sanctioned if they violate party policies	4	19 2.9%	37 5.7%	199 30.6%	285 43.8%	110 16.9%	650 100.0%
29	Leaders actively participate in planning and implementing service delivery programmes	4	25 3.8%	160 24.6%	43 6.6%	288 44.3%	134 20.6%	650 100.0%
30	Leaders always take initiative to improve service delivery	4	7 1.2%	62 10.6%	112 19.1%	262 44.6%	144 24.5%	587 100.0%
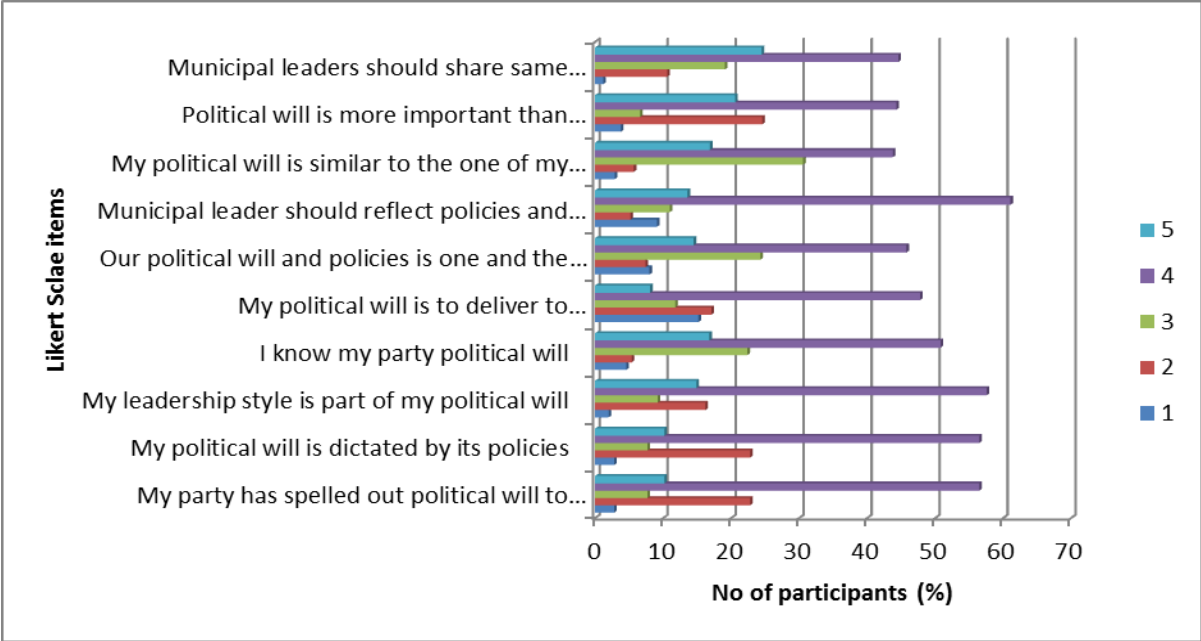
Figure 53: Salience of opinions and attitudes

Table 19 and Figure 53, indicate that on average, the participants comprehend the relevance (i.e. salience), among others, of political will to Municipal performance (56.5%). In other words, they had a good sense of the impact of political will on Municipal performance (74.4%). However, on the contrary, they agreed that party policies are not adhered to (55.9%). This was substantiated by a low score (24.3%) on consultation and engagement with communities in what they demand. One could infer that what the participants knew and understood did not necessarily translate into action, though they claimed that political will drives service delivery in their Municipalities (57.6%).

To statistically test for the significance of the opinions and attitudes

The items in the Likert Scales were combined to form a composite score to measure the opinions and attitudes of participants towards understanding of the party political will - intensity of the opinions and attitudes and salience of opinions and attitudes. Table 19 shows the average (mean) ratings of the composite scores. All the mean values of the composite scores were above '3', which implied that, on average, the Municipal Managers and Councillors understood, had a strong opinion and attitude towards their party political will, with a conviction that their work was driven by their political will; and related party political will positively with Municipal performance and service delivery.

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Table 20: Composite score: Mean

	No	Mean	Std Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Understanding of Opinions and Attitudes	616	4.23	.60	2.30	5.00
Intensity of Opinions and Attitudes	622	3.81	.52	1.80	5.00
Salience of Opinions and Attitudes	574	3.61	.53	1.40	5.00

All composite scores were above 3. This implied that The One-Sample T test of SPSS was used to test whether the mean values were significantly different from a '3' which was the rating of 'Uncertain or Unsure' and the results that were shown in Table 20 were obtained.

Table 21: T-test results

	No	Mean	T value	Degrees of freedom	Std. Deviation	Prob. value
Understanding of Opinions and Attitudes	616	4.23	50.94	615	.60	.000
Intensity of Opinions and Attitudes	622	3.81	38.52	621	.52	.000
Salience of Opinions and Attitudes	574	3.61	27.56	573	.53	.000

Note: *, ** and *** = significant at the 10, 5 and 1% level respectively.

The results indicate that all the t –values were highly statistically significant at the 1% level of significance, which implied that all the three mean values were significantly different from '3'. This finding supported the above statement that on average, the Municipal Managers and Councillors in the North West and Gauteng provinces understood, and had strong opinions and attitudes towards the relevance of political will in achieving Municipal performance based on community expectations (Table 21). In other words, the Municipal Managers and Councillors in the two provinces under study agreed that political will as a variable definitely did impact on Municipal performance.

6.3.4 Objective 4

To determine the interconnection between political will and service delivery in Municipalities

Multinomial logistic regression (see Appendix F) was used to model the ordinal outcome variable, Municipal performance in which log odds of the outcome were modelled. Data on Municipal performance was obtained from Annual Reports and the Auditor-General Report, (2014) (in terms of Municipal's finance, performance, leadership and governance) summarised as (1) unqualified, (2) qualified and (3) disclaimer (i.e. worse assessment) categories. In this regression, category 3 (disclaimer) was used as the reference category. This meant that the parameters were interpreted in reference to this category. The majority (95.1%) of participants in the study were between ages 31 to 60; that 39.1% were males and 60.9% females respectively; that the majority (79.1%) of Councillors and Municipal Managers had worked in the Municipality for between 3 to 15 years and 69.5% had either a Diploma or university degree including a Master's or PhD. This implied that the participants (mostly women that were matured, educated and experienced in local government matters) understood the connection between political will and Municipal performance.

The first regression model was fitted on the first variable (Understanding index) which was created by aggregating the scores on the Likert scale that measured the first aspect of political will (i.e., understanding of opinions and attitudes about political will and policy) in section 1 of the questionnaire and divided the aggregates by 10 to obtain the average scores. These average

scores of the index were the values that were actually used in the regression analysis.

Ho: The null hypothesis that was tested was that presence or absence of political will amongst political leaders appeared to be the *sine quo non* for explaining the continued mediocre Municipal performance in South Africa.

H1: An alternative hypothesis that was tested and rejected was that political will did not affect Municipal performance.

The following were the results as shown in the tables:

Table 22: Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Intercept Only	205.205			
Final	176.569	28.637	2	.000

Table 22:1 Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.045
Nagelkerke	.056
McFadden	.028

Table 21.2: Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Intercept	231.573	55.005	2	.000
Understanding	205.205	28.637	2	.000

Table 22.3: Parameter Estimates

Municipal Performance		B	Std. Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Unqualified	Intercept	4.444	.785	32.061	1	.000	
	Understanding	-.811	.180	20.398	1	.000	.444
Qualified	Intercept	-1.466	1.420	1.066	1	.302	
	Understanding	.071	.320	.050	1	.823	1.074

(i) Opinions

The likelihood ratio Chi-square of 28.637 with p-value (.000) < 0.0001 articulates that the model as a whole fitted significantly better than a model without a predictor. This meant that the political will aspect of 'understanding' was related and affected Municipal performance. A one unit increase in the variable (political will) was associated with a .811 decrease in the relative log odds of being in category one of 'unqualified' versus category 3 of 'disclaimer'. The results indicate that there was no significant difference in Municipal performance between 'qualified' and disclaimer' categories.

The average scores (mean values) of the "understanding of opinions and attitudes" aspect of political will for the different Municipal performance categories are shown in the Table 23 below:

Table 23: Average Scores (mean values)

Municipal Performance	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Unqualified	4.1374	412	.58780
Qualified	4.4163	49	.60255
Disclaimer	4.3974	155	.57025
Total	4.2250	616	.59684

Table 24: Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	Df	Prob.
Intercept Only	171.114			
Final	167.875	3.239	2	.198

Table 24.1: Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.005
Nagelkerke	.006
McFadden	.003

Table 24.2: Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Prob.
Intercept	172.398	4.523	2	.104
Sect2	171.114	3.239	2	.198

Table 24.3: Parameter Estimates

Municipal Performance		B	Std. Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp (B)
1	Intercept	-.202	.664	.092	1	.761	
	Sect2	.310	.174	3.160	1	.075	1.363
2	Intercept	-2.353	1.209	3.790	1	.052	
	Sect2	.319	.314	1.032	1	.310	1.376

(ii)   Intensity

The likelihood ratio Chi-square of 3.239 with p-value (.198) > .05 articulates that the model as a whole did not fit significantly better than a model without a predictor. This meant that the political will aspect of 'intensity' was not related and did not affect Municipal performance. The results are shown in the Tables: 25, 25.1, 25.2 and 25.3:

Table 25: Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Prob.
Intercept Only	197.428			
Final	180.897	16.531	2	.000

Table 25.1: Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.028
Nagelkerke	.036
McFadden	.018

Table 25.2: Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Prob.
Intercept	190.805	9.907	2	.007
Sect3	197.428	16.531	2	.000

Table 25.3: Parameter Estimates

Municipal Performance		B	Std. Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp (B)
1	Intercept	-1.778	.680	6.842	1	.009	
	Sect3	.756	.191	15.653	1	.000	2.129
2	Intercept	-3.368	1.363	6.105	1	.013	
	Sect3	.507	.378	1.805	1	.179	1.661

(iii) Salience

The likelihood ratio Chi-square of 16.531 with p-value (.000) < 0.0001 articulates that the model as a whole fitted significantly better than a model without a predictor. This meant that the political will aspect of 'salience' was related and affects Municipal performance. A one unit increase in the variable (political will) was associated with a .756 increase in the relative log odds of being in category one of 'unqualified' versus category 3 of 'disclaimer'. The results indicate that there was no significant difference in Municipal performance between "qualified" and "disclaimer" categories. This result indicated that political will increases Municipal performance. The results are illustrated in Tables 26, 26.1, 26.2 and 26.3.

General composite score

The chi-square statistic was the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model was formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis was that all parameters of that effect are 0. The measurement of Municipal performance was done in accordance with the Auditors General Report, 2014 criteria, namely, unqualified, qualified and disclaimer – worse performance as shown in Figure 26.

The following were the results as shown in the Tables hereunder:

Table 26: Municipal Performance – Mean and Standard Deviation

Municipal Performance	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
1. Unqualified	3.8981	353	.39164
2. Qualified	3.8908	29	.45972
3. Disclaimer	3.8646	145	.40940
Total	3.8885	527	.40000

Table 26. 1: Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Prob.
Intercept Only	251.181			
Final	250.465	.716	2	.699

Table 26. 2: Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.001
Nagelkerke	.002
McFadden	.001

Table 26. 3: Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Prob.
Intercept	252.107	1.642	2	.440
general score	251.181	.716	2	.699

Table 26. 4: Municipal Performance

Municipal Performance		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Prob.
1	Intercept	.087	.949	.008	1	.927
	General score	.207	.243	.721	1	.396
2	Intercept	-2.231	1.987	1.260	1	.262
	general score	.160	.509	.099	1	.753

6.3.5 Summary

The likelihood ratio Chi-square of .716 with p-value (.699) > .05 articulates that the model as a whole does not fit significantly better than a model without a predictor. This meant that political will (i.e. opinion) was somewhat partly related to Municipal performance. However, the 'understanding' and 'salience' aspects of political will were conclusively found to be related to Municipal performance. This result therefore implies that the study had found that the relationship between political will and Municipal performance was partly inconclusive and further study was recommended.

This result could be ascribed to a substantial number of Councillors' response (43.5%) expressing a negative opinion about the relationship between political will and Municipal performance. This emanated from Councillors of other political parties accusing their counterparts in the ruling party for the poor connection as characterised by service delivery lapses. However, the outcome that there was a connection between political will and Municipal performance (56.5%) was a fair positive response that was supported by qualitative findings in sub-section 6.3 Qualitative Data.

The results were further elucidated by the information and graphs in Appendix B.

6.4 QUALITATIVE DATA

6.4.1 Analysis of Interview Data

This subsection present the findings that were obtained from the data collected and analysed from interviews. Informal interviews were conducted with Municipal experts from six top accounting and consulting companies in South Africa and from four government departments and institutions responsible for supporting and monitoring Municipal performance. These were reflected in Appendix C. The sample was based on those managers (i.e. Municipal experts) responsible for driving and implementing strategy relevant to local government. The convenience sampling method was used to identify the most knowledgeable employees in the organisations to create a representative sample. The selected participants were telephoned to request their participation. This was followed by an email that included the research instrument (Appendix D). All the identified respondents agreed to be part of the study. The interviews were conducted at their respective place of work. The interviews were audio recorded and notes were taken during interviews to capture all the aspects of the interviews. The interviews were conducted to address the following research questions.

(i)   What is the level of political will amongst the political leaders in Municipalities?

(ii) How strong and effective is the political will of Municipal leaders to impel staff to perform optimally?

(iii) Are the Municipal leaders' political will answerable to the demands of their constituencies?

(iv) Is political will related to Municipal performance?

(v) What should be done for Municipalities in South Africa to be effective and efficient (developing a guidelines for Municipal success)?

The responses were analysed by means of inductive qualitative methods (Strauss & Cobin, 1998:1-250). The inductive approach enabled research findings to emerge from the frequent, dominant or significant themes inherent in the raw data without restraints imposed by structured methodologies (Thomas, 2006: 237-246). The inductive approach also allows the researcher to

condense raw textual data into a brief summary format and provided an easy-to-use systematic set of procedure for analysing qualitative data that could produce reliable and valid findings (Turner, 2010: 754-760).

The following were the findings.

A. Biographical Data: Municipal Experts

The ten Municipal experts interviewed from the private and public sectors had an average age and service of 43 years and 8 years respectively. They were all males except for two females. All were directors with a Master's degree as their highest educational standard (Appendix C).

B. Findings as per Interviews

The following graphs should be read together with Appendix C.

(i) What is in your opinion the level of political will amongst the political leaders in Municipalities?

Municipal experts expressed their views to the question as 41(71%) and 17(29%) namely, the 41(71%) responses reflected a high political will amongst political leaders in Municipalities as opposed to the 17(29%) negative responses. The relative high level of political will was characterised by the general response that the political parties spelling it out to the Councillors and the latter talking about it during caucus and Council meetings (Figure 54).
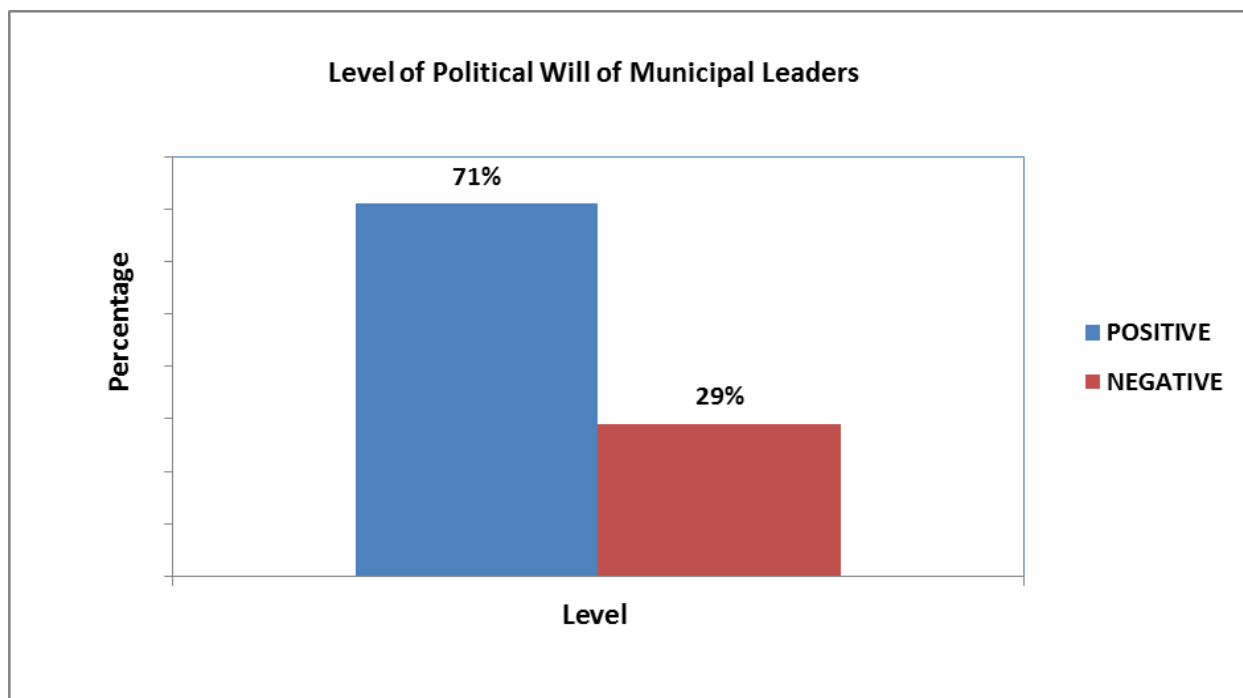
Figure 54: Level of Political Will of Municipal Leaders

(ii) How strong and effective is the political will of Municipal leaders to impel staff to perform optimally?

Municipal experts expressed their opinions to the question by recording 63(70%) positive and 27(30%) negative responses. The 63(70%) positive responses suggested that the political will was strong and effective to impel Municipal leaders to perform optimally. However, it was asserted that in practice it is not happening due to, among others, personal agendas and the agency problems besetting some Councillors and Municipal Managers as confirmed by the 27(30%) negative responses. Municipal experts argued that Councillors/ Municipal Managers were faced with more attractions or prizes beyond the Municipality such as a seat in the provincial legislature or the national parliament or even a cabinet position. These prizes were known in the left political circles as the sins of incumbency; this grasping for the trappings of a middle class life was said to be the key driver of factionalism and corruption that had raven the new political elite and Councillors were no exception (Figure 55).
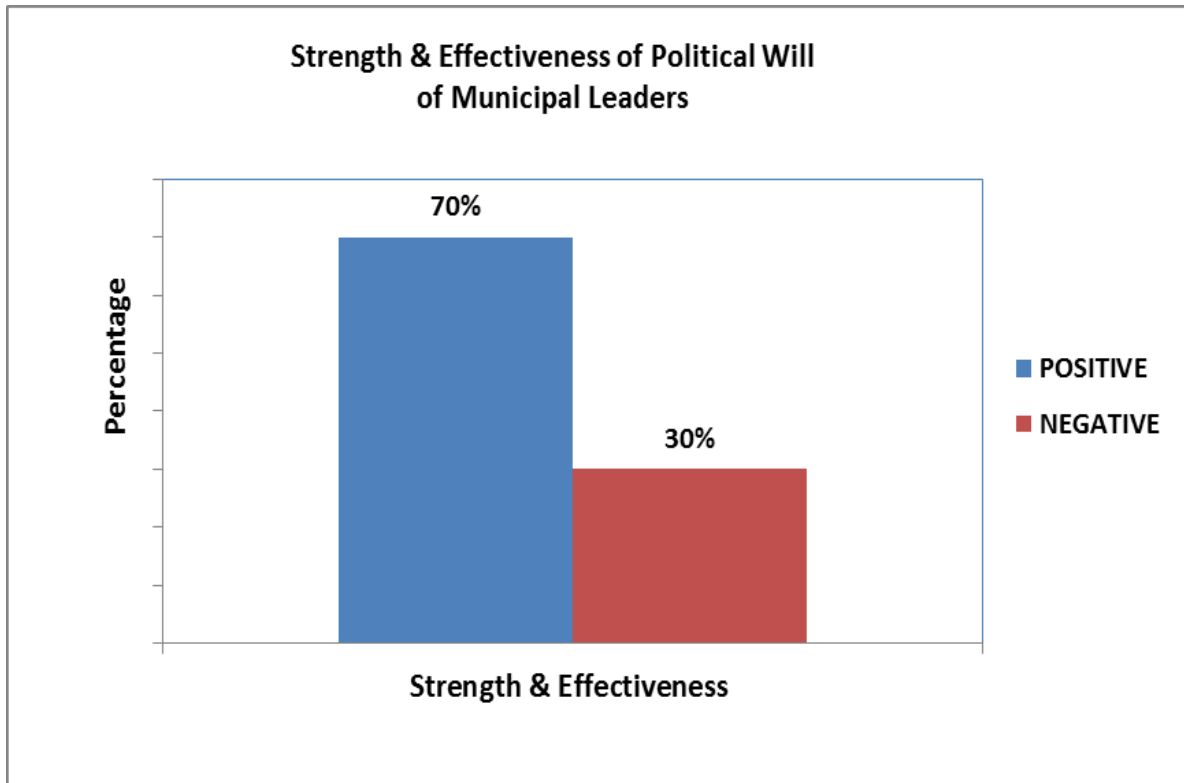
Figure 55: Strength & Effectiveness of Political Will of Municipal Leaders

(iii) Are the Municipal leaders' political will answerable to the demands of their constituencies?

Municipal experts expressed a positive response of 60(79%) and negative response of 16(21%) to the question. Most experts assert that in terms of policies, as reflected in the IDPs, Municipal leaders are answerable to their constituencies, however, actual implementation of IDPs in some Municipalities is problematic as characterised by, among others, service delivery protests (Figure 56).
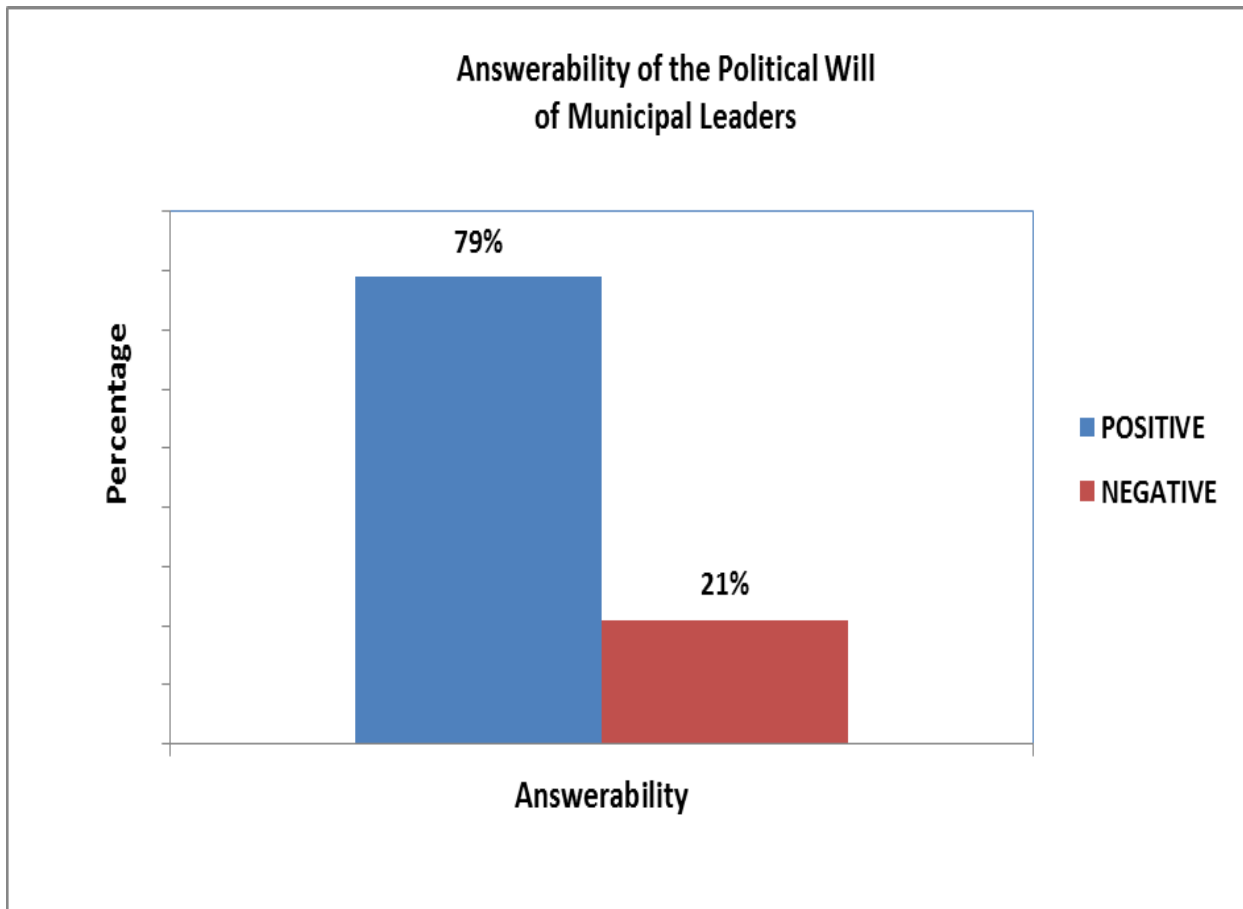
Figure 56: Answerability of Political Will of Municipal Leaders

(iv) Is political will related to Municipal performance?

Municipal experts were of the view 45(76%) that political will was related to Municipal performance as opposed to 14(24%) who expressed a view that political will was not related to Municipal performance (Figure 57).
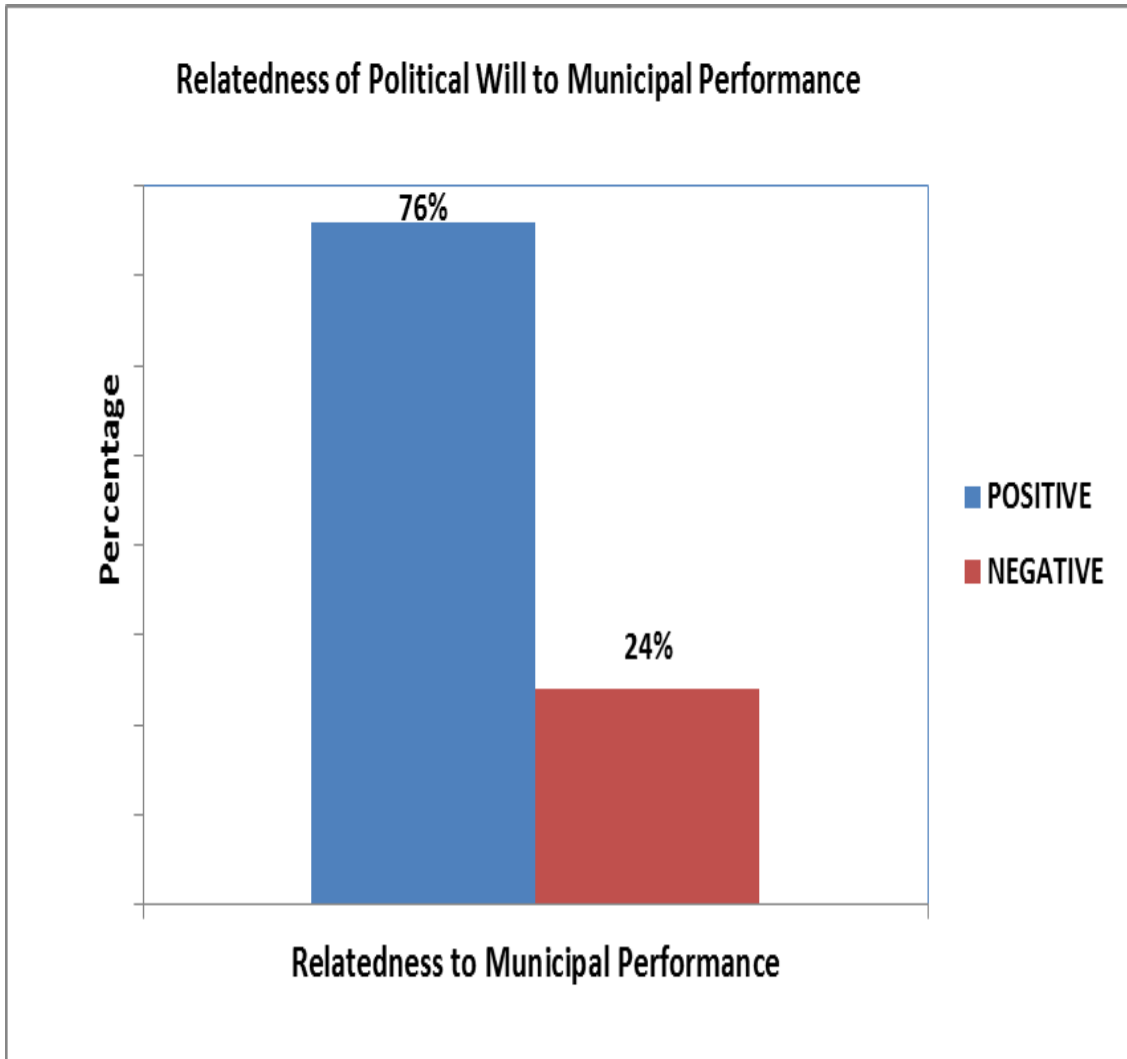
Figure 57: Relatedness of Political Will to Municipal Performance

In general all Municipal experts expressed a positive remark about the level of political will, strength/effectiveness, answerability and relatedness to Municipal performance in principle that is, the Municipal leaders' intentions, determinations and desires as opposed to the actual implementation thereof (Figure 57).

Summary of Municipal Leaders' Political Will and Municipal Performance
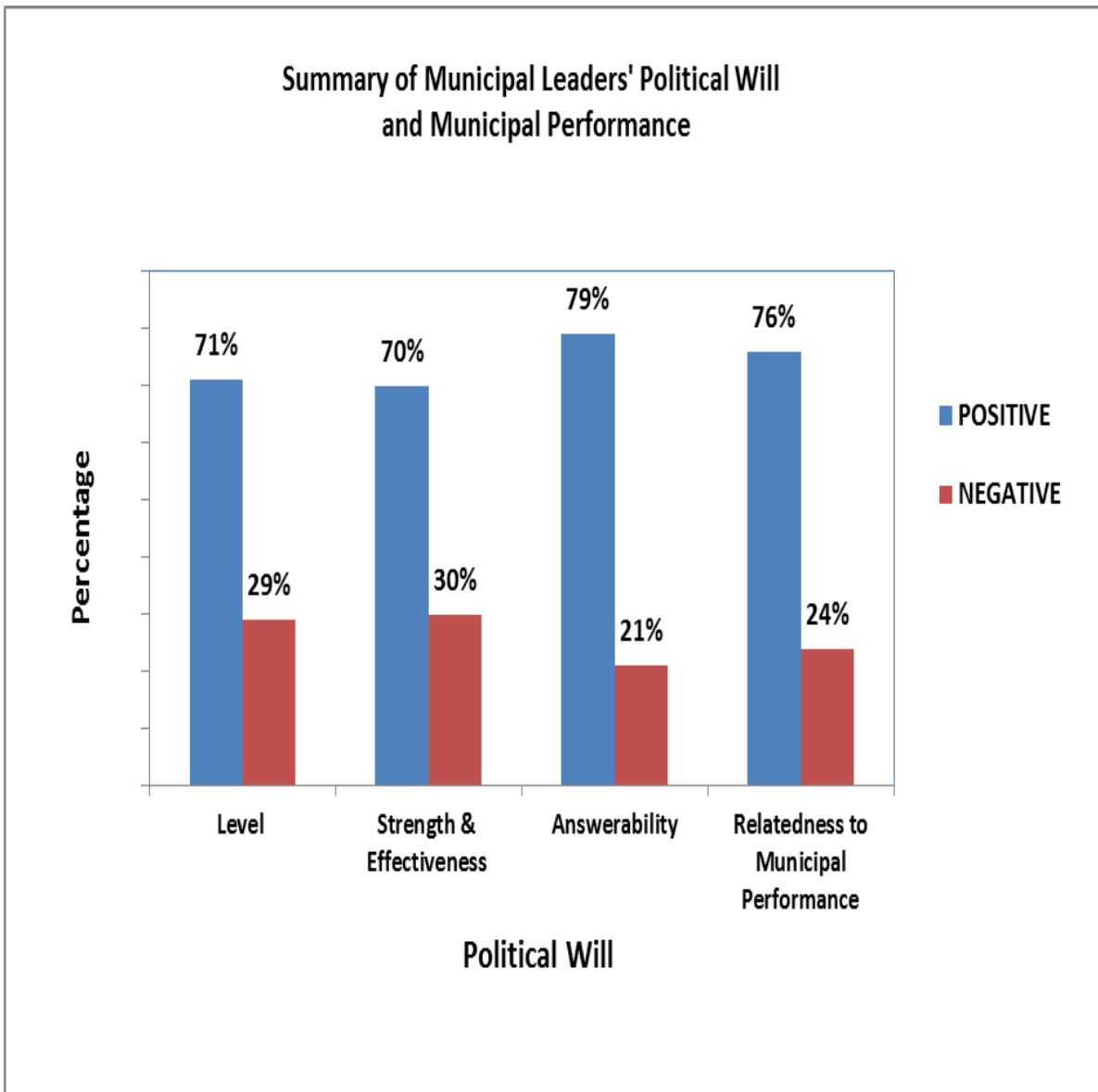
Figure 58: Summary Municipal Leaders' Political Will and Municipal Performance

Comparative Findings: Public Sector vs. Private Sector.

The public sector Municipal experts as compared to their private sector counterparts expressed a more positive view to the questions, whereas the private sector experts revealed a relatively negative opinion to the research questions (Figure 59).

Figure 59: Comparative summary of Municipal experts' responses on political will and Municipal performance

(v) What should be done in Municipalities in South Africa to be effective and efficient (developing guidelines for Municipal success)?

This question required the respondents to state their views about Municipal performance in a comprehensive manner. Municipal experts were in agreement that for Municipalities to be efficient and effective in service delivery they needed to take note of the following:

- Engage more often with communities

- That people with competency, ethos, morals and right leadership style should be considered for appointment before political deployment

- To enhance leadership and governance in local government

- To hold Municipal leadership accountable for any deviation from Municipal legislation and code of conduct, that is, imposing consequences for their actions

- That Councillors should continuously play their oversight role, that is, to monitor projects and performance constantly

- That lack of skills and knowledge to be urgently addressed, especially investment in financial skills amongst Councillors and top management

- That there should be a good understanding and alignment of organisationally known purpose and known values and principles

- That a fish rots from the head, that is, the improvement of service delivery should begin at the top of the government structure and cascaded down to provinces and local government levels

- That there was poor inter-Municipal relationship

- Municipalities were compelled to align their IDPs to national and provincial political mandates at the expense of local communities' wants and needs

- The challenge facing Municipalities was that 70% of communities' demands, such as health, roads and housing, fall outside their jurisdiction

- That local government should take note of The Auditor-General Report, (2014) advices on lack of leadership, accountability, skills and knowledge and, lack of consequences for actions.

6.4.2 Summary

The Municipal experts were generally in agreement that political will was related to Municipal performance and, that it seemed to be there amongst Councillors to impel them to perform according to their IDPs and to be answerable to their constituencies. However, actual implementation of IDPs in some Municipalities was problematic. It was contended that service delivery was not happening due to, among others, personal agendas and agency problems besetting some Councillors and Municipalities. Municipal experts concurred that for Municipalities to be effective and efficient in service delivery, they need to, among others:

- Improve community participation
- Enhance leadership, governance, accountability and code of conduct and, take action against any deviation
- Employ competent people
- Align purpose and organisational values and principles
- Political leaders to be exemplary in their behaviour.

6.4.3 Analysis of Secondary Data

This subsection presented the analysis that was obtained from the secondary data - Municipal reports, The Auditor General Report (2014) research reports and newspaper articles (physical artefacts). This was done to address the research questions.

In terms of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, the objectives of local government were set out in Section 152. They 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. In order to realise these goals, the Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2002 was promulgated.

In terms of the Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2002 it was mandatory for Municipalities to develop an annual and/or a five year IDP, that is, a business plan to guide and galvanise Municipal performance or service delivery. The Act also mandated Municipalities to report on their performances by preparing an Annual Report and communicate it to their stakeholders and communities. The Annual Report ensured that there was regular, impartial feedback to stakeholders, thereby strengthening transparency, governance and accountability. Municipalities also had the responsibility of copying the national and provincial COGTAs on their IDPs and Annual Reports.

This section deals with the assessment of Municipal IDPs, which invariably revealed the Councillors' and Municipal Managers' intentions or political will, Municipal Annual Reports for 2012/2013 operational period and The Auditor-General Report (2014). The rationale was to establish whether there was a connection between Municipal IDPs, Annual Reports, The Auditor-General Report (2014) and political will. The IDPs and Municipal Annual Reports were obtained from the national COGTA's office in Pretoria (COGTA, 2013).

6.4.3.1 Assessment of Gauteng Municipal IDPs and Annual Reports: 2012 – 2013

A. Tshwane Metro's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Tshwane Metro performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (79.5%)
- Electricity (75.5%)
- Waste Management (80.5%)
- Human Settlement (1.7%)

The Auditor-General Report (2014): Metropolitan Municipalities

The audit outcomes remained unchanged from the previous year with the City of Tshwane obtaining an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

B. Emfuleni Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Emfuleni Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (70%)

- Electricity (100%)
- Waste Management (60%)
- Human Settlement (5.21%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

According to the Auditor-General Report (2014), the Municipality obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

C. Midvaal Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Midvaal Local Municipality performed as follows:
- Water and Sanitation (74%)
- Electricity (70%)
- Human Settlement (31%)
- Waste Management (70%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

According to the Auditor-General Report (2014), the Municipality obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

D. Randfontein Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Randfontein Local Municipality performed as follows:
- Water and Sanitation (72%)
- Electricity (95%)
- Human Settlement (67%)
- Waste Management (70%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

According to the Auditor-General Report (2014), the Municipality obtained a qualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance. Intervention to improve on the latter factors is recommended.

E. Westonaria Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Westonaria Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (100%)
- Electricity (48%)
- Human Settlement (55%)
- Waste Management (60%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

According to the Auditor-General Report (2014), the Municipality obtained a qualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance. Intervention to improve on the latter factors is recommended.

F. Mogale City Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Mogale City Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (96%)
- Electricity (78%)
- Human Settlement (65%)
- Waste Management (50%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), the Municipality obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

G. Merafong Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Merafong Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (99%)
- Electricity (61%)
- Human Settlement (65%)
- Waste Management (70%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), the Municipality obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

H. West Rand District Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the West Rand District Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (90%)
- Electricity (80%)
- Human Settlement (75%)
- Waste Management (78%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), the District obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

6.4.3.2 Assessment of Northwest Municipal IDPs and Annual Reports: 2012 – 2013

A. Bojanala District Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the District performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (90%)
- Electricity (95%)
- Human Settlement (85%)
- Waste Management (95%).

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), the District obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

B. Dr Ruth S Mompati District Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Dr Ruth S Mompati Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (45%)

- Electricity (40%)

- Human Settlement (30%)

- Waste Management (45%)

The District's last Annual Report was released in 2009.

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of Auditor-General Report (2014), the District obtained an unqualified audit opinion with regard to finance, leadership and performance.

C. Kgetleng Rivier Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Kgetleng Rivier Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (40%)

- Electricity (30%)

- Human Settlement (30%)

- Waste Management (10%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), its finance, performance, leadership and governance received a disclaimer (i.e. worse assessment). Hence urgent intervention was required.

D. Moretele Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Moretele Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (30%)

- Electricity (35%)

- Human Settlement (30%)

- Waste Management (20%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), its finance, performance, leadership and governance received a disclaimer (i.e. worse assessment). Hence urgent intervention was required.

E. Ratlou Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Ratlou Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and sanitation (70%)
- Electricity (70%)
- Human Settlement (20%)
- Waste Management (40%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), its finance, performance, leadership and governance received an unqualified opinion, though some necessary changes to these factors were in progress.

F. Tlokwe Local Municipality's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision, mission and IDP the Tlokwe Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (95%)
- Electricity (95%)
- Human Settlement (80%)
- Waste Management (99.9%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), its finance, performance, leadership and governance received an unqualified opinion, though some necessary changes to these factors were in progress.

G. Greater Taung's brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision and mission and IDP the Greater Taung Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (74%)

- Electricity (83%)
- Human Settlement (30%)
- Waste Management (10%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), its finance, performance, leadership and governance received a disclaimer (i.e. worse assessment). Hence urgent intervention was required.

H. Mafikeng's Brief Annual Report: 2012 – 2013

In line with its vision and mission and IDP the Mafikeng Local Municipality performed as follows:

- Water and Sanitation (40%)
- Electricity (45%)
- Human Settlement (40%)
- Waste Management (20%)

The Auditor-General Report: 2014

In terms of the Auditor-General Report (2014), its finance, performance, leadership and governance received a disclaimer (i.e. worse assessment). Hence urgent intervention was required.

6.4.3.3 Summary

It was evident from the IDPs, Annual Reports and the Auditor-General Report (2014) findings that all Gauteng Province's sampled Municipalities generally performed adequately with regard to their financial, leadership and performance. For the Municipalities that received a qualified assessment, the Auditor-General Report (2014) advised that, among others, leadership should shift their attention to preventative and detection controls by fully supporting and capacitating their governance structures with competent individuals, embracing the quarterly key controls assessments and, when necessary, take disciplinary action against employees who had committed fraud or who had transgressed the policies and procedures of the Municipality (Auditor-General Report (2014).This was summarised in Figure 60 and 61.
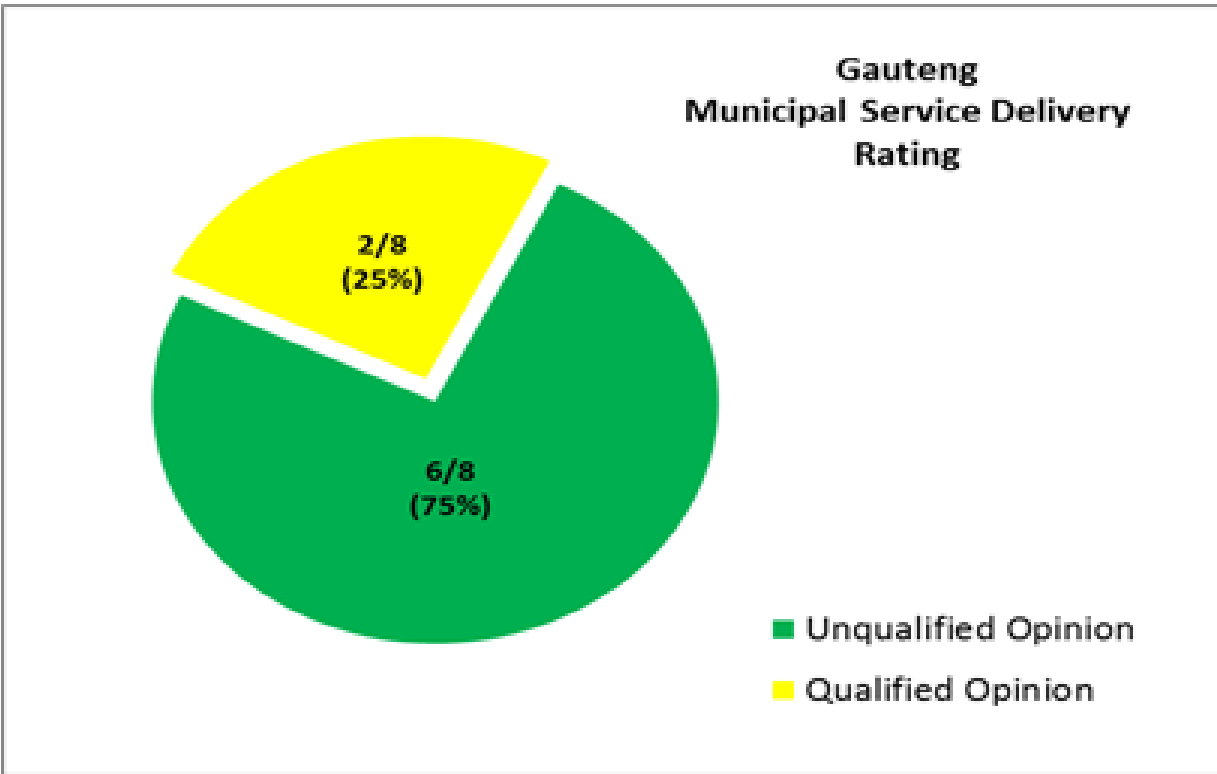
Figure 60: Gauteng Municipal service delivery rating

In terms of the IDPs, Annual Reports and the Auditor-General Report (2014) findings the Northwest Province's sampled Municipalities generally showed below par performance (i.e. received disclaimers) with regard to their financial status, leadership and performance. The Bojanala and Dr Ruth S Mompati Districts as well as the Ratlou and Tlokwe local Municipalities, however, received an unqualified opinion. The Auditor-General Report (2014) emphasised a lack of proper leadership regime in Northwest Municipalities that would put necessary internal control compliance structures in place. This was summarised in Figures 61 and 62.
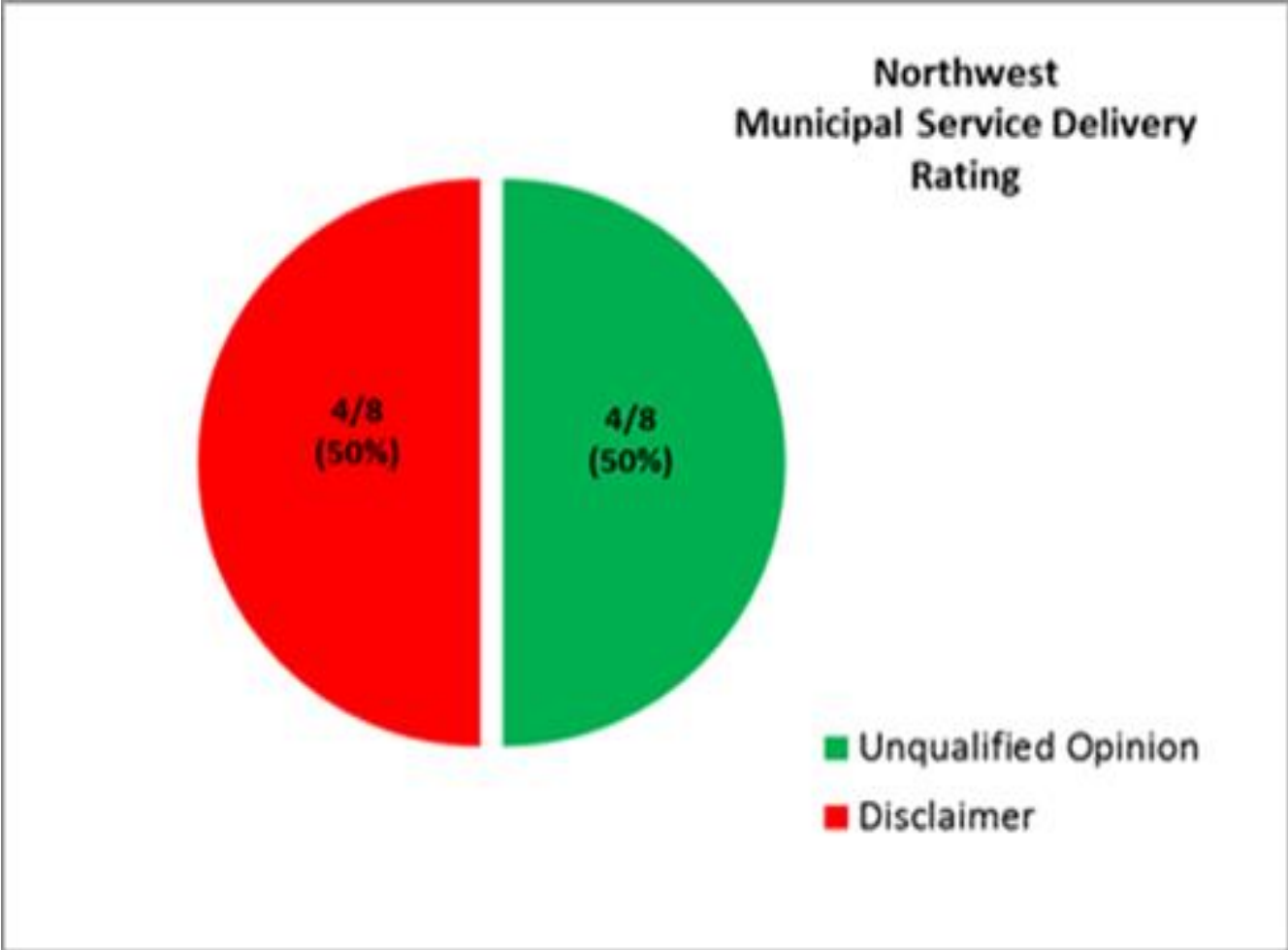
Figure 61: Northwest Municipal Service delivery rating
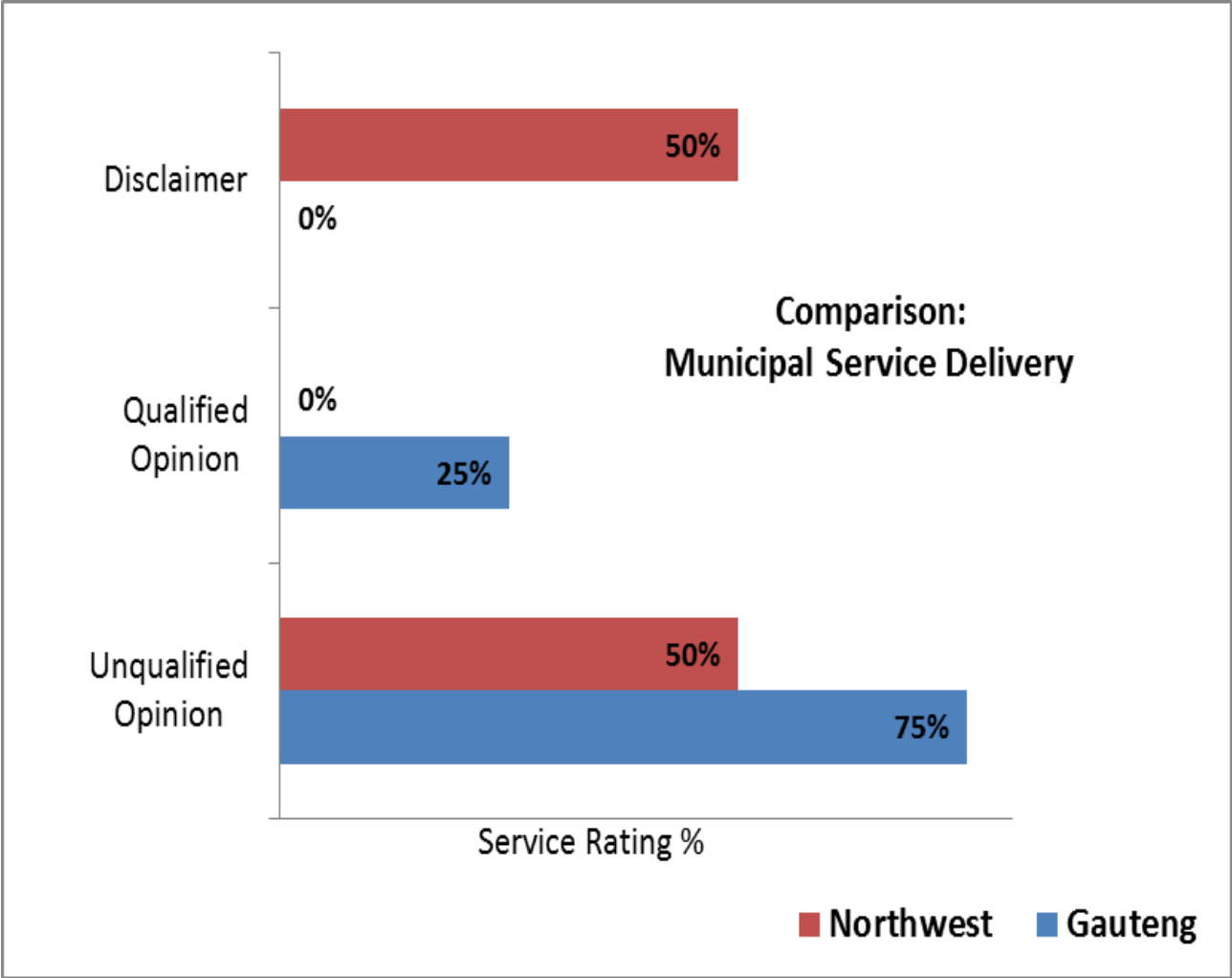
Figure 62: Comparison of Municipal delivery

Overall the Gauteng and Northwest Municipalities are relatively not performing well according to their mandates as prescribed in the Constitution and Municipal legislation (Figure 62). As noted by the Minister of COGTA in his cautionary advice to Municipalities, that they should provide basics before fancy stuff. The Minister highlighted that, among others, the three Metropolitan Municipalities in Gauteng had spent billions on broadband projects and on employing current technologies to communicate with citizens. However, they are battling to provide basic services (i.e. in terms of IDPs) such as fixing potholes, traffic lights, burst water pipes and that power is quickly restored after outages (The Times, 2014). The Metropolitan Municipalities' shifting focus from providing basic services to doing fancy stuff seemed to be a microcosm of what was happening in most Municipalities in South Africa and, with the common

excuse of blaming the apartheid regime for their failures as well as pleading ignorance or inexperience for the below par performance. However, the Municipal IDPs, (that invariably outline the Councillors and Municipal Managers intention or political will) and The Auditor's Report (2014) and the Annual Reports (i.e. Municipal performance) that were analysed revealed that they were connected.

6.4.3.4 Service delivery protests in South Africa, 2013/4

Each disturbance pointed clearly to the inevitable growth amongst Africans of the belief that violence was the only way out – it showed that a Government which uses force to maintain its rule teaches the oppressed to use force to oppose it. Already small groups had arisen in the urban areas and were spontaneously making plans for violent forms of political struggle. Mandela court transcript, (1964)

South Africa had not yet reached the Arab Spring-type uprising many analysts had been warning of, but the protests were an indication of growing anger and frustration in many parts of the country (Sunday Times, 2014:12). In the new dispensation the citizen dissatisfied on service delivery were using force to oppose the Government.

Protests in South African Municipalities could also be perceived as an indicator of poor service delivery in the local government. According to the Municipal IQ, the term *service delivery protest,* it described a protest which was galvanised by inadequate local services or tardy service delivery, the responsibility for which lied with a Municipality (Business Day, 2014). According to the Municipal IQ the main reasons for the protests were a lack of *housing, sanitation, electricity* and *water supply*. The latter issues represented the basic service delivery IDP mandates of Municipalities as informed by the Constitution and the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2002. It is reported that although political factors might influence or overlay service delivery protests, there was usually a *bona fide* service delivery grievance that had not been addressed for some time. A common denominator was a call for basic services in places like Bekkersdal in Gauteng, as well as in rural villages, even if the context was different (Sunday Times, 2014:12).

Since January 2013 up to February 2014 South Africa recorded a staggering 430 service delivery protests – an average of 31 per month or one every day (The Times, 2014: 8). Gauteng was ranked 27(24%) and Eastern Cape 20(21%) as the most protest-ridden provinces. The Northwest province, though had a relatively low rate of protests was ranked 13(12%) compared to the Gauteng province in the same period. The Northwest province's protests were the worst considering the number (54 victims) of people killed (City Press, 2013:14). These figures were supported by the Institute of Security Studies (Sunday Times, 2014:12). It was reported that in 2014 similar demonstrations occurred in Municipalities in different parts of the country that occurred prior to the 2004 elections for precisely the same reasons, namely:

- Unfulfilled promises
- Dissatisfaction with service delivery
- Voice of the people not being heard
- Deployment of unqualified ANC comrades
- Corruption and nepotism in local government
- Lack of a critical voice representing civil society (City Press, 2013:14).

It was noted that in South Africa there was growing increase in those who are disgruntled with the current government or apathetic to the democratic processes, and opt out of the democratic system. Instead of voicing their discontent by punishing the ruling party at the polls, they used extra democratic options like violent demonstrations (De Jager, 2014:15).

6.4.3.5 The latest Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG)

The Mo Ibrahim Foundation established in 2007 had the most comprehensive collection of quantitative data on governance in Africa. Compiled in partnership with experts from a number of the continent's institutions, it provided an annual assessment on governance in every African country based on the delivery of public goods and services, and policy outcomes across Africa (IIAG, 2014: 1-41).

The IIAG, (2014: 1-41) reported, among others, that although South Africa's ranking improved from eight last year to fifth in 2014, it nevertheless fell short on accountability as compared to other countries in Southern Africa (Table 27). It was reported that South African demographics were unique on the continent in that 60% of its population was urbanised. This implied that governance systems at local level should be geared to serve the needs of the increasing number of people living in urban areas. However, it also meant that the country should to be responsive to the governance needs of the 40% of rural citizens (IIAG, 2014: 1-41).

Table 27: IIAG Ratings, (IIAG, 2014: 1-41).

Rank	Score /100	20 year change	
	Rank & Country	**Score /100%**	**20 year change**
1	Mauritius	82.9	**7.3**
2	Botswana	77.6	**5.6**
3	Cape Verde	76.7	**6.0**
4	Seychelles	75.0	**5.5**
5	**South Africa**	**71.3**	**0.6**

6.5 SUMMARY

The Chapter dealt with the data analysis of findings and results which were described in relation to the questions raised in Chapter One. Arising from the empirical evidence of the study, the findings and results were discussed against the background of a broader framework of the association of political will with performance of selected Municipalities in South Africa within the context of a public administration paradigm.

Qualitative and quantitative analyses of the data under the relevant themes/headings presented an integrated as well as a holistic view of the study. Demographic data, opinions, intensity and salience of political will, Municipal performance issues, Municipal experts' comments, IDP,

Annual Reports, Auditor Report, legislative and policy issues and an integrated approach to service delivery at local government level were included to establish an association of political will with Municipal performance.

For instance, the convergence of qualitative and quantitative data in terms of the study's objectives revealed the following:

A. Objective 1

To establish the "opinions" held by Municipal political leaders about service delivery as will be demonstrated by their political attitudes towards their work

Table 17 and Figure 51 (quantitative data) illustrated more clearly that the participants and indeed the Municipal Managers and Councillors in general had a good sense and understanding of political will as dictated by their political parties, and that the political will was to deliver to the needs of their communities. This was despite the performance of their Municipalities as reflected in sub-section 6.3 Qualitative Data.

The above mentioned results were supported by a relative high level of political will (qualitative data) as characterised by the general response that the political parties spelling it out to the Councillors and the latter talking about it during caucus and Council meetings (Figure 54). This implied understanding of political will by Municipal leaders in carrying out service delivery.

B. Objective 2

To determine the "intensity" of these political opinions about motivating people to deliver

From Table 18 and Figure 52 (quantitative data) it was apparent that Councillors and Municipal Managers strongly understood (i.e. intensity) their political will that should motives them to deliver according to their political mandates. In other words, they knew what was expected of them in Municipalities. Again this intensive comprehension of political will on the part of the Municipal leaders (qualitative data), namely, 63(70%) positive responses suggest that the political will was strong and effective to impel Municipal leaders to perform optimally. However, it was asserted that in practice it was not happening due to, among others, personal agendas and the agency problems besetting some Councillors and Municipal Managers as confirmed by the 27(30%) negative responses (Figure 55).

C. Objective 3

To assess the "salience" of the said political opinions and attitudes towards achieving Municipal performance based on community expectations

Table 19 and Figure 53 (quantitative data), indicated that on average, the participants comprehend the relevance (i.e. salience), among others, of political will to Municipal performance (56.5%). In other words, they had a good sense of the impact of political will on Municipal performance (74.4%). However, on the contrary, they agreed that party policies were not adhered to (55.9%). This was substantiated by a low score (24.3%) on consultation and engagement with communities in what they demand. One could infer that what the participants knew and understood did not necessarily translate into action, though they claimed that political will drives service delivery in their Municipalities (57.6%).

The statistical test for the significance of opinions and attitudes in Table 19 (quantitative data) showed the average (mean) ratings of the composite scores. All the mean values of the composite scores are above '3', which implies that, on average, the Municipal Managers and Councillors understand, had a strong opinion and attitude towards their party political will, with a conviction that their work was driven by their political will; and related party political will positively with Municipal performance and service delivery.

In support of quantitative results, Municipal experts expressed a positive response of 60(79%) and negative response of 16(21%) to the question (qualitative data). Most experts asserted that in terms of policies, as reflected in the IDPs, Municipal leaders were answerable to their constituencies, however, actual implementation of IDPs in some Municipalities is problematic as characterised by, among others, service delivery protests (Figure 56).

D. Objective 4

To determine the interconnection between political will and service delivery in Municipalities

The likelihood ratio Chi-square of .716 with p-value (.699) > .05 told us that the model as a whole did not fit significantly better than a model without a predictor (quantitative data). This meant that political will (i.e. opinion) was somewhat partly related to Municipal performance. However, the 'understanding' and 'salience' aspects of political will were conclusively found to be related to Municipal performance (quantitative data). This result therefore implied that the

study has found that the relationship between political will and Municipal performance was partly inconclusive and further research is recommended.

This result could be ascribed to a substantial number of Councillors' response (43.5%) expressing a negative opinion about the relationship between political will and Municipal performance (quantitative data). This emanated from Councillors of other political parties accusing their counterparts in the ruling party for the poor connection as characterised by service delivery lapses. In alignment with the quantitative results, Municipal experts were of the view 45(76%) that political will was related to Municipal performance (qualitative data) as opposed to 14(24%) who expressed a view that political will was not related to Municipal performance (Figure 56).

However, the Municipal IDPs, (that invariably outline the Councillors and Municipal Managers intention or political will) and The Auditor's Report (2014) and the Annual Reports (i.e. Municipal performance) that were analysed revealed that political will was related to Municipal performance.

Chapter Seven presents a detailed conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of the study (as highlighted in Chapter One) was to explore the association of political will with performance of selected Municipalities in South Africa. The objectives were to address the following:

(i) To establish the "opinions" held about service delivery by Municipal political leaders as would be demonstrated by their political attitudes towards their work.

(ii) To determine the "intensity" of these political opinions about motivating people to deliver.

(iii) To assess the "salience" of the said political opinions and attitudes towards achieving Municipal performance based on a community's expectations, and

(iv) To determine the interconnection between political will and service delivery in Municipalities.

The study's objectives, therefore, were to obtain answers to the following primary research questions:

  (i) What was the level of political will amongst the political leaders in Municipalities?
  (ii) How strong and effective was the political will of Municipal leaders to impel staff to perform optimally?
  (iii) Were the Municipal leaders' political will answerable to the demands of their constituencies?
  (iv) Was political will related to Municipal performance?
  (v) What could be done to Municipalities in South Africa to be effective and efficient (developing a guideline for Municipal success)?

Information regarding all of the above-mentioned objectives and research questions was obtained and discussed in the preceding chapters. This Chapter highlighted a summary of conclusions and recommendations.

7.2 CONCLUSION

For contextual reasons, the literature review (Chapter 2, 3 & 4) reflected on various causal variables for local government poor performance (Appendix A). These variables identified, among others, as responsible for below par performance of local government were, in the South African context, contrary to the mandates and guidelines of Municipalities referred to in the Constitution and the Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2001. The Auditor General Report (2014) that served as a litmus test of how Municipalities perform vindicated the fact that most of Municipalities still continued to fall short in compliance with their constitutional and legislative responsibility and, the capacity of national and provincial government to effectively resolve these matters seemed to be weak.

In the evaluation and synthesis of literature that constituted the body of knowledge on the dynamics of Municipal performance, it was observed that they were not comprehensive and definitive enough to include all possible causative factors. For instance, research failed to answer this question: Was there a connection between political will and Municipal performance? Though researchers such as Okafor (2009:1-65), Mubangizi (2007:4-17) and Malena (2009:1-358) referred, among others, to political will as influential to public sector performance, their partial reference to political will was not substantive and comprehensive enough to outline its impact on public sector performance and specifically in the local government sphere *per se*. Therefore, the association of political will with performance of selected Municipalities in South Africa was an understudied theme (see Appendix G).

The study's empirical findings and results in some ways had shown surprising outcomes, but the hypothesised association between political will and Municipal performance was found to be statistically significant. This implied the convergence of qualitative and quantitative data in terms of the study's objectives concluded as follows:

A. Objective 1

To establish the "opinions" held by Municipal political leaders about service delivery as will be demonstrated by their political attitudes towards their work

Table 17 and Figure 51 (quantitative data) illustrated more clearly that the participants and indeed the Municipal Managers and Councillors in general had a good sense and understanding of political will as dictated by their political parties, and that the political will is to deliver to the needs of their communities. This was despite the performance of their Municipalities as reflected in sub-section 6.3 Qualitative Data.

The above mentioned results were supported by a relative high level of political will (qualitative data) as characterised by the general response that the political parties spelling it out to the Councillors and the latter talking about it during caucus and Council meetings (Figure 54). This implied understanding of political will by Municipal leaders in carrying out service delivery.

B. Objective 2

To determine the "intensity" of these political opinions about motivating people to deliver

From Table 18 and Figure 52 (quantitative data) it was apparent that Councillors and Municipal Managers strongly understood (i.e. intensity) their political will that should motivate them to deliver according to their political mandates. Again this intensive comprehension of political will on the part of the Municipal leaders (qualitative data), namely, 63(70%) positive responses suggested that the political will was strong and effective to impel Municipal leaders to perform optimally.

C. Objective 3

To assess the "salience" of the said political opinions and attitudes towards achieving Municipal performance based on community expectations

Table 19 and Figure 53 (quantitative data), indicate that on average, the participants comprehend the relevance (i.e. salience), among others, of political will to Municipal performance (56.5%). In other words, they have a good sense of the impact of political will on Municipal performance (74.4%).

The statistical test for the significance of opinions and attitudes in Table 19 (quantitative data) showed the average (mean) ratings of the composite scores. All the mean values of the composite scores are above '3', which implied that, on average, the Municipal Managers and Councillors understood, have a strong opinion and attitude towards their party political will, with a conviction that their work was driven by their political will; and relate party political will positively with Municipal performance and service delivery.

In support of quantitative results, Municipal experts expressed a positive response of 60(79%) and negative response of 16(21%) to the question (qualitative data). Most experts asserted that in terms of policies, as reflected in the IDPs, Municipal leaders were answerable to their constituencies, however, actual implementation of IDPs in some Municipalities was problematic as characterised by, among others, service delivery protests (Figure 54).

D. Objective 4

To determine the interconnection between political will and service delivery in Municipalities

The likelihood ratio Chi-square of .716 with p-value (.699) > .05 articulates that the model as a whole did not fit significantly better than a model without a predictor (quantitative data). This meant that political will (i.e. opinion) was somewhat partly related to Municipal performance. However, the 'understanding' and 'salience' aspects of political will were conclusively found to be related to Municipal performance (quantitative data). This result therefore implied that the study had found that the relationship between political will and Municipal performance was partly inconclusive and further research is recommended.

However, the Municipal IDPs, (that invariably outline the Councillors and Municipal Managers intention or political will) and The Auditor's Report (2014) and the Annual Reports (i.e. Municipal performance) that were analysed revealed that political will was related to Municipal performance.

In conclusion, there was a connection between political will and Municipal performance as understood by Councillors in the Gauteng and Northwest provinces. However, implementation of IDPs in some Municipalities was problematic as confirmed by the Municipal experts,

Municipal Annual Reports and The Auditor General Report (2014). Therefore the purpose of the study namely, establishing an association between political will with performance of selected Municipalities in South Africa, was achieved. The confirmation of the hypothesised association was not surprising given the understanding that professional will (i.e. the opposite of political will in the public sector) was associated with good results and profitability in the private sector (Collins, 2001:1-287).

Democracy in South Africa was growing and maturing. Some people are gradually graduating from the politics of liberation to the understanding of what socio-economic politics was all about and what to expect from a political leader. This realisation was underpinned by some voters who are beginning to get tired of slogans and political parties who still bask in the glorious history of the liberation struggle (i.e. lack of political will) and yet, fail to address their service delivery issues.

The recent polls served as a barometer whether South Africa was winning or regressing in terms of its service delivery to the people. Generally people in South Africa expect their Municipalities to provide them with the basic services of an IDP, namely, water, sanitation, electricity, housing and waste removal. As revealed by The Auditor Report (2014) local government (i.e. Councillors and Municipal Managers) lack the leadership (i.e. political will) to deliver as expected.

Protests in South African Municipalities continued to serve as an indicator of poor service delivery in local government. Dissatisfaction with service delivery, unfulfilled promises, corruption and nepotism in local government were the impetus of the protests. In terms of the IIAG, (2014: 1-41) annual assessment of governance in Africa, South Africa was ranked 5th as compared to other countries in Southern Africa in 2013.

It is significant to note that association did not prove causation. Instead the sole way to prove causation was to undertake long term prospective studies in which the factor/s considered causative were changed only in the experimental group but remain unaltered in the control group. Hence the study was based on associational relationship only between political will and

Municipal performance. Some beliefs were described as scientifically implausible. The main conclusion of the study was that there was a paucity of good-quality studies of sufficient size which have resulted in these conclusions.

7.3 THE STUDY'S CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The main question (i.e. 'black box') that this study had sought to answer was:

▪ Was political will related to Municipal performance?

To this end, the study provided an answer to the hypotheses as depicted in Figure 63, namely,
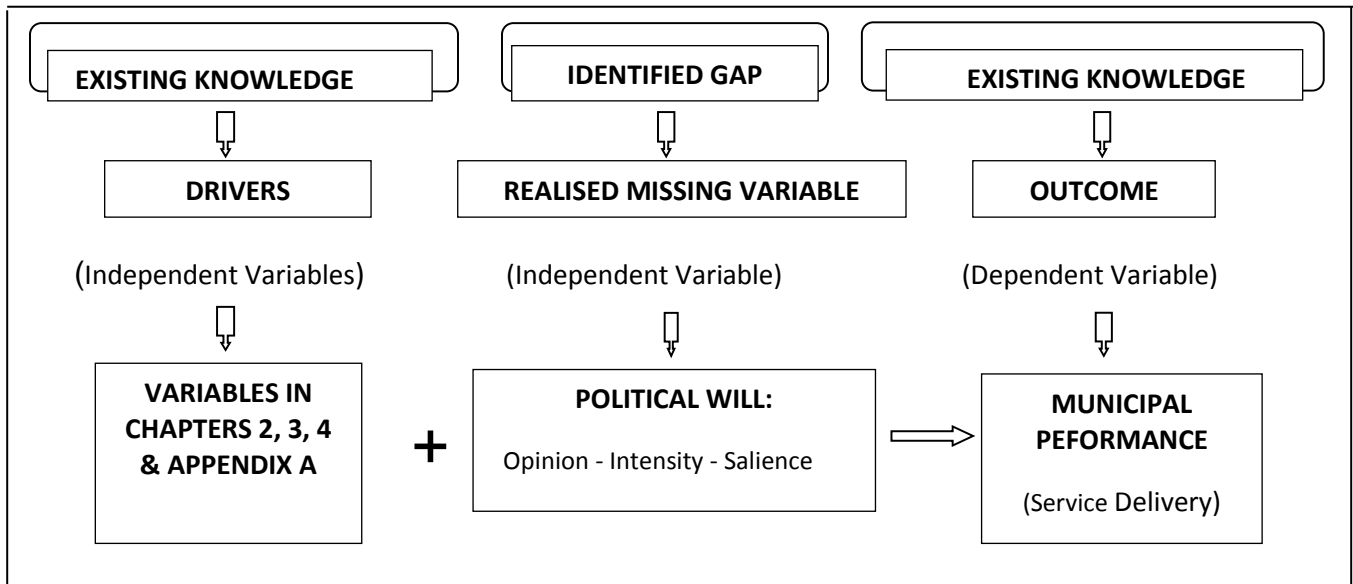
Figure 63: Study's Hypothesised Model

Ho: The null hypothesis that was tested was that the presence or absence of political will amongst political leaders appeared to be the *sine quo non* for explaining the continued mediocre local government performance in South Africa.

H1: An alternative hypothesis that was tested and rejected was that political will did not affect local government performance.

Through this process the study had, in terms of Freel's (2000: 561-575) metaphor, helped in the opening of the 'black box" on the relationship of political will with Municipal performance because the study's empirical findings and results revealed that qualitatively and quantitatively there was an *association between political will and Municipal performance*. Therefore, the study had added value to the existing body of literature and knowledge.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Immediate action is necessary to address the prevailing explosive situation ignited by community dissatisfaction in service provision by Municipalities resulting in the unprecedented protests. However, the action had to be preceded by the careful formulation of possible solutions from all levels of government. To a large extent, the following recommendations were drawn from findings and results of the study. It is important to remind readers that these recommendations were not a panacea to the local government challenges, but should be viewed as a continuous process informed by research.

(i) Objective 1, 2 and 3: "opinion, intensity and salience" of political will

Municipal leaders were aware and comprehend their political will as given by their political parties as well as had a good sense of the impact of political will on Municipal performance. However, actual implementation of IDPs in some Municipalities was problematic. Following Municipal experts' advice, it was recommended that COGTA and provincial governments should ensure that there were serious consequences for any deviation from Municipal legislation and the code of conduct on the part of Municipal leaders and employees.

(ii) Objective 4: To determine the interconnection between political will and service delivery in Municipalities

The study conclusively established an association between political will and Municipal performance only in two provinces (i.e. Gauteng and Northwest). It was recommended that further studies be undertaken in other provinces in South Africa.

(iii) The Rise or improvement of Municipal performance in the local government matches the rise or increase of the level of political will amongst political leaders.

While the association did not prove causation, but in the study it implied an interrelationship or connection between an independent variable and a dependent variable, which suggested that political will had an influence on performance of selected Municipalities or service delivery in South Africa. Therefore, further studies of cause and effect were recommended in this regard.

(iv) Communities' trust in the ability of local government to deliver services needs to be restored via a number of measures

Among other measures that should be considered was a regular assessment of Councillors' and other Municipal leaders' performance undertaken in a systematic and transparent way and based on a set of standardised indicators applied across all Municipalities. These indicators should include for example: level of attendance at Ward Committee and Council meetings and the level of participation in such meetings; the level and frequency of contact with residents in the Municipality as well as the effectiveness of Councillors and Municipal leaders in having residents' needs conveyed in Council and addressed by the Municipality. Also the link between decisions taken at ward committee meetings and Council needed to be stronger, so that resolutions taken in these committees were reflected in Council meetings and citizens could realise that their voices were being heard at Council level.

(v) There is a need to institutionalise a feedback-loop between Councillors and the Municipal administration

It was necessary to monitor progress in development projects and, it enabled citizens to track progress in Council decisions that had been taken. In this way, public representatives were held accountable and could lose support if sufficient progress had not been made on approved projects.

(vi) Municipalities should ensure that Councillors have access to basic resources to enable them to perform their functions

The basic resources include infrastructure, equipment and funding to cover *inter alia* committee meetings.

(vii) Councillors need to familiarise themselves thoroughly with the Councillors' handbook on the roles and functions of Councillors

SALGA together with Municipalities should create an awareness on the importance of this handbook to support Councillors in their duties and responsibilities. The usage of the Councillor Handbook be encouraged alongside the need for comprehensive and large-scale training of Councillors on their roles. This would ensure Councillors were aware of their roles and responsibilities and citizens are informed about what they can and should expect from Councillors, especially in respect of the functional jurisdictions of Councillors within the framework of local government service delivery.

(viii) Municipalities should capacitate Councillors

This could be achieved through introducing a mentoring system involving more experienced senior Councillors mentoring the inexperienced ones. Training support programmes to build Councillors' capacity should be developed in a way to accommodate Councillors who lack basic literacy, for example through the use of audio and visual material. Also learning networks could be extended across Municipalities. This would enable lessons to be learned among Municipalities that are struggling with service delivery challenges and those that were performing well, facilitated by effective political leaderships. In addition, Municipalities should invest in committee-specific capacity building courses for the Councillors such as those offered by the Development Bank of South Africa. There is a need to equip Councillors with technical skills needed for developing budgets as well as their implementation, to ensure that they were able to manage finances pertaining to ward level development and, the role of Councillors in this regard should therefore be upgraded by capacitating them with practical project management skills

(ix) To improve Councillors good governance

Good governance is about accountability, ethics and trust for sustainable development and service delivery. To promote good governance among Councillors, they should be encouraged to "walk their talk" as informed by their political will and/or the ruling party's manifesto throughout the development and implementation of their respective IDPs. This initiative is in consonance with the recommendations of the Auditor General Report (2014) that of strengthening Municipal leaders on finance, leadership and performance.

(x) Inter-Municipal relationship and intergovernmental cooperation

The alignment between the priorities and activities of the local, provincial and national governments should be encouraged. The impact of this alignment on visible service delivery should be promoted among the government officials as well as by the ruling party at its various meetings, conferences and rallies.

(xi) For IDPs to be effective tools for delivering services, they have to be understood by the public, Municipality and other agencies, public or private sectors

This goal was almost unachievable in some Municipalities considering the high levels of illiteracy especially among the rural communities in South Africa. However, this called for the Department of Education to devote more effort towards adult education, whilst SALGA and COGTA should ensure that more funds are allocated to training the Councillors and the public to enhance participation in IDPs. In this way they can be made aware of their role in planning and development, thereby raising the level of community involvement and service delivery.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was based on the assumption that in addition to variables identified as causal factors of ineffective Municipal performance in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and Appendix A as well as the proposed theme of political will, there could be other unknown causal variables in the South African situation. It was also assumed that the connection between political will and Municipal performance will differ from one province to the other in South Africa.

The locus of the study was delineated by Municipalities focusing only on Councillors and Municipal Managers (i.e. political leaders) as drivers of Municipal performance. The rest of the Municipal staff members (i.e. non-political leaders) were not included because it was assumed that they were not the key drivers of implementing strategy or the IDPs. The study focused only on the impact of political will (excluding other variables indicated in Chapters 2, 3, 4 and Appendix A) on Municipal performance.

Seven Municipalities in the Northwest province were excluded because they were under administration during the study served as a limitation. However, the random sample chosen was statistically representative. Another limitation is that the study was restricted to Municipalities in the Gauteng and Northwest provinces to the exclusion of Municipalities in other provinces in South Africa.

7.6 AREAS RECOMMENDED FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

(i) There is a need for further research into the topic of basic service delivery at local government level to improve the tools at the sphere of local government. This should be done with appropriate measures and observations, particularly of institutional capacity using case studies of success and failures of service delivery.

(ii) The two provinces in South Africa – Gauteng and North West provided a natural laboratory to investigate the association or link between Municipal performance and political will. It is recommended, *inter alia*, that further broad studies (also considering paragraphs ii & iii under Recommendations), perhaps longitudinal, in all South African provinces be undertaken for validation of the findings and reproducibility of this study.

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APPENDIX A: MIND MAP OF MAJOR VARIABLES ALIGNED WITH POOR MUNICIPAL PERFORMANCE
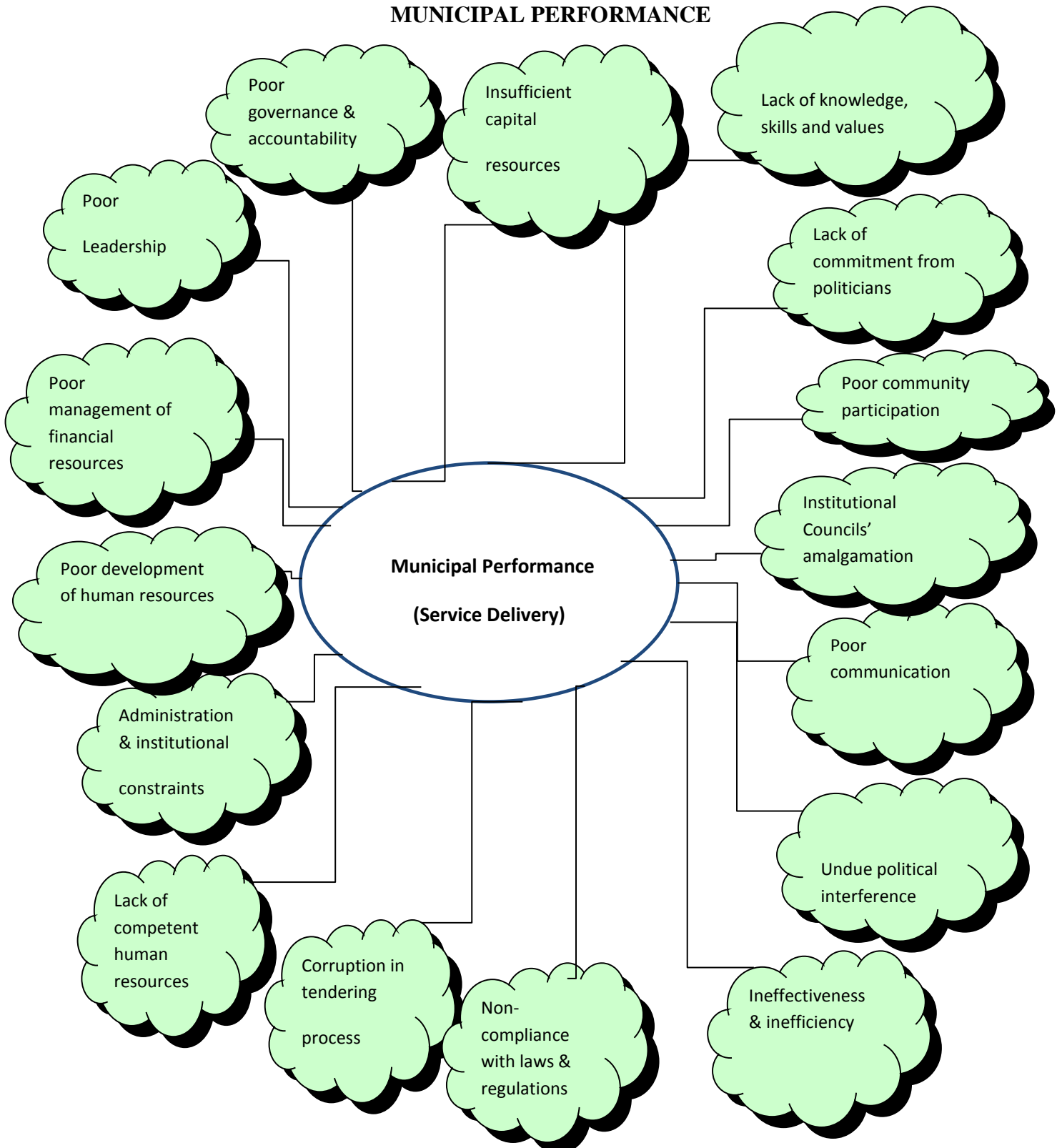
Poor governance & accountability

Insufficient capital resources

Lack of knowledge, skills and values

Poor Leadership

Lack of commitment from politicians

Poor management of financial resources

Poor community participation

Poor development of human resources

Municipal Performance (Service Delivery)

Institutional Councils' amalgamation

Administration & institutional constraints

Poor communication

Lack of competent human resources

Corruption in tendering process

Non-compliance with laws & regulations

Undue political interference

Ineffectiveness & inefficiency

Source: Khumalo *et al* (2003), Tshikovha (2006), Bonga (2007), Pretorius and Schurink (2007), De Villiers and Michel (2007), Marais *et al* (2008), Maserumule (2008), Butler (2009), Mahabir (2010), Dzansi and Dzansi (2010) and Auditor-General Report (2011).

Table 1: My party has spelled out political will to Councillors and Municipal Managers

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	7	1.1	1.1	1.1
2	14	2.1	2.2	3.3
3	51	7.8	8.0	11.3
4	259	39.7	40.5	51.7
5	309	47.3	48.3	100.0
Total	640	98.0	100.0	
Missing data	13	2.0		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 2: My political will is dictated by its policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
2	20	3.1	3.1	3.1
3	79	12.1	12.2	15.3
4	267	40.9	41.3	56.6
5	281	43.0	43.4	100.0
Total	647	99.1	100.0	
Missing data	6	.9		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 3: My leadership style is part of my political will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	1	.2	.2	.2
2	33	5.1	5.1	5.3
3	44	6.7	6.8	12.1
4	273	41.8	42.2	54.3
5	296	45.3	45.7	100.0
Total	647	99.1	100.0	
Missing data	6	.9		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 4: I know my party political will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	3	.5	.5	.5
2	13	2.0	2.0	2.5
3	67	10.3	10.3	12.8
4	260	39.8	40.1	52.9
5	305	46.7	47.1	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 5: My political will is to deliver to constituencies needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	6	.9	.9	.9
2	10	1.5	1.5	2.5
3	37	5.7	5.7	8.2
4	279	42.7	43.1	51.2
5	316	48.4	48.8	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 6: Our political will and policies is one and the same thing

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	4	.6	.6	.6
2	32	4.9	5.0	5.6
3	60	9.2	9.3	14.9
4	290	44.4	45.0	59.9
5	258	39.5	40.1	100.0
Total	644	98.6	100.0	
Missing data	9	1.4		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 7: Municipal leader should reflect policies and will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	7	1.1	1.1	1.1
2	29	4.4	4.5	5.5
3	62	9.5	9.6	15.1
4	248	38.0	38.2	53.3
5	303	46.4	46.7	100.0
Total	649	99.4	100.0	
Missing data	4	.6		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 8: My political will is similar to the one of my party

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	6	.9	.9	.9
2	24	3.7	3.7	4.6
3	44	6.7	6.8	11.4
4	287	44.0	44.4	55.8
5	286	43.8	44.2	100.0
Total	647	99.1	100.0	
Missing data	6	.9		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 9: Political will is more important than leadership style

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	39	6.0	6.0	6.0
2	45	6.9	6.9	13.0
3	69	10.6	10.6	23.6
4	322	49.3	49.7	73.3
5	173	26.5	26.7	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 10: Municipal leaders should share same understand of political will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	22	3.4	3.4	3.4
2	20	3.1	3.1	6.5
3	126	19.3	19.4	25.8
4	198	30.3	30.5	56.3
5	284	43.5	43.7	100.0
Total	650	99.5	100.0	
Missing data	3	.5		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 11: We talk about political will in the Council quite often

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	7	1.1	1.1	1.1
2	159	24.3	24.4	25.5
3	152	23.3	23.3	48.8
4	245	37.5	37.6	86.5
5	88	13.5	13.5	100.0
Total	651	99.7	100.0	
Missing data	2	.3		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 12: My work is driven by my party political will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	52	8.0	8.0	8.0
2	26	4.0	4.0	12.0
3	55	8.4	8.4	20.4
4	430	65.8	66.1	86.5
5	88	13.5	13.5	100.0
Total	651	99.7	100.0	
Missing data	2	.3		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 13: I strongly believe in my party political will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	5	.8	.8	.8
2	28	4.3	4.3	5.1
3	52	8.0	8.0	13.1
4	448	68.6	69.0	82.1
5	116	17.8	17.9	100.0
Total	649	99.4	100.0	
Missing data	4	.6		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 14: Municipality mission is underpinned by party political will and policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	21	3.2	3.3	3.3
2	91	13.9	14.2	17.5
3	135	20.7	21.1	38.5
4	206	31.5	32.1	70.7
5	188	28.8	29.3	100.0
Total	641	98.2	100.0	
Missing data	12	1.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 15: Leaders are motivated by party policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	15	2.3	2.3	2.3
2	23	3.5	3.5	5.8
3	136	20.8	20.9	26.7
4	188	28.8	28.9	55.6
5	289	44.3	44.4	100.0
Total	651	99.7	100.0	
Missing data	2	.3		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 16: Leadership has clear guiding political philosophy

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	24	3.7	3.7	3.7
2	44	6.7	6.8	10.6
3	147	22.5	22.9	33.4
4	251	38.4	39.0	72.5
5	177	27.1	27.5	100.0
Total	643	98.5	100.0	
Missing data	10	1.5		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 17: Leaders strongly adhere to party policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	20	3.1	3.1	3.1
2	102	15.6	15.7	18.8
3	106	16.2	16.4	35.2
4	272	41.7	42.0	77.2
5	148	22.7	22.8	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 18: Leaders are aware and practice party political will

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	16	2.5	2.5	2.5
2	32	4.9	5.0	7.5
3	108	16.5	16.8	24.3
4	275	42.1	42.8	67.1
5	211	32.3	32.9	100.0
Total	642	98.3	100.0	
Missing data	11	1.7		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 19: Leaders voluntarily follow their party policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	38	5.8	5.9	5.9
2	31	4.7	4.8	10.7
3	62	9.5	9.6	20.3
4	425	65.1	66.0	86.3
5	88	13.5	13.7	100.0
Total	644	98.6	100.0	
Missing data	9	1.4		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 20: Organisational culture is strongly informed by party policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	9	1.4	1.4	1.4
2	33	5.1	5.1	6.5
3	54	8.3	8.3	14.8
4	444	68.0	68.6	83.5
5	107	16.4	16.5	100.0
Total	647	99.1	100.0	
Missing data	6	.9		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 21: There is connection between political will and Municipal performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	18	2.8	2.8	2.8
2	148	22.7	22.8	25.6
3	50	7.7	7.7	33.3
4	367	56.2	56.5	89.8
5	66	10.1	10.2	100.0
Total	649	99.4	100.0	
Missing data	4	.6		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 22: Party policies should be answerable to communities needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	10	1.5	1.5	1.5
2	23	3.5	3.5	5.1
3	58	8.9	9.0	14.0
4	445	68.1	68.7	82.7
5	112	17.2	17.3	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 23: Our political will always drives service delivery in the Municipality

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	13	2.0	2.0	2.0
2	105	16.1	16.2	18.2
3	60	9.2	9.2	27.4
4	374	57.3	57.6	85.1
5	97	14.9	14.9	100.0
Total	649	99.4	100.0	
Missing data	4	.6		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 24: Lack of political will amongst Municipal leaders result in inept and poor performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	30	4.6	4.6	4.6
2	35	5.4	5.4	10.0
3	145	22.2	22.4	32.4
4	329	50.4	50.8	83.2
5	109	16.7	16.8	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 25: Party policies are not adhered to in Municipality

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	98	15.0	15.2	15.2
2	110	16.8	17.1	32.3
3	76	11.6	11.8	44.1
4	308	47.2	47.8	91.9
5	52	8.0	8.1	100.0
Total	644	98.6	100.0	
Missing data	9	1.4		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 26: Leaders engage and consult with communities in what they demand

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	52	8.0	8.0	8.0
2	48	7.4	7.4	15.4
3	158	24.2	24.3	39.7
4	298	45.6	45.8	85.5
5	94	14.4	14.5	100.0
Total	650	99.5	100.0	
Missing data	3	.5		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 27: Leaders continually fight for improved service delivery in communities

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	59	9.0	9.1	9.1
2	34	5.2	5.2	14.4
3	71	10.9	11.0	25.3
4	396	60.6	61.1	86.4
5	88	13.5	13.6	100.0
Total	648	99.2	100.0	
Missing data	5	.8		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 28: Leaders could be sanctioned if they violate party policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	19	2.9	2.9	2.9
2	37	5.7	5.7	8.6
3	199	30.5	30.6	39.2
4	285	43.6	43.8	83.1
5	110	16.8	16.9	100.0
Total	650	99.5	100.0	
Missing data	3	.5		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 29: Leaders actively participate in planning and implementing service delivery programmes

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	25	3.8	3.8	3.8
2	160	24.5	24.6	28.5
3	43	6.6	6.6	35.1
4	288	44.1	44.3	79.4
5	134	20.5	20.6	100.0
Total	650	99.5	100.0	
Missing data	3	.5		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Table 30: Leaders always take initiative to improve service delivery

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	7	1.1	1.2	1.2
2	62	9.5	10.6	11.8
3	112	17.2	19.1	30.8
4	262	40.1	44.6	75.5
5	144	22.1	24.5	100.0
Total	587	89.9	100.0	
Missing data	66	10.1		
Total	**653**	**100.0**		

Frequency table

Statistics

		Sect1	Sect2	Sect3
N	Valid	616	622	574
	Missing	37	31	79
Mode		4.00	3.60	3.40

APPENDIX C

MUNICIPAL EXPERTS' RESPONSES

STUDY'S RESEARCH QUESTIONS:	BDO	COGTA PTA	COGTA GAUTENG	COGTA N/WEST	E & Y	GRANT THORNTON	KPMG	PWC	SALGA	DELLOITTE & TOUCHE	TOTAL	TOTAL %
	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N	P : N
(i)	3 : 2	5 : 1	5 : 1	4 : 2	4 : 2	3 : 3	3 : 3	4 : 2	5 : 0	5 : 1	41 : 17	71 29
(ii)	5 : 4	8 : 2	8 : 1	8 : 2	8 : 2	7 : 3	6 : 4	3 : 7	5 : 1	5 : 1	63 : 27	70 30
(iii)	5 : 3	6 : 1	7 : 1	6 : 0	6 : 2	8 : 2	5 : 3	7 : 1	6 : 1	4 : 2	60 : 16	79 21
(iv)	3 : 2	3 : 2	6 : 3	6 : 3	3 : 2	4 : 1	5 : 0	5 : 0	5 : 1	5 : 0	45 : 14	76 24
Total Responses	16 : 11	22 : 6	26 : 6	24 : 7	21 : 8	22 : 9	19 : 10	19 : 10	21 : 3	19 : 4	283	
Percentage of Responses	59 41	79 21	81 19	77 23	72 28	71 29	66 34	66 34	88 13	83 17		

Legend: Orange: Private Sector; Blue: Public Sector; P: Positive, N: Negative.
REMARKS: This Appendix should be read together with Figures 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, and 59.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

COVER LETTER

Dear valued participant,

My name is Asaph Moshikaro and I am currently studying towards a D of Administration degree at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. My research is based in Gauteng and Northwest Provinces amongst Municipalities. The study sought to understand the underlying issues that serve as obstacles towards achievement of optimum service delivery in Municipalities. These include, among others, understanding the effect of policy issues on Municipal performance. The outcome of the study, I hope will provide Municipalities with useful insights on how to improve on their organisational performance. The quality of these insights will depend on your contribution/inputs that you can make by completing this questionnaire.

I urge you to complete this questionnaire with objectivity and honesty. There are no wrong or right answers. Please answer <u>ALL</u> questions. Your answers will be treated with the strictest confidentiality. Hence you are advised to remain anonymous. Completed questionnaires could be returned to the office of the Speaker for my collection. Feel free to contact me on 072 408 0698 should you require additional information or clarity.

I thank you for your corporation in completing this questionnaire.

Asaph Moshikaro
Cell: 072 408 0698
Student - Researcher
University of KwaZulu-Natal

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

A.1 Demographics (Please tick all answers with X)

1 What is your age group (in years)?

18 -30	31-40	41 -50	51-60	60+
1	2	3x	4	5

2 What is your gender?

Male	Female
1	2

3 Which work level group do you belong to in the Municipality?

Municipal Manager	Councillor
1	2
	X

4 For how long have you been employed in Municipality?

0 – 3 yrs	3 –5 yrs	5 -10 yrs	10-15yrs	15-20yrs	20+yrs
1	2	3 x	4	5	6

5 What is your highest qualification?

Std/Grade Passed	Grade 12 (Matric)	Technical Certificate N4, N5, N6	B Degree/ B Tech/ National Diploma	Honours Degree	Master's Degree or PhD
	1	2	3 x	4	5

6. What is your department/section or area of responsibility?

Mayor/ M. Manager	1
Corporate Services	2
Finance	3
Procurement	4
Social Services	5
Communications	6
Economic Development	7
Infrastructural Development	8
Other	9

PART B: POLITICAL WILL QUESTIONS

This part measures perceptions you hold about policy matters within your Municipality.

In all sections you are required to indicate your perceptions for each statement with an X on a scale of 1 to 5, for instance, 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Uncertain, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

SECTION: 1: Understanding of Opinions and Attitudes This section determines participant's understanding, opinions and attitudes about political will and policy. Political will, among others, represents vision, determination, want, goal, drive, aspiration, etc.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
Tick only one for each statement	1	2	3	4	5
1. My party has spelled out its political will to the Councillors and Municipal Manager.					
2. My party's political will is dictated by its policies.					
3. My leadership style is part of my political will.					
4. I know my party's political will.					
5. My party's political will is to deliver according to the constituents' needs.					
6. Our political will and policies is one and the same thing.					
7. My thinking as a Municipal leader should reflect the party's policies and political will.					
8. My political will is similar to the one of my party.					
9. Political will is more important than my leadership style.					
10. Municipal leaders should share a similar understanding of their party's political will.					

SECTION: 2: Intensity of Opinions and Attitudes This section measures participants' intensity of policy and political will in Municipality.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
Tick only one for each statement	1	2	3	4	5
11. We talk about political will in the Council quite often.					
12. My work is driven by the party's political will and policies more than any other thing.					
13. I strongly believe in my party's political will.					
14. The Municipality's mission is underpinned by the party's political will and policies.					
15. Leaders in the Municipality are motivated by the party's policies.					
16. Municipal leadership has a clear guiding political philosophy.					
17. All leaders in the Municipality strongly adhere to the party's policies.					
18. Municipal leaders are aware and practice party political will.					
19. Municipal leaders voluntary follow their party's policies.					
20. The Municipal organisational culture is strongly informed by the party's policies.					

SECTION: 3: Salience of Opinions and Attitudes This section measures salience of policy and political will to Municipal performance.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
Tick only one for each statement	1	2	3	4	5
21. There is a connection between political will and Municipal performance.					
22. Party's policies should be answerable to the communities' needs.					
23. Our political will always drives service delivery in the Municipality.					
24. Lack of political will amongst Municipal leaders result in inept and poor performance.					
25. Party's policies are not adhered to in the Municipality.					
26. Municipal leaders engage and consult with communities in what they demand.					
27. Municipal leaders continually fight for improved service delivery in communities.					
28. Municipal leaders could be sanctioned if they violate party's policies.					
29. Municipal leaders actively participate in planning and implementing service delivery programmes.					
30. Municipal leaders always take initiative to improve service delivery.					

let

B. What should be done to ensure the Municipality is effective and efficient, that is, developing a guideline for Municipal success?)

Also assess your Municipality's general performance in terms of this criteria. Mark only one block (Assessment of Municipal performance should be in accordance to the Auditor General Reports, 2014 criteria: unqualified, qualified and disclaimer – worse performance).

B.1   Unqualified: Exceptional good performance

B.2   Qualified: Relatively standard performance

B.3   Disclaimer: Worse performance

End

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT & PUBLIC GOVERNANCE

DOCTOR OF ADMINISTRATION DEGREE RESEARCH PROJECT:

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS LIST

Researcher: Asaph Moshikaro, Cell: 072 408 0698

Supervisor: Prof Yogi Penceliah, Tel: 031 260 7645

QUESTIONS FOR MUNICIPAL EXPERTS

PART A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. What is your age group (in years)?

2. What is your gender?

3. What is your job title?

4. For how long have you been employed in the organisation?

5. What is your highest educational qualification?

6. What is your area of responsibility?

PART B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Section: 1: Understanding of Opinions and Attitudes

1. Do think the ruling party spelled out its political will to the Councillors and the

   Municipal Managers. Explain your answer.

2. Do you think the ruling party's political will is dictated by its policies? Explain your

   answer.

3. Is the Councillors' leadership style aligned to their party's political will? Explain your
   answer.

4. Do you think the Councillors' political will is to deliver according to their constituents' needs?
   Explain your answer.

5. Do you think Councillors' political will and policies are one and the same thing?
   Explain your answer.

6. Do you thinking Councillors' thinking and performance reflect their party's policies
   and political will? Explain your answer.

7. Are Councillors' political will similar to the one of their party? Explain your answer.

8. Political will or leadership style, which one is more important in Municipalities?
   Explain your answer.

9. Do Councillors' share the same understanding of their party's political will? Explain
   your answer.

Section: 2: Intensity of Opinions and Attitudes

10. Do you think Councillors talk about political will in the Council quite often? Explain
    your answer.

11. Do you think Councillors' work is driven by a party's political will and policies more
    than any other thing? Explain your answer.

12. Do Councillors strongly believe in their party's political will? Explain your answer.

13. Are Municipality's mission underpinned by the party's political will and policies?
    Explain your answer.

14. Are Councillors in Municipalities motivated by a party's policies? Explain your answer.

15. Do Councillors have a clear guiding political philosophy? Explain your

answer.

16. Do all Councillors in Municipalities strongly adhere to a party's policies? Explain your answer.

17. Are Councillors aware of and practice party political will? Explain your

answer.

18. Do Councillors voluntary follow their party's policies? Explain your answer.

19. Is a Municipal organisational culture strongly informed by a party's policies?

Explain your answer.

Section: 3: Salience of Opinions and Attitudes

20. Is there a connection between political will and Municipal performance? Explain your

answer.

21. Are a party's policies in Municipalities answerable to communities' needs? Explain

your answer.

22. Does political will always drive service delivery in the Municipality? Explain your

answer.

23. Does lack of political will among Municipal leaders result in inept and poor

performance? Explain your answer.

24. Are a party's policies not adhered to in Municipalities? Explain your answer.

25. Do Councillors engage and consult with communities in what they demand?

Explain your answer.

26. Do Councillors continually fight for improved service delivery in communities?

Explain your answer.

27. Is it true that Councillors could be sanctioned if they violate party's policies?

Explain your answer.

28. Do Councillors actively participate in planning and implementing of service delivery

programmes? Explain your answer.

29. Do Councillors always take initiative to improve service delivery? Explain your
    answer.

Section 4: Optimum Performance Issues

30. Which specific areas will you recommend Municipalities should work on in order to
    improve their performance (that is, Key Improvement Areas)?

31. What should be done to ensure the Municipalities are effective and efficient (that is,
    Developing a guideline for Municipal Success)?

<u>**APPENDIX F**</u>

Multinomial Logistic Regression

Multinomial logistic regression is a classification method with more than two possible discrete outcomes. That is, it is a model that is used to predict the probabilities of the different possible outcomes of a categorically distributed variables, given a set of independent variable. Multinomial logistic regression is used when the dependent variable is nominal or ordinal (equivalently categorical, meaning that it falls into any one of a set of categories which cannot be ordered in any meaningful way) and for which there are more than two categories.

In this study, the dependent variable is "Municipal performance" measured in terms (a) Unqualified, (b) Qualified and (c) Disclaimer and the independent variable is "political will" (measured in terms of (a) Understanding of opinions and attitudes; (b) Intensity and (c) Salience. The question that was answered by the regression analysis was: Which level of local government performance does a local Municipality have, given its particular level of political will?

APPENDIX G: MAJOR VARIABLES ALIGNED WITH POOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE AND POLITICAL WILL AS A NEW VARIABLE

Poor governance & accountability

Insufficient capital Resources

Lack of knowledge, skills and values

Poor leadership

Lack of commitment from politicians

Poor management of financial resources

Poor community participation

Poor development of human resources

Institutional Councils' amalgamation

Municipal Performance

(Service Delivery)

Poor communication

Administration & institutional constraints

Undue political interference

Lack of competent human resources

Corruption in tendering Process

Ineffectiveness & inefficiency

Non-compliance with laws & regulations

Lack of Political Will

Source: Khumalo *et al* (2003), Tshikovha (2006), Bonga (2007), Pretorius and Schurink (2007), De Villiers and Michel (2007), Marais *et al* (2008), Maserumule (2008), Butler (2009), Mahabir (2010), Dzansi and Dzansi (2010) and Auditor-General Report (2014).