

**THE NATURE AND IMPLICATIONS OF COMPLEXITY FOR DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT: A  
CASE OF SELECTED MUNICIPALITIES IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY AREA, LIMPOPO  
PROVINCE**

**By**

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**THESIS**

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## **DECLARATION**

I **Nghamula Wilson Nkuna** hereby declare that research titled “the nature and implications of Complexity in Developmental Local Government: A case of selected municipalities in the Vhembe District Municipality area” submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree Doctor of Administration in the subject field of Public Administration has not been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that is my own work in design and execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

**Nkuna, N.W (Mr)**

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date: 15 May 2013

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this study to my family and all who supported me throughout the rebuilding of my life after the 15<sup>th</sup> July 2002 after my involvement in an accident while acting as the municipal manager of Makhado Local Municipality. It was after that incident that I spent more time thinking of the realities that happen spontaneously unpredicted. That culminated to embracing the paradigm of chaos and complexity that always characterise our daily lives. Science has brought about rational thinking that has been the basis of my management until the 15<sup>th</sup> July 2002. After that incident, it came out to me clear that rational thinking need to be complemented by non-linear conception of circumstances. To the workforce of Makhado Local Municipality as well as South African local government in general, here are ideas to share in the discourse of developmental local government.

## **ABSTRACT**

Developmental local government was introduced in South Africa after the finalisation of the local government transformation in 2000. The notion was however provided for in terms of Chapter seven of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The introduction of the policy framework through the 1998 White Paper on Developmental Local Government provided a platform for the promulgation of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 which was followed by the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 to give effect to the notion of developmental local government as envisaged in the Constitution. Realisation of such system of developmental local government required interactions determined through various interactions ranging from structures necessary for establishment of municipalities to systems necessary for the municipalities to be functional. Those structures and systems comprise of a conglomerate of agents that derive their way of interactions from various schemas. Those schemas are informed by the mainstream positivist modern scientific public administration discourse that dominates the paradigm of public administration in South Africa. Yet interactions that give effect to developmental local government do not conform to the rational modern scientific prescription that are linear and seek to unveil a unified solution to all problems associated with the realisation of developmental local government. That is where the science of complexity comes to play through its conformity to postmodern ontology of seeking local solutions that are non-linear. It is however necessary to acknowledge that the rational scientific discourse is necessary within developmental local government realisation, it just have limitations that need to be complemented by complexity thinking as local governments together with its establishing structures and systems are by nature complex. It came about through complex interactions that do not always conform to modern scientific analysis. The state of public administration discourse in South Africa is still predominantly rational and adheres to the modern or mainstream public administration. These are exarated by the praxis of developmental local government itself in terms of its character and its constitutional founding of being a sphere of government that remain ideal than pragmatic. The characteristics of developmental local government themselves cannot be realised within the ambit of a single municipality. The notion of development also provide a conundrum of being translated to developmental which is adjectival to be reduced to a static meaning for proper rational analysis. Being a complex system developmental local government inhabit the characteristics or elements of complexity that cannot be unified to address problems facing municipalities within the country. The complexity of such systems transcend from the initial contextualisation of developmental local government to various

persona, multiplicity and pluralism, as well as accountability and responsibility. These create the form of morphogenesis from the inception in the form, structure, function and state of developmental local government. Developmental duties, being Integrated Developmental Plan (IDP), Performance Management, and Community participation remain the ideals that in reality might not be realised unless a complementary view of complexity thinking is considered. The engagement of literature in developmental local government, the state of Public Administration discourse in South Africa, Complex Reflexive Science and the empirical evidence gathered in municipalities found within the Vhembe District municipality area provide a scientific justification to the idea. Developmental local government needs to be dealt with as a complex adaptive system that is informed by the realities of the circumstances of its constituency. That in essence will require creative and innovative practitioners that do require uniform prescripts that need to be applicable to all municipalities irrespective of context, persona, multiplicity and pluralism, as well as dynamics of accountability and responsibility.

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Since the final phase of local government transformation in South Africa, the area of operation or activity for local government faces challenges, stemming from among others the implementation of the new local government developmental mandate that must give effect to the realisation of local government Constitutional objectives. In terms of the White Paper on Local Government 1998, it is in the interest of the nation that local government is capacitated and transformed to play a developmental role (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 1998:17). Developmental local government is intended to have major impact, either social or economic, on the daily lives of South Africans. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) together with other legislative statutes forms the basis of public policy that gives effect to developmental local government in South Africa. Public Administration as a scientific discipline is primarily concerned with the implementation of government policy (Botes, Brynard, Fourie, and Roux, 1996:257), and it is a practice of complex governmental service (Bingham, 1991: 02). In itself, Public Administration is a comprehensive and peculiar field of activity, consisting of numerous activities or functions executed by public officials working in public institutions, and aimed at producing goods and rendering services for the benefit of the community (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1993:57). Public Administration can further be regarded as the use of managerial, political, and legal theories and processes to fulfill legislative, executive, and judicial governmental mandates for the provision of regulatory and service functions for the society as a whole or for some segment of it (Bingham, 1991:1).

Public administration is required to implement new legislations and to administer the consequences of such legislations (Tshikwatamba, 2007:761). It serves as a vehicle for expressing the values and preferences of citizens, communities, and society as a whole (Bourgon, 2007: 7). Based on various definitions of Public Administration as referred to above, it can be mentioned that Public Administration is a field of activity that involves and deal with complex interactions within a public sphere for the achievement of the welfare of the society. Various theoretical Public Administration discourses, approaches, paradigms are applied to realise political, social, economic, and environmental challenges within communities. Dominant Public Administration discourses or current management paradigms are

applied at their best possible means. Problems do however, resurface now and then. Solutions are sought through revisiting the same strategies and tactics informed by those dominant public administration discourses, paradigms and approaches. Lessard (2007: 1755) put it that many of the strengths of traditional science, today, are central to its failings (see also Stacey, 1996; Zimmerman, Lindberg and Plsek, 2009). That itself means that the more traditional science seeks to address problems within the phenomena, those solutions later becomes problems. Thom and Fowler (1989: 02) put it that the fact that human kind have to consider more refined explanations, namely, those of science, to predict the change of phenomena, shows that the determinism of the change of forms is not rigorous, and that the same local situation can give birth to apparently different outcomes under the influence of the unknown or unobservable factors. Ironically, science which in principle denies indeterminism is an offspring whose only purpose is to destroy its parent in that the modern positivist rational quantitative deterministic theory was created to remove the indeterminism found in all instances of life.

This chapter introduces the study on implications of complexity on implementation of developmental local government in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area, Limpopo Province. The research problem that forms the basis of the study is stated. The rationale and motivation of the study is presented with the reflection of the state of literature in relation to the study area. The significance of the study is outlined as well as the aims and objectives. Research questions posed by the study are presented with the research methodology adopted. Research studies have to adhere to ethical practices within each field. It is therefore imperative to provide the considerations adhered to in the study as well as clarification of concepts that constitute the core of the study. The chapter is concluded by the layout of chapters for the presentation as it unfolds.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

The study investigates the nature and implications of complexity on the implementation of developmental local government in selected municipalities within the Vhembe District municipal area, Limpopo Province: South Africa. It determines how such complexities have an effect in those municipalities towards achieving municipal objectives. Complexity can be understood by referring back to its Latin root "*complexus*" which means something like "entangled, entwined, embracing" (Heylighen, 2007:4). A complex system can be described as a system that is comprised by a large number of entities that display a high level of interactivity (Heylighen, 2007; Van Uden, Richardson,

and Cilliers, 2001: 56). Developmental local government on the other hand is a local government committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 1998:17). The White Paper on Local Government of 1998 (DPLG) introduces approaches for new local government developmental mandate in the form of, *inter alia*, Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System and Community Participation in December 2000. The South African Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 is an integral part of legislation that gives effect to a new system of local government in South Africa. Introduction of the new developmental mandate is meant to address challenges facing municipalities outlined in the White Paper on Local Government (1998) and Constitutional objectives per the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

The problem is that the implementation of developmental local government in these municipalities is characterised by perplexing complex issues that emerge spontaneously. Emergence refers to the rising of new, unexpected structures, patterns, or processes in a complex system (Goldstein, 2008:8; Stacey, 1992:135). Those complexities tend to have implications on how those municipalities achieve their intended objectives. A prototypical example can be seen in how the Makhado Local Municipality had to reverse the re-naming of Louis Trichardt Town to Makhado Town on the basis of lack of proper community participation (*The Chairpersons' Association v Minister of Arts and Culture* [2007] SCA 44 RSA) as well as the refusal of the Malamulele Township community to be incorporated to Thulamela Local Municipality after 2000 local government elections (Mandiwana, 2006; Netshitopeni, 2002). In Musina Local Municipality the group calling themselves the Greater Musina Unemployment Forum invaded the newly constructed RDP houses without adhering to allocation list of beneficiaries provided by the municipality (Van der Merve, 2009).

Developmental local government constitutes a complex system, that consist of a number of components, or agents that interact with each other according to a set of rules that require them to examine and respond to each other's behaviour in order to improve their behaviour, and thus at the same time changing the behaviour of the systems or components they comprise. Those agents, tools and approaches need to be viewed as complex systems. As a system, developmental local government aspects that cause *morphogenesis* in form, structure, function, state and development to an even more

complex level of equilibrium and “multifinality” (Candice and Michael, 1987). The new local government developmental mandate is implemented per relevant directives provided by the National Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), now known as the Department of Corporate Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), through a variety of agents. Those directives and guidelines represent a schema for agents involved in the implementation of developmental local government. A schema consists of a set of rules that reflects regularities in experience and enables a system to determine the nature of further experience and make sense of it (Stacey, 1996:289). Regulations promulgated are applied throughout the diverse municipalities in South Africa. Application of those regulations coupled with interactions of other role-players involved on developmental local government results in *isomorphism* in that attempts are made to idealize the notion of developmental local government uniformly throughout the complex phenomenon. Isomorphism is a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions (Dimaggio and Powell, 1983: 149). The question addressed in this study is: ***What are the nature and implications of complexity on the implementation of developmental local government in selected municipalities within Vhembe District Municipality area?***

In summary, the study seeks to investigate the implications of complexity on implementation of the new local government developmental mandate in selected municipalities within Vhembe District Municipality area, because there is a need to know why municipalities have not been able to achieve statutory developmental objectives since the year 2000. This is done by investigating the extent of the implementation of the new local government developmental mandate in the form of integrated development planning, performance management and community participation in those municipalities.

### **1.3 STUDY RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION**

To articulate the rationale of the study, an explanation of the context that gave rise to the research project as well as the justification is made (Bak, 2004:16). The context refers to conditions that prompted the proposed research while justification indicates the worthiness of the research. The rationale and motivation also incorporate the theoretical framework of the study. According to Van Donk, Swilling, Pieterse and Parnell (2008:52), the past few years have been dominated by the rise of community protests against municipalities that are perceived as not delivering essential services and opportunities, as corrupt, or as acting against the spirit of the Constitution by victimising those too poor

to pay for municipal services. Some commentators, as reiterated in Van Donk *et al* (2008:52), interpret these as evidence that the prospect of Developmental Local Government is bleak, especially since the state has opted for a neo-liberal growth path tied to the commercialisation of service delivery. Neo-liberalism or neo-liberal policies are policies propagated by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank that recommend adherence to free market principles (Coetzee, Graff, Hendricks, and Wood, 2001:215). That means, *inter alia*, minimal government intervention in the economy, and privatisation of state enterprises, balanced budget and low interest rates. South African government has adopted the Growth, Employment, and Redistribution (GEAR) as its macro-economic policy during 1996 with a view of exerting fiscal discipline and cutting back on government deficit (Coetzee *et al*, 2001:214). Such policies have been cascaded down to local government through various legislations. A prototype example is the introduction of integrated planning as a strategic policy in local government as well as performance management which is meant to ensure efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery. The White Paper on Municipal Services Partnership of 2000 provide for partnering of service delivery with private sector (DPLG, 2000). That is put in place to enhance the might of municipalities to effectively deliver on services they supposed to deliver.

According to the General Report of the South African Auditor-General on Local Government (2005), some municipalities have not implemented all the developmental approaches, that is integrated development planning, performance management and community participation, as purported by relevant legislation. Whenever the new developmental mandate is partially implemented, it was for fulfilling legislative reporting requirements without having an impact on the developmental mandate for municipalities. A prototype example may be given where a municipality submits an integrated development plan for fulfilling the requirement of the legislation to adhere to a legislated due date of submission whereas such plan does not represent the real situation of the municipality. Infrastructure development, encompassing the management of building integrated human settlements, and basic services such as water, electricity and sanitation remain the core focus of municipal IDPs but still most plans rarely muster genuine intergovernmental attention and resources (COGTA, 2009: 36). This reflects on the existence of a practical problem of the failure by municipalities to establish and implement relevant legislated approaches to achieve its developmental mandate. Gunter (2005) in his study on Integrated Development Planning (IDP) and Local Economic Development (LED) in Mpumalanga Province, South Africa, found that both the IDP and LED are not successfully achieving their objectives

despite the utilisation of guide manuals for the writing of IDP's developed by the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), now known as the Department of Corporative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) with the assistance of the German Technical Institute (GTZ). The DPLG now known as COGTA have also made provision for guidelines to assist municipalities in drafting performance management systems (Performance Management Guidelines for Municipalities: Draft II: 2001). Interest in the study area was also due to the involvement of the researcher as an official in the district and local municipality administration from the transitional period of South African Local Government to the final phase of transition; that is between the years 1995 to 2006.

The synopsis of practical problems being experienced in local government through various studies as reflected above reflect on the need for further research in the field. In his foreword of the Performance Management Guidelines for Municipalities (2001), the former Minister of the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), Mr Sydney Mufamadi, stated that integrated development planning, performance management and community participation are mechanisms that reinforce each other to bring about change, transformation and improved service delivery at the local sphere. The reinforcement of these mechanisms or developmental mandate to bring about change, transformation and improved service delivery create complexities that warrant further study. Van Donk *et al* (2008:14) identified one fruitful avenue for future research, that is, to examine the dynamics of the complex systems applied to achieve the developmental local government mandate and contrast them with the way such systems are understood by senior managers and politicians. According to Kuye (2002:1), to understand modern concepts of Public Administration, there is a need to think within an interdisciplinary paradigm and make learning strategies more wide ranging, move away from a mechanistic approach in Public Administration to an approach of elaboration and collaboration. The intense rate of change and increased requirement for innovation that oftenly lead to hybrid interactions within the field and practice of public administration exemplifies the need for such elaboration and collaboration (Boland Jr, Sharma and Afonso, 2000: 899).

This study introduces another perspective on the current practice on implementation of the new local government developmental mandate through the complexity reflexive theory. The complementary view of complex reflexive theory add on the theory in use in municipalities within Vhembe District municipal area, and enhance the achievement of the developmental ideal and service delivery in local government.

The science of complexity studies the fundamental properties of nonlinear-feedback networks and particularly of complex adaptive networks (Cilliers, 1998; Lessard, 2007; McKelvey, 2002; Morcol, 2003; Stacey, 1996:10). Stacey (1996:10) further refers to complex adaptive systems that consist of a number of components, or agents, that interact with each other according to sets of rules that require them to examine and respond to each other's behaviour in order to improve their behaviour and thus the behaviour of the systems they comprise. According to Cilliers (1998:2), a complex system is not constituted by the sum of its components, but also by the intricate relationships between these components. Cilliers (1998:2) further state that complexity is not located at a specific identifiable site in a system because it results from the interaction between components of a system, it is manifested at the level of the system itself (see also Stacey, 1992, 1993, and 1996; Kiel, 1994; Farmer, 1995; White, 1995; Cilliers, 2000; Van Uden, Richardson, and Cilliers, 2001; McKelvey, 2002; Morcol, 2003; Haynes, 2003; Mitleton-Kelly, 2003; Fox, 2006; Heylghen, 2007; Lessard, 2007; and Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). Complexity science offers a new normal science epistemology, focusing on order creation by self organising heterogeneous agents and agent based models (Henrikson and McKelvey, 2002:7288). The connectionist agent based models of complexity draw on the conception of social ontology of postmodernism. Postmodernism is defined as incredulity of meta-narratives (Agger, 1991:116; Cilliers, 1998: 114). Instead of looking for a simple discourse that can unify all forms of knowledge, we have to cope with a multiplicity of discourses, many different language games all of which are determined locally and not legitimated externally. The manner in which the new local government developmental mandate manifests itself in each municipality might require a different explanation as it is different from the next municipality. Such explanations need different language games and the applicability is determined locally.

Postmodernism attempts to give new definitions to complex realities through constant processes of rediscovery and discovery of new discourses (Fox and Miller, 1995; Schwella, Burger, Fox, and Muller, 1996:349). Such may be achieved through looking for solutions locally in a postmodern way. Different institutions and different contexts produce different narratives, which are not reducible to each other. Tools and approaches for developmental local government consist of a number of components or agents that must interact with each other according to provisions of relevant legislation to realise objectives of local government. Anderson and others (2005:673) cited Cilliers, McDaniel and Driebe and refer to people, human processes, administrative processes and computer systems as examples of

agents in relation to complexity science. IDP, Performance Management and Community Participation are conceptualised as complex adaptive systems. They are not constituted by the sum of their components, but by the interaction among them and their parts. For example for the IDP to be complete, it must have as its part municipality's performance management system as well as the community participation strategy. Similarly, with the municipality's Performance Management System must draw its targets from the IDP and it must be informed by the Community Participation strategy. Each of these tools and approaches depend on each other. Haynes (2007) put it that it is problematic to determine exactly when a given policy starts and ends, and the policy process is widely viewed as an untidy process, that is cyclic and evolving, rather than constructed on a simple linear pathway. Their relationship becomes that of interaction while at the same time other systems or agents affect them as well as the environment. There is no solid boundary between the systems. Intertwined interaction exists among the tools and approaches for developmental local government. Each tool and approach has, however, also internally intertwined interaction, which at the same time responds to the outside environment independently. For example, community participation also has, within it, other systems or agents that interact internally as well as externally. The Ward Committee might respond to circumstances which are outside the institutional provisions of the municipality's community participation framework. For example where the ward committee also want to be involved in deciding who must be the local "*induna*" which is not provided for in terms of their duties. It is also phenomenal in a situation where the Mayor of a Municipality is also a local traditional leader. This results in a complex state which cannot be provided for, or predicted in implementing developmental local government. Only circumstances that take place locally and sometimes at a very short range may explain that interaction. The preamble of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provides that the new system of local government requires an efficient, effective and transparent local public administration that conforms to constitutional principles. Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 provides for the basic principles governing public administration in South Africa. Public administration is a comprehensive and peculiar field of activity, consisting of numerous activities or functions executed by public officials working in public institutions and aimed at producing goods and rendering services for the benefit of the community (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1993:57). These activities or functions can be classified into the generic administrative activities or functions, the functional activities, as well as the auxiliary functions (Coetzee, 1988: 12). Generic administrative activities are policy making, organising, financing, staffing, determination of work

methods and procedures, and control. Examples of functional activities can be building of roads, nursing patients, providing postal services, educating scholars and students etc. Auxiliary functions are data-processing, collecting and analysing statistics, research, decision making etc. These activities are performed simultaneously in public administration.

#### **1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

In order to provide the theoretical framework of the study, it was necessary to established if there was any research undertaken or an ongoing study on the investigation of implications of complexity on developmental local government in South Africa with specific reference to municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area, Limpopo Province at the time. According to the search made through the Nexus Database System conducted on 24<sup>th</sup> August 2007, it was established that there was no current research or completed research on the implications of complexity of new developmental local government in South Africa. Further search was conducted on 30 June 2009 through the key concepts as identified in the study. It established, however, that there have been studies conducted elsewhere in the world on complexity in local government focusing on other variables among others as decision making, accountability and responsibility. For example studies done by among others, Perona and Miragliotta (2003), Jalonan (undated), McKenna and Martin-Smith (2005), Jackson and Gariba (2002), Boonyapratuang (1993), and Dunn and Legge Jr (2000), that are briefly outlined in the ensuing paragraphs. None of the studies reviewed relate to complexity theory on implementation of developmental local government. Literature from those studies undertaken elsewhere in the world on complexity in local government forms the basis of contextualisation of this study. This search does not claim to have exhausted all the literature related to this topic, but considerable material in relation to this study has been covered for purposes of laying the theoretical framework. In reflecting such theoretical framework, it is necessary to begin by contextualising complexity. After contextualising complexity it is imperative to position complexity in the light of contemporary philosophy and science. Complexity also has to be seen in the context of Management and Public Administration and relate it at a municipal structure level with the current debates in the science of complexity.

### **1.4.1 Contextualising complexity**

To contextualize complexity for the theoretical basis of the study, the writings of Cilliers (1998), Stacey (1992, 1993, and 1996), Kiel (1994), Mitleton-Kelly (2003) and Haynes (2003 and 2007) laid a foundation. It is, however, important to clarify complexity from the point of everyday language. According to the Collins English Dictionary (2006), complexity refers to the state or quality of being intricate. Complex systems are made up of single elements which have intimate connections, counterintuitive, and non-linear links. Understanding the functioning of each single part does not imply to understand the whole system (Perona and Miragliotta, 2003:104). A complex system is defined by relationships and networks rather than by their constituent elements (Stacey, 1996; Murphy, 1996; Lessard, 1996; Cilliers, 1998; Blackman: 2007). A complex system interacts with its environment both in terms of feed-back and feed-forwards, so its boundaries connect the system with its environment rather than separate it. In a complex system, the interaction among constituents of the system and the interaction between the system and its environment are such a nature that the system as a whole cannot be fully understood by analysing its components (Cilliers, 1998:02; Haynes, 2007). The relationships are not fixed; they shift and change often in a self-organised manner. The system reach what in this study is referred to as a state of *morphogenesis*. Stacey (1996:284) refers to this as a complex adaptive system. A complex adaptive system consists of a number of agents interacting with each other according to schemas or rules that require them to inspect each other's behaviour and adjust their own in light of the behaviour of others (Stacey, 1996:284; Murphy, 1996). According to Dimaggio and Powell (1983) such interactions based on the schema lead to *isomorphic* changes. All human systems are complex, but machine type systems, however intricate, are complicated (Murphy, 1996; Mitleton-Kelly, 2006:224; Lessard, 2007). Examples of complex systems to be looked at in this study are among others, municipalities, integrated development plans, performance management systems, community participation systems, and any other systems that form part of the realisation of developmental local government.

### **1.4.2 Complexity in the light of contemporary philosophy and science**

Cilliers (1998) explores the idea of complexity in the light of contemporary perspective from philosophy and science and offers a unique approach in understanding complexity and computational theory by integrating postmodern theory into his discussion. Complexity is a philosophy of science derived from

the natural sciences concerned with phenomena and events that cannot be explained by traditional positivistic scientific method (Haynes, 2007). Dooley (1997) on the other hand views complexity as a paradigm of a systemic inquiry to build fuzzy, multivalent, multilevel and multidisciplinary representations of reality. Systems can be understood by looking for patterns within their complexity, patterns that describe potential evolutions of the system. Descriptions are indeterminate and complimentary, and observer-dependent. Systems transition naturally between equilibrium points through environmental adaptation and self-organisation; control and order are emergent rather than hierarchical. Stacey (1993) presents a conundrum of stability versus instability in organisations. Organisations, social institutions and economic systems constitute remarkably stable entities than when it is thought of just how complex they are. Those who want to change organisations often experience major frustration as these organisations stay the same no matter how sophisticated the culture changes. Implementation of the new local government developmental mandate automatically necessitates change in municipalities as organisations. The change is intended towards the achievement of constitutional objects. Stacey (1993) further outlines the intertwined stability and instability as a murky relationship between the legitimate structures and shadow systems, which make organisations repeatedly experience same difficulties in making sense of what is going on and, consequently, continue adopting the same reactions. Legitimate structures refer to what Thornhill and Hanekom (1995:163) refer to as formal aspects in organising while shadow system refer to an informal aspects of organising. Approaches for achieving new local government developmental mandate are intertwined and have both formal and informal aspects in practice. For example the development on a municipality's IDP involves formal processes plans designed by the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), now known as the Department of Corporative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA). At the same time other processes which are not provided for in the process of the development of the IDP taking place, for example the installation of new traditional leaders in Vhembe District ([www.zoutnet](http://www.zoutnet)). Stacey (1993) further contends that despite preaching and exhortation to improve things in organisations, problems resurfaces, and current methods of explaining why it does, and why preaching and exhortation do not work are so inadequate that we continue to be puzzled. He argues that there is a need for a new way to understand life in organisations, and that is through complexity science. This study applies the same theoretical base on the implementation of the new local government developmental mandate in South Africa.

### **1.4.3 Complexity in the context of Management and Public Administration**

Various authors like Stacey (1992,1993, 1996), Kiel (1994), Overman (1996), Murphy (1996), Lessard (1996), Dooley (1997), Cilliers (1998), Morcol (2003), Haynes (2003), Mitleton-Kelly (2003), Farmer (1995), Fox (2006) reveal how Complexity theory relates in the field of Management and Public Administration. The literature from those authors and researchers has laid a foundation for the understanding of the applicability of complexity theory in Public Administration. An overview of some of these literatures is outlined below to reflect the distinctions and similarities from the aim of this study. Complexity theory is applicable in both natural sciences and social sciences. Morcol (2003:1) cited the work of Sharkansky (2002) where it is established that in as much modern theories and research are trying to look for simple acts of policy making from setting up bureaucratic rules to privatisation and out-sourcing, it is a shift of responsibilities of dealing with complexity (see also Lessard, 1996; Murphy, 1996). Stacey (1996:4), refers to such modern theories as today's dominant management paradigm while, Farmer (1995: ix) refers to it as the mainstream Public Administration thinking. Morcol (2003) contends that Public Administration theorists developed rational comprehensive methods of addressing public administration in best simple way. The phenomenon that the best simple way public administration is addressing is complex. Blackman (2007) in an online article titled "Complexity theory and the new public management" explores whether complexity theory can inform a more realistic and democratic approach to achieving policy goals than the audit culture of performance management (<http://www.whb.co.uk/socialissues/tb.htm>). Higher education was used as an example to show how organisational systems interact with policy landscapes which can be tuned by government action. He concluded that scanning and responding to key parameter values offers a more flexible and adaptable approach than performance management, even though it needs more autonomy and a greater degree of discursive democracy within organisations than is currently the case in the United Kingdom's public services. The question is whether the new local government developmental mandate in South Africa is able to enhance the greater degree of discursive democracy within municipalities. Haynes (2003) focuses on the definition of public sector organisations as complex systems, systems that are more complex than business organisations. The argument is public sector organisations cannot be managed like business sector organisations. Municipalities represent a sphere of government in terms of the South African dispensation. Strategies applied in business like organisations do not yield the results they are supposed to if implemented in public sector organisations. For example, does Performance Management System as applicable to business like organisations apply to developmental local

government? Perona and Miragliotta (2003), present the results of an empirical research study devoted to investigate how complexity can affect a manufacturing company's performances, and those of supply chain. The evidence confirms that the way companies handle their operations system complexity has a deep effect on how well they perform. The model suggests that the ability to control complexity within manufacturing and logistics systems can be regarded as a core competence in order to jointly improve efficiency and effectiveness at a supply chain wide scale. Perona and Miragliotta (2003) study, was done in a manufacturing company. This study is, in relation to the findings of Perona and Miragliotta (2003), explores the implications of such complexities in South African local government. Municipal councils implement mandates they receive from the electorate by making decisions through council resolutions. Such council decisions transform to policy intentions for municipalities. Jalonen (undated) in the paper titled "The Role of Complexity in Preparing for Municipal Decision-Making," published through the Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities, made a conceptual analysis on how the theories of complexity may give insight and a new perspective into the preparation of decision-making at the municipal sphere. The goal of his work was to outline a framework for future research. McKenna and Martin-Smith (2005) in their study on decision making as a simplification process, find that failure-prone tactics and poor choice of leadership styles are minor causes of wrong decisions. Major causes are complexity and chaos in the environment, alternative psychological approaches, and political and ethical behaviours. Practical implications are that decision science tools and leadership style are applicable, but their relevance and applicability are subjugated by the complexity, uncertainty and near unknowability of the decision making context. The decision making context within which municipalities operate are characterised by complexity, uncertainty and unknowability.

#### **1.4.4 Complexity at Municipal Structure level**

The newly established South African municipalities found themselves having to service bigger geographical areas. This necessitated the need for decentralised service delivery mechanisms. Jackson and Gariba (2002) confirm that experience with decentralisation and community water management in northern Ghana highlights the complexities of coordinating stakeholders at the local level. To achieve developmental local government, municipalities have to coordinate stakeholders at the local level. Due to complexities of stakeholders themselves as well as the environment, it tends to be difficult to come with a relevant coordination strategy to ensure proper service delivery. The structures of municipalities tend to evolve in a complex form of *morphogenesis*. The change is *isomorphic* and occurs from a variety

of independent complex antecedents (Dimaggio and Powell, 1983). Thomas and Boonyapratuang (1993) examine the consequences of local government complexity on county revenue decisions in fourteen Texas counties comprising of Dallas-Fort Worth and Houston metropolitan areas. Their findings challenged the conventional wisdom of states creating local governments. It was confirmed that local choices are instrumental in shaping local government complexity. The challenge remains on the extent to which the conventional wisdom is in position of establishing those local choices without deviating from the dominant mainstream Public Administration discourse. Dunn and Legge Jr (2000) examine accountability and responsibility as it applies to local government managers in the United States. Elected officials, public administrators and other stakeholders involved in municipalities have different sources of accountability and responsibility. Elected officials might have the electorate or political parties as their source of accountability and responsibility while public administrators have professional and legal source. It was found that the accountability responsibility relationship among elected officials, public administrators, and the public occurs in multiple and complex ways. Such complexity of relationships marked the need for administrators to be simultaneously empowered and constrained. Such simultaneous empowered result in hybridization of discourse and knowledge in public administration that expose the limits of modern rational discourse. This study contends that such simultaneous empowerment is through the science of complexity. It further necessitates the need for a discourse that can be able to address and identify those local choices.

#### **1.4.5 The Science of Complexity**

There are several debates on application of the science of complexity as a replacement of current scientific discourse or mainstream public administration paradigm to be specific to this study. In as much as this study is not about the debate of modernism versus postmodernism, nor the replacement of current scientific discourse with complexity science, it is imperative to reflect the basis of the adopted position. Rosenhead (1998) in his work on “Complexity Theory and Management Practice” assesses the state of complexity theory replacing the current scientific discourse especially in management. It is concluded that in as much as some complexity theorists may claim to be introducing a new science that will not be possible without the foundation of the current scientific discourse. Phelan (2001) attempts to provide a meaningful answer as to what complexity science really is? According to Phelan (2001:130), new sciences are likely to arise as technology allows more areas to be mined for regularities or new human priorities. Complexity is a new science precisely because it has developed new methods for

studying regularities, not because it is a new approach for studying the complexity of the world (Lessard, 1996; Phelan, 2001:130). Science has always been about reducing complexity of the world to predictable regularities. Scientific methods are based on analysis, isolation, and the gathering of complete information about a phenomenon (Heylighen, Cilliers, and Gershenson, 2007:117). Complexity science on the other hand offers the promise to extend and integrate the ideas from Systems Science and Cybernetics, and thus develop a radical yet workable alternative to the Newtonian paradigm (Heylighen *et al*, 2007:124). This study is also premised on the fact that the modern scientific discourse is a foundation of complexity theorists and postmodern thinking. Complexity thinking contributes to develop awareness of issues including uncertainty, contextual issues, multiple perspectives, broader societal involvement, and trans-disciplinarity (Lessard, 2007: 1755; see also Healy, 1997; Dooley, 1997; Albrecht, Freeman, and Higginbotham, 1998; Van de Vijver, Van Speybroeck, and Vandevyvere, 2003). On those bases this study has coined such theory to be a complex reflexive science to draw from the iterative practices within developmental local government to be empirically presented later in the study.

#### **1.4.6 State of developmental local government**

The other aspect which warranted literature survey was developmental local government. As indicated in the introduction, the notion of developmental local government in South Africa came about the introduction of the new democratic dispensation after 1994. Various scholars and practitioners have written about developmental local government both in South Africa and internationally. It is argued that in as much as there appears to be a thorough engagement of the notion of developmental local in literature, the orthodox paradigm on the mainstream public administration which Fox (1995: 03) in citing Waldo (1948) regard as the enduring prescription of Woodrow Wilson's neutral public administration, informed by Taylor's scientific management, and Weber's hierarchical control. Both international and local literature has been reviewed to align the study within the scientific arena. The focus in this part of review is the institutional principles of developmental local government, the dynamics of local government transformation, local government and policy framework, and local government and New Public Management (NPM).

#### **1.4.6.1 The institutional principles of developmental local government**

De Visser (2005) provides a case study of South Africa on developmental local government. De Visser (2005) looks at the advantages of decentralisation through the prism of development as a goal served by decentralisation. De Visser (2005) addresses this through providing three institutional principles which could assist governments of transitional societies in making appropriate institutional choices to unlock the developmental potential of local governments. The proposed principles are autonomy, supervision, and cooperation. According to De Visser (2005:262), conventional wisdom on decentralisation is generally located around these principles. Compliance with the mentioned principles will go a long way in translating developmental aspirations for local government into an appropriate institutional reality. It however, needs to be mentioned that De Visser (2005:262) added the third principle of cooperation because problems such as the lack of political will to release power, miscommunication among spheres of government and duplication of development efforts cannot be addressed through the two institutional principles of autonomy and supervision. This study shows that the institutional principles as may be provided by De Visser (2005) or any other researcher on developmental local government, need also to be premised from the complexity theory point of view. Uncontrolled use of autonomy leads to fragmentation and unleashes some of the dangers to development that are harboured by decentralisation (De Visser, 2005:3). This study adopted the opposite to what De Visser (2005) propagates. Fragmentation is part of postmodern society, and it cannot be wished away in terms of the complexity theory point of view. The phenomena of developmental local government remain fragmented. It is described through interactions among various components. The tools and process available to ensure the new developmental mandate in local government have complex interactions. Through those complex interactions the form, structure and function of developmental local government changes and evolve on what is referred to as *morphogenesis* in this study. Such complex interaction also applies to the institutional principles as provided by De Visser (2005). For such institutional principle still conform to the mainstream paradigm or orthodox in the field of Public Administration.

#### **1.4.6.2 The dynamics of local government transformation**

Van Donk, Swilling, Pieterse, and Parnel (2008) document the dynamics of local government transformation and capture the key themes of the debates about policy options, lessons, and key strategic decisions from the South African experience. They deal with strategic priorities and tools of

developmental local government and address aspects related to this question. It needs to be understood that the transformation of local government in South Africa took place within a diverse and uneven societal landscape. Van Donk *et al* (2008), however, emphasise the need for more empirical-based research to render more generalisable results. One fruitful avenue for future research will be to examine the dynamics of these complex systems and then to contrast this with the way these complex systems are understood by senior managers and politicians (Van Donk *et al*, 2008:14). For it is problematic to determine exactly when a given policy starts and ends, and the policy process is widely viewed as an untidy process, that is cyclic and evolving, rather than constructed on a simple linear pathway (Haynes, 2007). This study partially addresses the same emphasis by viewing the tools and approaches for developmental local government as complex systems that are always in the state of *morphogenesis*. The linear conception of those tools and approaches has limitations as such they must be complemented by the non-linear conception from complexity theory that is being referred to as complex reflexive theory in this study.

#### **1.4.6.3 Local government and policy framework**

Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling, and Wooldridge (2002) provide an invaluable analytical overview of the emergence of developmental local government and the multidimensional policy architecture that underpins it. Their text venerates the ingenuity of the new policy agenda and emphasises the transformatory potential at the heart of it. At the same time, it calls for a sober approach to understanding the complex and messy politics involved in translating policy intent to practice, not least in a context of vast unmet needs and worsening inequalities in society. The literature from Parnell *et al* (2002) provides a base for the study to relate developmental local government to complexity theory. In concluding their first chapter Parnell *et al* (2002:13), state that different aspects of the local government policy framework will not consolidate simultaneously, and the precise implementation of the policy will be highly contingent on local power relations, mediating institutions and priorities. There are many ways of interpreting and appropriating the new local government policy framework, and it is certainly malleable enough to serve diverse and contradictory interests. Reductionist approaches that have a narrowly defined scope in terms of cause and effect ignore numerous contingencies and external mitigating factors (Haynes, 2007). This study contends that addressing these challenges from a complexity theory perspective will bring new insight to the way such policy framework is implemented.

#### **1.4.6.4 Local government and New Public Management (NPM)**

South African Local Government strives to implement the new local government developmental mandate as provided for in the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 and the White Paper on Local Government (1998) and other relevant legislations on developmental local government. The emphasis on efficiency in the White Paper on Local Government is firmly rooted in New Public Management ideas (Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling, and Wooldridge, 2002:8). New Public Management (NPM) has been defined by a number of writers in differing ways, but a point of congruence in the definitions is the attempt to implement management ideas from business and private sector into public services (Aucoin, 1990:115; Haynes, 2003:9; Bevir, 2009:142; Cameron, 2010). New Public Management is based on modern scientific discourse or what Stacey (1996:3) refers to as today's dominant management paradigm. Farmer (1995: ix) refers to such discourse as the mainstream public administration thinking. Parnell *et al* (2002:8) citing Mackintosh (1993) states that the New Public Management (NPM) in its narrow instrumentalist versions, the approach boils down to reforms to create a minimalist state and maximalist space of markets to structure the provision of various social and economic services. The implementation of the new local government developmental mandate in South Africa is informed by modern theoretical discourse of Public Administration or what can be referred to as dominant management paradigm (Stacey, 1996:3) or mainstream public administration (Farmer, 1995: ix). According to Kroukamp (2001:22), in order to enhance the ability of local authorities to deliver services, service delivery must be continually modernized, improved and directed towards the interest of citizens, and not towards the needs of the public service. Modernity may be characterised by rationalisation, centralisation, specialisation, bureaucratisation, and industrialisation (Bogason, 2004:2). Cunningham and Weschler (2002:106) explained modern as referring to our presently ingrained cultural values, the dominant theory in use in both society and academe: "causality, determinism, egalitarianism, humanism, liberal democracy, necessity, objectivity, rationality, responsibility, and truth". Such modernisation and improvements results in what Stacey (1996:4) called a vicious circle. It is a vicious circle in the sense that same approaches are repeated even though they do not yield the required outcomes. Mainstream public administration has conditioned public administrators to look for one best approach to address various phenomena without consideration of the complex nature of such phenomena. Modernisation focuses on looking for a best rational way of achieving an objective.

Dominant management paradigm (Hacey, 1996:3; Cameron, 2010) or mainstream public administration is assumed to be applicable on the implementation of the new developmental local government in South Africa. The environment in which developmental local government is implemented is complex. In most cases the implementation of the tools and approaches for achieving developmental government, namely, Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System and Community Participation, do not yield anticipated results. New Public Management interpretive frameworks provide simple answers for complex issues and clear procedural steps to solve specific problems, and so create a false sense of achievement (Parnell *et al*, 2002:8). Simplistic approaches to managerialism have failed to understand the great complexity of public service environment (Haynes, 2003:12). The domination of the Newtonian model brought simple and mechanical view of organizations and management (Kiel, 1994:12; Heylighen, Cilliers, and Gershenson, 2007:118).

The above synopsis of the surveyed literature was intended to illuminate some of the current debate on the subject of complexity and developmental local government and determine the extent to which such has informed the researcher to consider attempting to apply the same theoretical framework in the context of complexities on implementation of developmental local government in South Africa.

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study adds to the current theoretical thinking on the implementation of new local government developmental mandate in South Africa from a premise of complexity science in that developmental local government is explored as complex and adaptive. The significant contributions of the study in the field of Public Administration are to provide an insight on the implementation of new developmental local government to the effect that the tools and approaches constitute complex systems. The study contends that in as much as the tools and approaches for developmental local government are implemented on a highly modern scientific discourse in South Africa, a complement with postmodern thinking from a complexity theory point of view is necessary. Modernist public administration theory, although valuable and capable of producing even more remarkable results, is limiting as an explanatory and catalytic force in resolving fundamental problems about the nature, size, scope, and functioning of public bureaucracy and in transforming public bureaucracy into a more positive force (Farmer, 1995:ix; see also Fox, 1995).The study contributes in the discipline of local government by laying foundation for conceptualisation of approaches to developmental local government from a complexity theory

perspective. Practitioners and researchers in local government will be able to deal with developmental local government as a complex adaptive system which evolves through its implementation in the form of *morphogenesis*. This enhances innovation and creativity within the ambit of multi-disciplinary approach to developmental local government. The mandatory nature of the new developmental local government makes it difficult for municipalities to develop alternative systems of local government due to complex *isomorphic* changes within the phenomena. Therefore, it is significant that relevant studies be conducted continuously to ensure that the legislated policy framework of developmental local government is realised without embarking on a rational prescriptive recipe like approaches.

## **1.6 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

An aim is a general statement of intent, a broad goal with very little precision that the researcher plans to achieve when the whole research is completed (Nkatini, 2005:26). The research objective or purpose gives a broad indication of what researchers wish to achieve in a research (Mouton, 1996:101). The aim of this study is both academic and strategic (Bak, 2004:16). The academic aim attempts to capture an academic activity to be involved while the strategic aim reflects on pragmatic relevance.

### **1.6.1 Research Aim**

The aim of the study is to investigate the nature and implications of complexities on implementation of developmental local government in order to develop more insight to inform policy approaches in local government administration. Realities surfacing during the implementation of developmental local government in the form of IDP, Performance Management Systems and Community Participation as are analysed and reviewed to establish the extent of the nature and implications of complexities that emanate.

### **1.6.2 Research Objectives**

To achieve the main aim and objective of the study, specific objectives are stated. The research objectives are as follows:

- The *first objective* will be to determine the extent of complexity in the South African local government developmental mandate with specific reference to selected municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area. Municipalities will be viewed as complex adaptive systems and

a distinction of modern analysis versus the postmodern analysis will be exposed while grounding complexity theory as a base. The objective will be attempting to address the question on what complexities emanate from the implementation of new developmental mandate in local government within the research area.

- The *second objective* is to determine the extent to which the new local government developmental mandate is implemented in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipal area. Approaches, being the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), Performance Management System, and Community Participation, put in place to achieve local government developmental mandate will be analysed from the complexity theory point of view.
- The *third objective* is to determine the extent to which existence of complexities in the implementation of the new local government developmental mandate in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipal area is contributing to the realisation of local government objectives as outlined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, White Paper on Local Government (1998) and the South African Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, in those municipalities.
- The *final objective* of the study is to inform, develop insight on policy framework of the implementation of the new local government developmental mandate in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality Area.

On fulfilling these objectives the researcher will draw conclusions on the findings and make recommendations on a viable model to realise the new local government developmental mandate in South Africa.

## **1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

As a way of focusing on the research problem (Mouton, 2001:52), the following are research questions which the study seeks to address:

- What nature of complexities those emanate from the implementation of new local government developmental mandate within in the Vhembe District Municipality area, Limpopo Province?

- What is the extent of implementation of implementation of developmental local government in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area as envisaged in the White Paper on Local Government (1998) and the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000?
- What is the extent of existence or non-existence of complexities in the new local government developmental mandate have implications on municipalities achieving statutory objectives as outlined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), South African Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 and the White Paper on Local Government (1998) as well as other additional prescriptions contained in a variety of “developmental local government” legislation?
- What conceptual framework may be considered for the successful implementation of developmental local government mandate in South Africa?

## **1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study was restricted solely on the implications of complexity on developmental local government utilising complexity theory as a frame of reference. Interpretation of concepts as outlined was operationalised as defined under clarification of concepts provided in the study. It was not the intention of the study to entertain the ongoing debate on modern thinking discourse versus postmodern discourse. The focus was on IDP, Performance Management System and Community Participation as implemented within municipalities found in the Vhembe District Municipality area for the period between 2000 and 2011. The study was conducted within selected municipalities in the Vhembe District Municipal area. Examples of related trends from municipalities outside Vhembe District Municipal area or Limpopo Province are referred to where necessary.

The application of chosen research methods was biased to Makhado Local Municipality as it was the only unit of analysis where modified participative observation which meets ethnographic narrative approach was dominant. Other units of analysis were dealt with through methods as identified. Limitations of each research method adopted were acknowledged and the study did not preclude the utilisation of other research methods which might reveal different findings. The study did not intend to develop a new theory on the system of local government in South Africa but it intended to add new insight on the need for multi-disciplinary approach in the new developmental mandate of local government in South Africa and also the need to complement traditional modern approaches with

postmodernism in dealing with local government challenges. It is not the intention of the study to discredit the application of modern approaches to local government administration but, based on the findings of the study, it is necessary to complement the current approaches by postmodernism.

According to Stacey *et al* (2000:58), researchers are also humans participating in the very phenomenon they are researching. As a human activity, scientific research necessarily requires to be conducted by an individual or individuals. The researchers' ontological and epistemological stances (i.e., their attitudes towards the nature of reality, truth, and knowledge) are indicative of the perspectives represented in a research endeavour (Lessard, 2007: 1755). This goes further to regard all other individuals participating in the study as they are also systems or agents. The limitations attributed to the bias of the researcher in terms of the theoretical view adopted of the study are acknowledged. Other theoretical approaches than complexity theory might yield different findings in the study area. Depending on the findings of the study, generalisations may be made to help other sectors in the practice of local government and public administration. The need for further research in other areas of South African public administration may be recommended. The study is also undertaken for academic purposes towards fulfillment of the requirements of a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration with the Faculty of Management and Law in the University of Limpopo, South Africa.

## **1.9 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS**

Communication among human beings would be impossible without the existence of words expressing concepts (Bless *et al*, 2007:36). But for concepts to be useful, they must be defined in a clear, precise and non-ambiguous and agreed-upon way. To avoid ambiguities and obscurities in the study, the following key concepts are clarified:

**Local government:** Local government may be described as that sphere of government closest to its constituents and involved in rendering a wide range of services that materially affect the lives of the inhabitants residing within its area of jurisdiction (Venter, 1998:201). Lockard (1968) as cited in Cloete (1995:1) refers to local government as comprising of local community management and administration. It encompasses the political and bureaucratic structures and processes that regulate and promote community activities. In the South African context, the local sphere of government consists of municipalities established in terms of the South African Local Government Municipal Structures Act

117 of 1998. For the purpose of this study, local government will refer to municipalities established in terms of the South African Local Government Structures Act 117 of 1998 found within Vhembe District Municipality area, namely; Makhado Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality, Thulamela Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality.

**Local government administration** refers to the manifestation of generic administration process or functions within the sphere of local government. According to Bingham (1991:4), at local level, public administration is the everyday delivery of public goods and services to a diverse citizenry with equally diverse needs.

**New local government developmental mandate** refers to the application of inter-related tools and approaches which can assist municipalities to become more developmental as outlined in the White Paper on Local Government (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 1998:26), provided for by the South African Local Government Municipal System Act 32 of 2000. Those tools and approaches are Community Participation, Integrated Development Planning (IDP), and Performance Management systems.

**Modernism:** The term “modern” is derived from the Latin *modo*, simply means “of today” or what is current, as distinguish from earlier times (Cahoone, 1996:11). It has been used in various periods and places to distinguish contemporary from traditional ways and in principle can refer to a sphere of life. Cunningham and Weschler (2002:106) explained modernism as referring to our presently ingrained cultural values, the dominant theory in use in both society and academe: “causality, determinism, egalitarianism, humanism, liberal democracy, necessity, objectivity, rationality, responsibility, and truth”. Modernism emphasises the utility of tradition (as proven practice), as well as legitimacy, identity, achievement, and rationality (Jun and Rivera, 1997:134).

**Postmodernism:** According to Grbich (2004:17), postmodernity/postmodern literally means the time following modernity era, while postmodernism is the identifiable ideological position that developed from modernism, including further development of ideas, stylistic communications and perceptions and beliefs which began to dominate this era. According to Cilliers (1998:114) postmodernism means that there is no single discourse that can unify all forms of knowledge. We have to cope with a multiplicity

of discourses, many different language games – all of which are determined locally, not legitimated externally. For the purpose of this study postmodernism will be understood to mean that there is no single theoretical approach which can address a given phenomenon on its own without the application of other theoretical approaches from other disciplines with different interpretations. Those interpretations need to be informed by the realities of that given phenomenon which are determined closely or locally.

## **1.10 STUDY CHAPTER LAYOUT**

### **Chapter 1:** Introduction and background.

The chapter serves as an introduction for the study and it concentrates on the aspects to be covered throughout the study. The chapter relates closely to the proposal of the study intentions as provided during the inception. That comprises of introduction and background of the study. The statement of the research problem is provided followed by rationale and motivation. A brief review of literature is provided to provide the context and framework of the study. The significance of the study, research aims and objectives followed by research questions are outlined to guide the study. Ethical considerations and limitations of the study are provided. The chapter is concluded by the clarification of main concepts that forms part of the study as well as the study lay-out.

**Chapter 2:** Developmental local government praxis and the state of Public Administration discourse in South Africa. The chapter firstly deals with the conceptualisation of developmental local government by reflecting on the theoretical basis as envisaged in the relevant policy proclamations and its application to public administration. Developmental local government is presented from the perspective of being a sphere of government. Reflections on some theoretical hindrances in conceptualisation of the characteristics of developmental local government are made. This is linked to the ontology of postmodernism with a view of reflecting the state of complexity.

Secondly the state of Public Administration discourses in South African local government is presented. The chapter deals with the state of public administration discourse as it unfolds in developmental local government. The need for theoretical framework on developmental local government is presented. The normative nature of public administration is outlined with a distinction between dominant discourses and emerging postmodernism. A distinction is made on various methods and approaches in public administration.

**Chapter 3:** Developmental local government as a complex adaptive system: unavoidable phenomena. The chapter presents the theory of complexity and reflects its manifestation in developmental local government. The science of complexity is presented and relating it to developmental local government contextualisation and conceptualisation. Characteristics of complex systems and elements of postmodern society are presented. Principles of complex adaptive systems and enabling infrastructure form the basis of a theoretical framework adopted. Complexity is classified as complexity in multiplicity and pluralism; complexity in context; complexity in persona; and complexity in accountability and responsibility.

**Chapter 4:** The institutional framework and developmental duties of local government in South Africa. The chapter outlines the institutional framework of developmental local government through reflecting its structural arrangement. The ideal setup as provided for in theory and statutory framework form the basis of the chapter. The chapter comprises of the framework of developmental local government. The institutional models in local government; categories of municipalities; types of municipalities are presented. Municipal Council and Municipal administration as well as functions and powers of local government are outlined. The role and nature of Traditional Leadership are presented in relation to developmental local government. The chapter further reflects on developmental duties and responsibilities of the new developmental local government mandate by outlining the approaches put in place through legal and statutory provisions. The emphasis is on Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System, and Community Participation as sub-systems for developmental local government.

**Chapter 5:** Research design and methodology.

The chapter operationalizes the research questions per the research objectives. The research methodology is put in operation. The chapter comprise of the overview of literature presented in the previous chapters to extract the normative frame in relation to the study objectives. The study area is outlined. The qualitative and quantitative empirical survey is presented. Research Population; Sampling; and Data collection are presented in detail.

**Chapter 6:** Analysis and interpretations of the IDPs, Performance Management, Community Participation and survey results from local municipalities of the Vhembe District Municipality. The collected data is presented with findings interpreted in relation to addressing the research objectives. The

chapter consists of an overview of qualitative data and quantitative data. Interpretation of research findings is provided.

### **Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations**

Discussions on salient points and a summary of main findings obtained from previous chapters are made. Deviations or gaps are highlighted and the significance of the findings is exposed. Proposed inputs to current policy dispensation is made based on the findings, and a need for further research is identified.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT PRAXIS AND THE STATE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION THEORETICAL DISCOURSE IN SOUTH AFRICA**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In South Africa, following the December 2000 local government elections, the finalisation of new local government structures and the municipal demarcation process, the transitional phase of local government administration ceased and the new local government dispensation commenced (Nel and Binns, 2003:169). These arrangements reduced the number of Transitional Local Councils in the country from 843 to 283 municipalities. This process had profound implications for local authorities not only in vastly increased geographical area which reduced the number of local authorities has to administer, but importantly in terms of the new developmental mandate which these authorities have been charged with. These responsibilities include among others the need for local government to be developmental oriented through integrated development planning which must be done with the involvement of communities and ensuring that performance is managed. The praxis of developmental local government begins to pose complexities right from its initial characterisation. Locating its form and character for operationalisation and contextualisation create a dilemma for practice. This chapter firstly deals with the conceptualisation of developmental local government by reflecting its theoretical basis and some conceptual conundrum in its intended form and characterisation. Local government in South Africa is constitutionally a sphere of government as opposed to a “tier” or “level” in relation to other spheres of government. The manifestation of the sphere of government within the whole government dispensation is outlined with emphasis of probing the ideal in relation to the practical impossibility of realising it in practice. The discussion intends to pose challenges for the real praxis of developmental local government. Developmental local government in itself is emphasised through its characteristics and such characteristics are presented in a critical perspective of theoretical conceptual hindrances in a modern discourse to expose complexities that emanate in practice. Each characteristic is presented with a view of reflecting the variety of conceptual disciplines of the concepts applied. The various ontological theoretical bases which the characteristics of developmental local government draw its conception creates a challenge for the practice given the notion that Public Administration is uniquely poised between complex theoretical endeavours and the daily practice of governance (Fox and Miller,

1995:04). The challenge is that throughout the engagement the meaning evolve and take different contexts depending on circumstances. Bringing together those theoretical ideals to realise developmental local government in itself it create complexities and become reflexive in nature. Those complexities render developmental local government to be in the state of morphogenesis in its form, structure, function, state and development. Secondly, the introduction of developmental local government in South Africa came in during the state where debates within the Discipline of Public Administration were in full swing due to the need to adhere to the post-apartheid dispensation. The newly adopted democratic constitution of the Republic necessitated the need to refine the discipline of Public Administration in South Africa more so where there is provision for a chapter dealing with public administration. The transformations brought about by the changes in government sparked a debate. Local government transformation took place after other spheres of government were transformed. It is not clear as to whether the role players involved in the transformation of South African government system regarded local government as of low priority in the process of transformation or it was a regarded as a complex sphere which needed separate engagement. This in itself necessitated the need of a theoretical discourse in the local government administration. Processes during the introduction of developmental local government did however appear to have run faster than the actual theoretical debates. Local government transformation was a political project which was to be realised within a specific time-frame.

It is argued that the state of debate in the field of Public Administration have contributed in shaping the implementation of developmental local government. This chapter further justifies the need for a theoretical discourse in developmental local government and reflects on the space of public administration in the South African constitutional dispensation. The normative nature of public administration as also expounded in terms of section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 is presented. Such is presented by outlining the development of the dominant orthodox or modern discourse in relation to postmodern discourse. The dominant modern discourse in public administration is presented from its classic development of scientific management to systems thinking. The argument is that the dominant or modern discourse in public administration is based on the “positivist” ontology of the Newtonian science. It is the prevalence of this modern rational thinking that misleads practitioners in dealing with developmental local government as this is easily applied throughout the spectrum of management science without consideration of its complex reflexive nature. The dominant discourses attempt to reduce developmental local government to simple phenomena that

can be addressed through a reductionist approach that conforms to New Public Management (NPM). A brief outline of the development of various theoretical approaches to public administration is outlined. It is also outlined on how public administration is shaped by the development of Scientific Management discourse towards Systems Thinking. Those scientific developments contributed to shaping the dominant discourse in public administration and created the simplistic notions of the idealisation of developmental local government. The conclusion is that the society in which developmental local government is taking place is postmodern in nature. There are realities within local government which can only be determined locally. The traditions of postmodern society therefore necessitate the need to go beyond the prescripts of rational modern thinking that can be reduced to a recipe form. Postmodern ontology requires complexity thinking that warrant which this study referred to as complex reflexive science.

## **2.2 LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AS A SPHERE OF GOVERNMENT**

Local government may be described as that sphere of government closest to its constituents and involved in rendering a wide range of services that materially affects the lives of the inhabitants residing within its area of jurisdiction (Venter, 1998:201). According to Box (1998:41) local government is the context of the everyday lives and the only level of government that has constant impact on the physical and human social environment within which humans live. In essence the manner in which people go about their daily lives is within local government context. For example, each morning one takes a shower, local government is in charge in terms of providing water. It is therefore an open question if all 283 municipalities in South Africa are of common context. In reflecting the society that has created them, local governments are changing institutions, filled with incredible stresses and tensions as new demands are placed upon them (Powers, Brown and Arnold, 1974:7). South African local government is the context of the everyday lives of South Africans and it impact on the daily lives of the people. Being a context means that such local government is unique to contextual uniqueness of South Africans as well as in any other nation or state in the world. The notion of the sphere of government in the South African Public Administration discourse and practice is conceived in terms of Section 40 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The concept is connected to the term distinctive and situated within the broader scheme of cooperative government (Khosa and Muthein, 1998:137). The concept is expanded in section 41 of the Constitution to signify geographical, functional and institutional integrity with section 43(c) providing a legislative power dimension. Section 151 of the Constitution of the

Republic of South Africa 1996 provide that the local sphere of government consists of municipalities which must be established for the whole territory of the Republic with the executive and legislative authority vested in its Municipal Council. Such municipality has the right to govern on its own initiative the local affairs of its community, subject to national and provincial legislations. A Municipal Council consists of members elected in accordance with national legislation which prescribe the electoral system or members appointed by other Municipal Councils to represent those other Councils. Section 153 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 provide that a municipality must structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote social and economic development of the community as well as participating in national and provincial programs. This necessitates the need for systems to be put in place for a municipality to function properly.

Pimstone (1998) in Khosa and Mutheini (1998:137) refer to Heymans (1993); De Villiers (1997); Cloete (1995); Ismail and Mphaisha (1997) to conclude that a sphere of government then, as opposed to the level or tier of government, connotes to a greater or lesser extent, a shift from vertical to horizontal divisions of government power, a vision of non-hierarchical government in which each government sphere has equivalent status, is self-reliant, inviolable and possess the constitutional latitude within which to define and express its unique character. Ryder (1955:48) noted it almost five decades ago that there are two features that are not always fully understood about local government. *Firstly*, local government is autonomous in some ways, but not completely so in all. For example national departments in South Africa legislate on matters of local government in the form of structural arrangements and systems to be applied. *Secondly*, local government is not financed entirely from the local rates. It is also financed through allocations from other spheres of government. So there is always a blurring part regarding the South African local government as a sphere. Set against the reality of the constitutional distribution of powers, the requirement that national and provincial government ensure local government efficacy by regulating the exercise of municipal power, and against the present incapacitated state of most local government structures, this is somewhat an idealised conceptualisation of the notion of sphere (Pimstone, 1998:137). Theoretically, local authorities are autonomous – that is, they are authorised by legislation and regulations the right, or the power, to perform certain functions within their areas of administration (Ryder, 1955:49). In practice, the position is rather different as a result of the controls, exercised by higher authorities.

Considering the structure of South Africa's constitutional order which is marked by considerable centralisation within a unitary framework (Khosa and Muthein, 1998:133), the implications of the concept of sphere for local government are important. The national legislation, in the form of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 provide for the structures of local government while the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provide for the systems for managing developmental local government. The Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 provide for implicit prescripts on how municipalities must go about managing their finances. The preamble of the South African Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 provide that the Constitution establishes local governments as a distinctive sphere of government, interdependent and interrelated with national and provincial spheres of government. The South African local government will remain interdependent and interrelated to both national and provincial sphere of government. The legislative encumbrances placed on local government restrict its ability to develop individualised structures of government, but while such restrictions are substantial, there does appear to be scope for local government to evolve variations within the structured scheme (Khosa and Muthein, 1998:138). Developmental local government as a sphere of government in South Africa remains a constitutional ideal which in practice is unrealistic. Local governments are operating within a strict legislative control from other spheres of government which makes it impossible for them to be ideally autonomous as a sphere of government.

### **2.3 DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT PRAXIS**

As developmental local government is being introduced in South African local government administration discourse, much emphasis need to be made on its conceptual meaning to enable practitioners and scholars to locate or place it in its right position in local government practice. According to Smith and Vawda (2003:28) the idea of Developmental Local Government (DLG) emerged from the fusion of the social interventionist goals of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the market-driven economic strategies of the Growth Employment and Redistribution policy (GEAR); the two main national policies of the post-apartheid era for addressing economic growth and poverty eradication in South Africa. The RDP and GEAR represented different visions for how to bring about equity and redistribution in a deeply divided state and economy. Although years since the country's transition to democracy, there's been a passing parade of catch phrases, starting with the more progressive developmental ones that emanated from the short RDP era,

and the early concerns with nation-building (Kotze, 2007: 09). After the adoption of GEAR, the jargon turned more technical, as the complex processes associated with development were generally reduced to a matter of merely following universally prescribed models and technical management.

The fundamental meaning of developmental local government in South Africa is derived from the policy intentions provided for in the White Paper on Local Government (1998). Those policy intentions are provision for household infrastructure and services; creation of livable, integrated cities, towns and rural areas; local economic development; as well as community empowerment and redistribution (DPLG, 1998:22). The meaning derived from the White Paper on Local Government (1998) capture the ideal set in terms of the Bill of Rights in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Local government is set to be best placed to implement development in South Africa through realising constitutional objectives provided for in terms of section 152 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Such objectives are as follows:

- To provide democratic and accountable government for local communities.
- To ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner.
- To promote social economic development,
- To promote a safe and healthy environment, and
- To encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government

Each municipality must ensure that it administers its affairs to strive to achieve the objects as set out in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Gildenhuys (1997:3) conclude that the objectives of a local government may be categorised as follows:

- Control and protection objectives to control certain aspects of the environment and activities of individual citizens, and protect the individual against all kinds of natural disasters and other dangers.
- Social and welfare objectives to provide equal opportunities for the social welfare development of each citizen.
- Economic welfare objectives to provide equal opportunities for the economic welfare development of each citizen.

To realise those objectives municipalities must implement the new local government developmental mandate. The endeavor of locating the developmental nature of local government stems from its meaning which is a local government that is committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives. Developmental local government need to be presented beyond the point of development. Although it is illusionary to formulate a universal definition of development (Visser, 2005:9), developmental local government may draw a meaning emanating from other broader conceptualisation like a developmental state. The concept of developmental state links economic, political and institutional structures and explains the remarkable performances of the North-East Asian countries (Sindzingre, 2004:1). The ingredients of developmental states are often presented in the literature as determining factors in the prospects of catching-up of developing countries and as a paradigm of escaping underdevelopment. According to the National Capacity Building Framework (NCBF) for local government of 2008 (DPLG, 2008:38), the legal framework is only one part of the developmental context in which local government operates with the understanding of the local government by expanding on government's strategic approach to the establishment of a developmental state. In the context of the South African Constitution of 1996, a developmental state implies that municipalities assume a greater and very particular role in economic and social development (DPLG, 2008:39). A range of government initiatives aim to situate local government as a key contributor to socio-economic development, including the National Spatial Development Perspective (NSDP), the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDS), and Industrial Policy and Local Economic Development. In an attempt to place developmental government in context, it is however important to briefly have an overview of a developmental state.

### **2.3.1 Developmental state**

Kitthananan (2008:80) cited Leftwich (2008) to the effect that the basic idea and concept of developmental state can be traced from a number of antecedent sources and histories starting from the work of Friederich List (1885), Carl Marx (1852), to Gerschenkorn (1962), Mydarl (1970), through to Ellen Kay Trimberger (1978) and A.J. Gregor (1979). Leftwich (2000) suggested that none of those accounts explicitly used the concept developmental state, nor ever made any attempt to elaborate on it by specifying its preconditions, characteristics or constitutive elements. Johnson (1982) then invoked

the concept of developmental state to characterize the roles that the Japanese state played in Japan's extraordinary and unexpected post-war economic success (Kitthanan, 2008:81). The ingredients of developmental state are often presented in the literature as determining factors in the prospects of catching up of development (Sindzingre, 2004:1). According to Sindzingre (2004:3) developmental states have relied on active development strategies, especially industrial policies - as entrepreneurial states, engaged in creating winners than picking them. It has used heterodox economic policies like state intervention in the economy and even political rent – seeking, but these public policies were turned to market sanctions. Leftwich (2006:63) defines the developmental state as “a state whose politics have concentrated sufficient determination, power, autonomy, capacity and legitimacy at the centre to shape, pursue and encourage the achievement of explicit developmental objectives, whether by establishing, promoting, and protecting the conditions of economic growth (in the capitalist developmental states, by organising it directly in the ‘socialist’ variants), or a varying combination of both”. South Africa has tried to use a combination of both. The developmental state is intended to simultaneously promote economic growth and social objectives such as poverty alleviation, which facilitate state intervention in the market. Johnson (1982) distinguished developmental state in the context of orientation of the ‘plan-rational’ developmental state from the ‘plan-ideological’.

Johnson (1982) as cited in Stein (2000:9) presents components of his model of a developmental state. The components are:

- The existence of a small, inexpensive but elite bureaucracy staffed by the best managerial talent available in the system.
- A political system in which the bureaucracy is given sufficient scope to take initiative and operates effectively.
- The perfection of market – conforming methods of static intervention in the economy.

Sindzingre (2004:6) on the other hand contend that states are not fixed as developmental for eternity. By conceptual construction, developmental states are associated with better economic achievements. Their various components do not, however, automatically lead to development. The features that characterise them cannot be transposed as such to other contexts, as they refer to institutions that are shaped by particular historical trajectories. Sindzingre's (2004) contention emphasise that Johnson's (1982) components of a developmental state must be considered in contexts. It will be a discourse

fallacy if such components are transposed as such to other contexts without considering institutions' historical basis.

### **2.3.2 Conceptualisation of developmental local government**

In the previous paragraph an attempt was made to provide a praxis developmental local government and an overview of a developmental state. The overview was made to elucidate the state or context in which the South African local government needs to reflect within a relevant sphere to be developmental. It is however also important to distinguish development from developmental as the concepts appear to be applied interchangeably in developmental local government literature, like in Visser (2005) and Nel (2000). In conceptualising developmental local government it is important to present development as a concept first, followed by conceptualisation of developmental local government as provided for in the 1998 White Paper on Local Government (DPLG:1998), for example in Nel (2000) and Smith and Vawda (2003). It need to be put forward that the notion of developmental local government need to be conceptualised as a single concept just like a developmental state, and be unpacked beyond the simple outline as explained in the White Paper on Local Government of 1998. The intentions of developmental local government are greater than the simple description presented in the White Paper on Local Government of 1998. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) provided a working definition that must transcend beyond narrow conceptualisation in practice.

The notion of development and developmental in the South African public administration discourse need to be conceptualised taking into cognizance also the debate of other actors, like Congress for South African Trade Unions (COSATU) and South African Communist Party (SACP), in the macro-economic policy landscape in the country. The adoption of Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) after the 1994 democratic elections as well as the introduction of Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy during 1996, as highlighted in the previous paragraph, provided another conception of development. In practice, developmental local government set out to mediate between the social goals of the RDP and the economic imperatives of GEAR (Smith and Vawda, 2003:29). The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress and it sought to mobilise all the people of South Africa and the country's resources toward the final eradication of the results of apartheid (RSA, 1994). Its goal was to build a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future and it represents a vision for the fundamental

transformation of South Africa by developing strong and stable democratic institutions; ensuring representative and participation; and ensuring that the country becomes a fully democratic, non-racial and non-sexist society by creating a sustainable and environmentally friendly growth and development path. The GEAR on the other hand was a strategy for rebuilding and restructuring the economy of South Africa in keeping up with the goals set in the RDP (RSA, 1996). It was introduced in the context of the integrated economic strategy, that could successfully confront the related challenges of meeting basic needs, developing human resources, increasing participation in the democratic institutions of civil society and implementing the RDP in all its facets. The definition of developmental local government as provided for in the 1998 White Paper on Local Government summed the aspirations of RDP and GEAR. This study is not in a position to can confirm whether the ruling party's alliance partners' alignment to the Marxist theorization of development which is narrowly on economic perspective. Marxist theories of development are negative in the sense that they stress the notion of underdeveloped (Leroke, 1996:224). The RDP and GEAR were introduced at the early stage of South Africa's democratic dispensation. As such they have partially influenced the range of policies and legislation that followed. For example the notion of public participation and representativeness as reflected in the RDP found its way to various Acts of Parliament that have been enacted after the RDP as well as the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1998 itself. Financial reforms as proposed in the GEAR strategy found space in Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999 which was followed by Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003. These developments provide a landscape on how the notion of developmental local government can be conceptualised in South Africa.

### **2.3.2.1 Development**

Visser (2005:10) defines development in terms of elements of material, choice and equity. Material element encompass the satisfaction of material needs and improvement of standard of living with the reduction of absolute poverty, while choice relate to the extent people take control of their lives. Equity takes the form of inter-social or redistribution and intergenerational or sustainable equity. Kotze (1997:6) defines development from a process perspective to refer to it as a positive change that must ideally occur through democratic and consultative practices, through identifying, as accurately as possible, and acting on what is good for people in a particular context, and through the clear-headed identification of constraints and opportunities. Nel (2000:49) on the other hand argued that development involves both 'doing' and 'being'. It involves doing in that emphasis is usually placed on designing and

managing programmes and projects to bring about visible and significant changes in the circumstances of the people. On the other side it involves being in the sense that it aims to increase the capacity of the people to influence their future. This implies that development programmes and projects do not only need to accomplish physical and concrete changes, but need to do so in such a way that people have an increased capacity to respond to and even shape these changes (Nel, 2000:49-50). Teune and Mlinar (1978:29) refer to development as the integrated diversity of systems and their scale. It is by definition a characteristic of all systems with interdependent components such as organisations, institutions, human beings, societies, etc. Development must be seen as a complex process which is not located, controlled, or even manipulated by human actors (Leroke, 1996:229). It involves numerous processes and interactions from various components acting independently.

### **2.3.2.2 Developmental**

Developmental instead is adjectival in the sense that it is more of relating to or constituting development (Hornby, 2006:400). It can be understood through its characteristics or a range of activities instead of a once off explanation. Parnell and others (2002:80) relate to a number of implicit poverty strategies that impact on settlement issues and problems, and the changes that extend beyond the deracialisation of planning dispensation and amount of fundamentally different system of local governance and development. Teune and Mlinar (1978:15) refer to developmental as increases in the scale of social systems change and such scale is development; and increases in scale are more than simple increases in size or quantity. Teune and Mlinar (1978:27) further outline developmental from a systems perspective. They (Teune and Mlinar) assert that developmental system can be defined by its capacity to generate new properties and to integrate them which results in changing the nature of the components and their relationships. The prototypes of developmental systems are social systems (Teune and Mlinar, 1978:28) such as organisations, institutions, societies, etc. Based on Teune and Mlinar's (1978) conception of developmental systems, developmental local government must have a capacity to generate new properties and be able to integrate them which will result in changing nature of the components and their relationships. In the context of local government it means that such local government should in its being ensure development in the sense of progress and evolution. Such local government is not static; it will be progressing continuously and evolving to a better state so as to achieve development. In terms of the White Paper on Local Government (1998) such local government should be committed to working with

citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives.

The required state of developmental local government as sought in South Africa has characteristics provided for in terms of the White Paper on Local Government of 1998 (DPLG, 1998). Smith and Vawda (2003:29) present those characteristics as four core elements for putting developmental local government in practice, namely, cultivating citizens through participation in service delivery, good governance, democratising development, and fostering economic growth. Putting those characteristics in context provide a discourse quandary that result in challenges for proper implementation.

## **2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

As outlined in the previous paragraph that developmental local government may be understood through its characteristics than a once off description. Those characteristics are maximizing social development and economic growth; integrating and coordinating; democratising development; and leading and learning (DPLG, 1998: 18). These characteristics are interrelated. Each characteristic is one way or another related to each other. The interrelation result in interactions that build up complex reflexive relationships. The characteristics serve as description features of the notion of developmental local government as envisaged in South African dispensation. The variety of theoretical basis where such characteristics draw the ideal ontology forms a hybrid that provide for multiple interpretations and contextual issues. Those multiple interpretations and context create a complex system that cannot be reduced to a single rational explanation. Each characteristic cannot be rationally idealised for operationalisation within the constraints of a single municipality. The isomorphic institutional factors also come to play. It will always be subjected to multiple complex idealizations and pose a challenge for developmental local government. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) provides the following characteristics of developmental local government:

### **2.4.1 Maximising social development and economic growth**

Maximising social development and economic growth are among the characteristics of developmental local government. While it might be clear what economic growth means; the concept of social development is much vaguer (Vanin, 2002:3). Social development on its own forms a subject area that requires further outlining as well as economic growth.

### **2.4.1.1 Social Development**

Social development is conceived as a process of social capital accumulation (Vanin, 2002:3). Social development is thus an outcome of a sum of total actions to address various dimensions of social support, as opposed to a single action the successful application of which achieves the goal of social development (Van Donk *et al*, 2008:223; Vanin, 2002). This in essence means that social development consists of numerous processes from various angles in a society that cannot be summed into one identifiable process. Whatever its definition, social development from the point of view of a broader perspective goes beyond the borders of economics and connects social development to individual identity formation (Vanin, 2002:3). It is both an outcome and process. It can be defined in a number of ways by different authors. It can be argued that social development is a planned process, and is an approach to the transformation of society that allows holistic development processes to take place towards the reduction or eradication of poverty, inequality and uneven development or underdevelopment (Van Donk *et al*, 2008:224). By itself social development stems from more than one dimension. Thin (2002) as cited in Van Donk *et al* (2008:225) states that inclusive to social development aspects like, health, education, demography, basic needs, informal sector activities, poverty, crime, unemployment, culture, relevant civil society organisations, unmonetised subsistence activities and empowerment. These aspects, to help clarify social development must be analysed from a perspective of including society. Local government should exercise their powers and functions in a way that has a maximum impact on the social development of communities, in particular meeting the basic needs of the poor, and on the growth of the economy (DPLG, 1998:18). In a municipal context social development is performed through the provision of social safety nets to the poor and vulnerable comprising of services like, non-contributory social grants, social welfare services, and development support programmes.

The White Paper on Local Government (1998) states that provision of basic household infrastructure is the central contribution made by local government to social change and economic development (DPLG, 1998:19). Local government can also promote social development through functions such as arts and culture, the provision of recreational and community facilities, and the delivery aspects of social welfare services.

### **2.4.1.2 Economic Growth**

According to Gylfason (1999:13) economic growth is a complex and controversial phenomenon (see also Colombatto, 2006). Economic growth refers to a positive change in the level of production of goods and services by a country over a certain time. In the developmental local government context it may refer to such growth taking place within the municipal sphere. Economic growth may also be defined in terms of nominal growth, which includes inflation. It is usually brought about by technological innovation and positive external forces. The theory of economic growth has deep roots that extend as far back in time as economics itself (Gylfason, 1999:29; Colombatto, 2006:244). Economics studies the voluntary interaction among human beings, who enhance their condition by trading goods with other human beings generally characterised by different preferences and/or skills (Colomatto, 2006), but agents also exchange information, strive to find better ways to allocate available inputs among competing production lines, learn about their (latent) tastes through trial and error processes, which benefit from previous mistakes and follow the evolution of preferences and habits through time. This in essence means that as long economic growth is viewed from qualitative perspective, it is illusive to reduce it in practice. Various theorists like, Adam Smith, David Hume, David Ricardo, John Stewart Mill, and Karl Marx have contributed to the development of economic growth theory from its classical stage. The empirically inclined economists at the World Bank and elsewhere are continuing to search for economic explanations for economic growth (Gylfason, 1999:29). Economic growth is still a notion for debate that there is currently no unified acceptable determination. Developmental local government also finds itself in the same dilemma of having to determine and identify economic growth within a municipality. There is a need for contextualisation of economic growth for developmental local government. The question is that contextualisation will suit various municipalities within the country.

### **2.4.2 Integrating and coordinating**

Within any local area many different agencies contribute to development, including national and provincial departments, parastatals, trade unions, community groups and private sector institutions (DPLG, 1998:19). Developmental local government must provide a vision and leadership for all those who have a role to play in achieving local prosperity. The activities of the different agencies in local government must be integrated and coordinated. One of the most important methods of achieving greater coordination and integration is Integrated Development Planning (DPLG, 1998:19). Integration

is the probability that a change in one component will lead to changes in other components (Teune and Mlinar, 1978:40). Mary Parker Follett (1868-1993) cited in Mosley and others (1996:58) refers to integration or collaboration as a method of constructive conflict resolution whereby the people involved look for ways to resolve their differences so that everyone gets what he or she wants. Integration is thus a characteristic of the relationships among the components of a system (Teune and Mlinar, 1978:40). Coordination on the other hand as defined by Smit and Cronje (2002:195) means that all departments, sections, and individuals within the organisation should work together to accomplish the strategic, tactical, and operational goals of the organisation. It entails integrating all organisational tasks and resources to meet the organisation's goal. Integration in developmental local government must be understood as the characteristic of relationships among the components or agencies involved in local government. The level of integration has interdependencies among components rather than aggregative relational properties. According to Teune and Mlinar (1978:40), integration is composed of three dimensions. Smit and Cronje (2002:195) cited Thompson to refer to such dimensions as three major forms of interdependence.

#### **2.4.2.1 Dimensions of integration**

The *first dimension* is that there is strength of the interdependencies which the probability is that change in one component or agency will lead to a change in the other components or agencies (Teane and Mlinar, 1978:40). Strength of dependence or connectedness for a system as a whole – refers to the average probability for all components across some stable number of time points. According to Thompson as cited in Smit and Cronje (2002) this is a pooled interdependence. In groups that exhibit pooled interdependence, the units operate with little interaction; the outputs of the units are pooled at organisational level. Failure of any unit could threaten the entire organisation from achieving its objectives.

The *second dimension* is that of inclusiveness, which is the extent to which every component or agency of the system has an equal probability of changing or being changed by other components without regard to the level or strength of that probability (Teane and Mlinar, 1978:40). Thus, the system could have little strength but inclusive. There would be a small but equal probability of change affecting all components. A distinction must be made between system components or agencies that are behaviourally a part of a system and physical units that are normatively but not behaviourally a part, like the totally isolated individuals residing within the country. Thompson in Smit and Cronje (2002:195) refer to this

form as sequential interdependence where the output of one unit becomes the input for the next unit. The second unit is directly dependent upon the first unit to finish its work before it can begin its assigned tasks.

The *third dimension* of integration is extensiveness, the proportion of all properties of the components or agencies that are affected by changes in other components (Teane and Mlinar, 1978:40). Thus the system can be highly integrated on the dimensions of strength and inclusiveness, but the system affects only a small proportion of all properties held by components. A system may be integrated economically, but not so politically. In terms of the forms it is a reciprocal interdependence (Smit and Cronje, 2002:195). Reciprocal interdependence refers to a situation in which outputs of one work unit become the inputs for the second work unit and *vice versa*. At different levels of development, different types of components or agencies will be more integrated than others (Teune and Mlinar, 1978:43). How well integrated a particular component is with the system depends on the probability of each of its properties being affected by changes in other components and the differences of variances in those probabilities for each property.

### **2.4.3 Democratising development**

Municipal Councils play a central role in promoting local democracy (DPLG, 1998:20). According to Swilling (1990) and Bond (2000) democratising development requires moving beyond a representative democracy to participatory democracy (Smith and Vawda, 2003:30). In addition to representing community interests within the Council, municipal councillors should promote the involvement of citizens and community groups in the design and delivery of municipal programmes. According to Birch (1993:47), understanding democracy from the dictionary definition, that means rule of the people, one immediately run into a problem of how, in practical terms, to define the people and how to define the meaning of rule. The word “democracy” comes from the Greek word literally means rule by the people (Birch, 1993:45). The Greeks gave the word, but not the model. The assumptions and practices of Greeks were very different from those of modern democrats. The kind of confusion does not pose serious problems so long as language is used with some precision. But language in public administration is shaped and constrained by the existence, denotations, and connotations of various words (Farmer, 1995:2). According to Birch (1993:47), the term democratic is used to indicate a degree of social equality, not a form of government. Social democracy is a political ideology which advocates socialist economic and social policies to be carried out within a society which has democratic political

institutions and processes, so the concept of social democracy is parasitical upon the concept of political democracy. Rusen in Van Beek (2005:337) refer to democracy as a form of political organisation guided by the idea that political domination and government should be grounded in the will of the ruled people. The ruled should also be rulers, and political power should be rooted in, and legitimated by, the will of the people (Van Beek, 2005:337).

According to Beetham (1999:1) anyone attempting to give a defensible definition of democracy has to address a number of problems. One is the sheer number and diversity of meanings attached to the term over the last half century. Beetham (1999:1) identified some of those meanings as follows:

*“rule of the people, rule of people’s representatives, rule of the people’s party, majority rule, dictatorship of the proletariat, maximum political participation, elite competition for the popular vote, multi-partyism, political and social pluralism, equal citizen rights, civil and political liberties, a free society, a civil society, a free market economy”.*

The definitions as provided reflected above create an overlap and some inconsistencies. Beetham (1999:1) allude to the fact that the most frequent of these antitheses are: democracy as a descriptive or as a prescriptive concept; democracy as institutional procedure or normative ideal; direct versus representative democracy; elite versus participatory democracy; liberal versus non-liberal democracy; deliberative versus non mass democracy; political versus social democracy; majoritarian versus consensual democracy; democracy as individual rights or the collective good; democracy as the realisation of equality or the negotiation of difference. The persistence of these antitheses encourages the belief that democracy is yet one more essentially contestable concept, about whose definition there can be in principle be no grounds for agreement (Beetham, 1999:2). Let alone if the concept had to be operationalised in a diverse society like South Africa. In providing the framework of democratising development, empowering and redistributing, the White Paper on Local Government (1998) provide that other than promoting the involvement of citizens and community groups in the design and delivery of municipal programmes, creative energy must be harnessed from citizens and include the excluded (DPLG, 1998:20). Democratization is a multi-level process, encompassing social, cultural, economic and political dimensions, with each having its own distinctive features and dynamics; the driving force remains the political game that is the complex negotiations and deal-making between among the involved stakeholders (Van Beek, 2005:65). Democratization of local government in this context means

that communities can have a say in the kind of services delivered and amount charged such as rates and taxes, water and sanitation (Mackay, 2004:37). Participatory processes must be put in place and they must not become an obstacle to development, and narrow interest groups must not be allowed to capture the development process (DPLG, 1998:20). Democracy as characterised in the South African developmental local government goes beyond the single meaning. It ranges from representation to deliberative form. Deliberative democracy is discussed in detail under public participation in chapter five of this study. For example, Beetham (1999:2) cited one of the most celebrated of all twentieth-century definitions of democracy by Joseph Schumpeter. Schumpeter as quoted in Beetham (1999:2) wrote that democracy is that institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of competitive struggle for the people's vote. Schumpeter's definition still was biased to the level of public participation. Schumpeter tailored his definition to the level of public participation which he thought desirable, thus confusing the issue of how far democracy is good (Beetham, 1999:3). For example there is no clear reason why the elite competition for popular vote should be called democracy rather than elite pluralism, polyarchy, or whatever. Beetham (1999:3) conclude that to say that this is what so called democracies do is merely circular. The question may be asked as to whether the supposed democracy might not be more democratic if ordinary citizens, as they typically do, lobbied their representatives between elections, organised campaigning groups, engaged in consultative processes, took part in demonstrations, and so on, i.e. if actively regarded public matters as their affair, and their representatives were systematically required to listen to them. In this instance the notion of "wall-to-wall" local government means that every South African will have direct access to democratically elected representatives in the management of their local area (Parnell *et al*, 2002:83).

Van der Waldt and Helmbold (1995:4) outline democracy in the South African context from a philosophical basis and divide it up in terms of liberal democracy, social democracy and consensus democracy. Liberalism rests on the assumption that the long-standing social, economic and political problems of the day can be quickly and permanently smoothed out by the complete dismantling of the "old order" and transformation of society in accordance with the new guidelines. The principles of liberal democracy might be summed up as legitimacy governing structures, respect of human rights and elected representation. Consensus democracy presupposes willingness on the part of all the significant political groupings represented in the legislative and executive bodies to work together in protecting and

promoting the interests of the country whilst at the same time also taking one another's interests into account (Van der Waldt, 1995:6).

#### **2.4.4 Leading and learning**

Extremely rapid changes at the global, regional, national and local levels are forcing local communities to rethink the way they are organised and governed (DPLG, 1998:21). All over the world communities must find new ways to sustain their economies, build their societies, protect their environments, improve personal safety (in particular for woman) and eliminate poverty. According to the White Paper on Local Government (1998) there is no single correct way to achieve these goals (DPLG, 1998:21). Various frameworks and support from other spheres of government and other role-players or agencies are critical. Municipalities must also find within themselves ways to make their settlements more sustainable. This requires trust between individuals and open and accommodating relationships between stakeholders. Conditions should be created for local solutions to development. Municipalities must build social conditions favourable for development. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) identified the following measures to build community capacity:

- Building the kind of political leadership that is able to bring together coalitions and networks of local interests that co-operate to realise a shared vision.
- Responsive problem-solving and commitment to working in open partnerships with business, trade unions and community based organisations.
- Ensuring that knowledge and information are acquired and managed in a way that promotes continuous learning, and which anyone can access easily and quickly.
- Enhancing local democracy through raising awareness of human rights issues and promoting constitutional values and principles.
- Building an awareness of environmental issues and how behaviour of residents impacts on the local environment, and encouraging citizens to utilise scarce natural resources in a prudent, careful manner.
- Investing in youth development as a key resource for the future, and building on their creativity and motivation through involvement in civic and development programmes.

- Actively seeking to empower the most marginalised groups in the community and encouraging their participation.
- Empowering ward councilors as community leaders who should play a pivotal role in building a shared vision and mobilising community resources for development.

Developmental local government requires that municipalities become more strategic, visionary and ultimately influential in the way they operate (DPLG, 1998:22). Local municipality councils have a crucial role as policymakers, as thinkers and innovators, and as institutions of local democracy. To be strategic, visionary and influential warrant leadership. Kotter (1990:3) have noted that the concept of leadership is mainly used in two very different ways in everyday conversation. Sometimes it refers to a process that helps direct and mobilise people and/or their ideas, for example the mayor of a local municipality is providing leadership in local government. At other times it refers to a group of people in formal positions where leadership is expected, for example the elected council of the local municipality must provide local leadership. Leadership is the process of directing the behaviour of others towards the accomplishment of the organisation's goals (Smit and Cronje, 2004:279). Northouse (2007:3) define leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Developmental local government therefore must be characterised by ensuring that processes are in place to influence all agents and stakeholders towards achieving the common goal. Nkuna (2007:232) cited Dimock and Dimock (1969) that in the era of growth and complexity, it is leadership that provides direction. Leadership becomes the principal means of overcoming programme fragmentation and correcting the pathologies of bureaucracy. It substitutes willing cooperation for rule based on authority at the top to make possible for people to enjoy their endeavour (Nkuna, 2007:232). Leadership in itself has components. Such components are authority, power, influence, delegation, responsibility and accountability (Smit and Cronje, 2004:279). For the sake of good leadership and the effective management of the organisation, the delicate balance between the different leadership components should be maintained (Smit and Cronje, 2002:280). Each component is briefly discussed below to reflect its essence in the whole notion of leadership:

#### ***2.4.4.1 Authority, responsibility and accountability***

These components are presented together here because they are closely related and in the field of public administration are often used interchangeably in leadership. For proper leadership it is important that a

difference be made among these components. Authority is the right to make decision, issue orders, and use resources (Smit and Cronje, 2002:196; LeMay, 2006:117). Such rights and orders might be provided for in terms of legislation. For example the local municipal council has the authority of appointing the municipal manager in terms of Section 82 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. In terms of that legislation, it is only the local municipal council with the power to exercise that authority. The source of that authority is the legislation being the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. Authority includes the right to take action to compel performance of duties and to punish default and negligence (Smit and Cronje, 2002:197). It includes the imposing of sanctions such as imposing fines and imposing disciplinary measures. In ensuring local leadership for development a local municipality must have some form of authority. The challenge is how such authority goes beyond structures and agencies which are outside the statutory authority of a local municipality. For example the Vhembe District Municipality in Limpopo province has an authority over the supply of water in the region in terms of the authorisations of water supply functions from the Province. The four local municipalities within the district have no recourse for the failure of the District Municipality over the supply of water. Accountability is the evaluation of how well individuals met their responsibility (Smit and Cronje, 2002:196). In the context of public administration accountability can be viewed as the responsibility of government and its agents towards public to achieve previously set objectives and to account for them in public; it is the commitment required from public officials individually and collectively to accept responsibility of their actions and inaction; it can also be understood as an obligation of a subordinate to keep his or her superior informed of the execution of responsibility (Schwella *et al*, 1996:164). Responsibility is the obligation one has upon accepting authority (Mosley *et al*, 1996:272). Sufficient authority is necessary for one to carry responsibility. The subject of accountability and responsibility is discussed in detail under the heading of complexity in accountability and responsibility in chapter three (3) of the study.

#### ***2.4.4.2 Power and influence***

Power refers to the ability to influence the behaviour of others in an organisation (Smit and Cronje, 2002:196). The concept of power is related to leadership because it is part of the influence process (Northouse, 2007:7). People have power when they have the ability to affect others' beliefs, attitudes, and courses of action. In local government context it can be argued that mayors, councilors, municipal managers, traditional leaders are all examples of agents who have potential to influence other

stakeholders at municipality level. They are using their power with resources they draw to effect change in municipal administration. Northouse (2007:7) distinguish two major kinds of power. There is position power that is derived from a particular office or rank in a formal organisation or institution, for example, the executive mayor of a district municipality. Personal power is the influence capacity a leader derives from being seen by followers as likable and knowledgeable, for example being a role model or having an expertise in certain area of knowledge such as academia, engineering, and financial management. Power in leadership also has bases (Northouse, 2007:8; Nkuna, 2007). Power can be referent. That is based on followers' identification and liking for the leader. In assuming local leadership, municipalities may draw power from the charisma of those in office. Local councillors must display referent knowledge in local leadership. Expert power is based on followers' perceptions of the leader's competence. Expertise in a specific area of knowledge determines the extent of influence one may have. Legitimate power is associated with having status or formal authority. Reward power is derived from having capacity to provide rewards to others. Coercive power is derived from having capacity to penalise or punish others. The exercises of power that have various bases create a complex phenomenon in developmental local government. For example the mayor of the municipality as a leader will need draw more charismatic power for political office, but the municipal manager will need more expert power as the municipality's accounting officer.

#### ***2.4.4.3 Delegation***

Delegation is the process of assigning responsibility and authority for attaining goals (Smit and Cronje, 2002:197). Responsibility and authority are delegated down the chain of command from a person at a higher level in the organisation to a person at a lower level. In itself delegation is a subject that involves a process of interaction and context. In terms of the Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 delegation, in relation to a duty, includes an instruction or request to perform or to assist in performing the duty. Delegation ranges from carrying a political mandate to operational activities within a municipality. In the developmental local government context, leadership processes are sought to produce a degree of consistency and order to achieve developmental objectives. Unfortunately, as witnessed all too frequently in the last half century, to produce order on dimensions is as meaningless as the size of typeface on executive memoranda (Kotter, 1990:4). Modern management pioneers were trying to produce consistent results on key dimensions expected by customers, clients, stakeholders, employees and other organisational constituencies, despite the complexity caused by large size, modern

technologies, and spatial geographic dispersion. Kotter (1990:4) provide leadership as very different. It does not provide consistency and order, as the word implies; but it produces movement. Throughout the ages, individuals who have been seen as leaders have created change, sometimes for the better and sometimes for worse. They have done so in a variety of ways, though their actions often seem to boil down to establishing where group of people should go, getting them lined up in that direction and commitment to movement, and then energising them to overcome the inevitable obstacles they will encounter along the way. What constitutes good leadership has been the subject of debate for centuries due to the dynamic nature of leadership (Kotter, 1990:5). Leadership by itself is contingent as there is no single form or style of leadership that can be regarded as solely applicable within particular circumstances. If local government has to assume the role of leadership, it stands questionable as to what kind and form of leadership will be applicable at that circumstances.

This characteristic of developmental local government also encompasses learning. According to Vickers (1995:128) learning takes place only in individual minds, and its possibilities are closely linked with the human life cycle. Individual learning may however be differentiated from organisational learning (Fitzroy and Hulbert, 2005:311). Organisations learn via their individual members but organisational learning is not dependent on a single individual. For organisational learning to become a source of competitive advantage, knowledge must become structural or organisational, even though it may start as individual or tacit. If a specific individual leaves an institution or organisation, all the learning knowledge possessed by that individual does not leave at the same time. Organisational learning is typically captured in the routines and processes of the institution (Fitzroy and Hulbert, 2005:311). In the context of developmental local government learning goes beyond the institutional or organisational setup. Ventriss (1989:176) put it that if public administration takes seriously the interdependent environment in which it operates, the practice of public administration can no longer be comfortably confined to institutional skyscrapers, but it must be somehow diffused into the communal bungalows where the interdependences are directly felt. In short the practice of public administration must be expanded to civic and voluntary associations that mediate between individuals and government. These associations must be transformed into lively democratic laboratories for civic engagement and responsibility. The civic associations has a potential to be educative vehicles for nurturing citizenship and serve as vital public forums to facilitate critical discussion of the interrelated character of public issues and the implications of public interdependency on the body politic (Ventriss, 1989:176). This step

will necessitate public learning. Public learning involves increasing the capacity and knowledge of the public by facilitating politically educative interactions between public and administrators (Ventriss, 1989:176). Ventriss (1989:176) identified the following characteristics of public learning:

- Public learning assumes that public organisations are more than mere instruments to produce public goods and services; they provide a larger mechanism for political decision making in a democratic polity.
- It focuses on social values, and it seeks critical and reflective awareness by both administrators and the public in order to identify unintended and indirect outcomes or other normative consequences of public action.
- It is facilitated by an emphasis on a social knowledge transfer and a disaggregated approach to public affairs.

Leadership and learning as characteristics of developmental local government pose a challenge as there is no fixed rational notion of each one of them. Leadership stems from various forms and types which practically makes it impossible for local government to assume a single form or type of local leadership. Learning is an ongoing activity which also takes place intrinsically. For learning to take place means things must not be static.

## **2.5 THE NEED FOR A THEORETICAL DISCOURSE**

According to Hanekom and Thornhill (1994:51) scientific research has two general goals: to increase knowledge and to increase an understanding of the world in which we live in. The increase of knowledge is usually achieved through the discovery of facts and general laws while understanding is increased by constructing explanations of the knowledge discovered and by arranging the knowledge and explanations into systematic generalisations, or into theories. Such theories can be used to predict and bring reforms. According to Chu, Strand and Jelland (2003:20), there is still no unique, simple criterion or litmus test to decide if a theory is scientific or not (see also Daneke, 1990). Scientific activity across the range from botany to particle physics and epidemiology is too diverse. Rather than looking for a universal criterion for being scientific, it is often better to ground criteria in the aim of the theory. There are three aims central to a theory, namely, predictive component, explanatory component, and control component. Predictive component attempts to predict future behaviour of a system given a set of observational data about it. Explanatory component deals with theoretical understanding of a system.

Control component provide guidelines and control mechanisms for the intervention and manipulation of systems. The theoretical framework provides the system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs and theories that informs discourse or research in a given field (Maxwell, 2005; Daneke, 1990; Alasuutari, 1998). Local government as a sphere of government and the new local government developmental mandate with its characteristics, as discussed before, present a complex phenomenon that requires a theoretical framework to address it. Public Administration has developed over the time to provide such theoretical framework both in academia and in practice (Thornhill, 2007:1; Daneke, 1990). Public administration as a scientific discipline is largely an applied science. It has a very important place not only as an instrument of governance but also as an important mechanism for preserving and promoting the culture of the community (Kumar, 2002:27). The ideals of a state may be very high, but the impact of these ideals upon the life of the people could be gauged only by the way the ideals are put into actual practice. Public administration remains the social process charged with the implementation of such objectives and ideals. Hence it is put forward in this study that public administration is more of field of activity that involves complex interactions within the public sphere to realise the welfare of a society. Local government practice presents different working form that requires different application of theoretical forms in use. The new form of governance becomes confrontational as municipalities have to realise the mandatory constitutional objectives. In realising those objectives, there are also principles and guidelines that must be adhered to. Section 51 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provide for the basic principles of local government administration. Such basic principles are as provided for in terms of section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, which are as follows:

- A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.
- Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted.
- Public administration must be development-oriented.
- Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias.
- People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy making.

- Good human-resource management and career-development practices to maximize human potential must be cultivated.
- Public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.

The principles are applicable to every sphere of government, state organs as well as public enterprises. The principles as outlined above form the basis of the practice of South African public administration and must inform the developmental local government praxis as discussed in the previous chapter. Public administration has however, since its earliest historical roots as a discipline in the United States of America (US) and even during its development in Europe, the focus was always directly related to events in its area of operation, that is, developments in the public sector in general (Thornhill, 2007:1). The situation in South Africa is no different in this regard. However, a science should always endeavour to determine how contemporary practices and theories could improve the real world as far as its focus is concerned. A theory represents a mental view of a system of ideas or a statement used as an explanation of a group of facts or phenomena and is itself based on facts and values (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1993:48; Alasuutari, 1998). In implementing the developmental local government in South Africa, public administration as a theoretical framework represents a mental view of a system of ideas. Those systems of ideas are based on the dominant discourse of the time such as the theoretical state of the discipline in South Africa. Bourgon (2007:15) cited Lewis (1951) to put it that there is nothing practical as a good theory. She (Bourgon) also adds that there is also nothing as dangerous as a theory that lags behind the times and yet remains the yardstick for making decisions and passing judgment. It will be presented in the ensuing discussion that state of theoretical paradigms in the South African public administration may be derived from the debate on the Minnowbrook, Mount Grace together with the state of discipline as outlined by Cameron and Milner (2009) coupled with neoliberal policies South Africa has adopted after 1994 democratic dispensation. Both Minnowbrook (in America) and Mount Grace (in South Africa) conferences are known as watershed conferences which tried to reshape Public Administration in times of turbulence (Cameron and Milne, 2009:380). Both conferences were held in times of turbulence, Minnowbrook in the United States of America and Mount Grace in South Africa. The theoretical frameworks adopted in dealing with the phenomenon of the new local government developmental mandate in South Africa must be able to provide an explanation of the phenomenon and

assist decision makers in passing judgment in local government matters. The new local government developmental mandate therefore needs to be approached from certain theoretical frameworks. The challenge is that there is no unified theoretical framework which can address this phenomenon by itself. Let alone if such theoretical framework has to address the unstable turbulent phenomenon characterised by complexity. The normative nature of public administration makes it impossible to develop a unified set of normative guidelines that can be applicable across. In the context of public administration it needs to be mentioned that any adopted framework will be based on fundamental normative guidelines which will be briefly discussed in the ensuing paragraph.

## **2.6 NORMATIVE FOUNDATIONS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

Over the years, a number of normative requirements developed in public administration (Van der Waldt and Helmbold, 1995:8). Normative guidelines are value norms worth striving for, which must serve as criteria for public conduct (Botes *et al*, 1996:285). These guidelines or norms underwent adjustments which eventually crystallised into a number of basic, identifiable ethical or moral behavioural guidelines (Van der Waldt and Helmbold, 1995:8). In terms of South African public administration such guidelines are as per Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Such guidelines are read together with the provision of Section 51 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 as provided in the previous paragraph. Botes *et al* (1996:285) provide a theoretical base of such guidelines as guidance of the supreme political authority; public accountability and responsibility; the application of administrative law; respecting the values of society; pursuance of high ethical norms and standards; and social justice and equality. According to Bourgon (2007:9) public service as it is today owes much of its being to the Public Administration theory that prevailed at the beginning of the twentieth century including respect of the rule of law; a commitment to serving public good; and an expectation that public servants will exhibit integrity, probity and impartiality in serving the public trust. These in essence imply that the development of theoretical discourse of Public Administration is dominated by the trends that prevailed in the twentieth century. Those trends were striving to develop Public Administration alongside the positivist ontology of science. Such development strived to come out with universal principles or guidelines for public administration. They were seeking for a unified rational theory of Public Administration that can be applied across the border. Given its normative basis those has proven to be a futile exercise for public administration, it is practically impossible to have such unified principles. Having justified the need for theoretical

framework in confronting the developmental local government phenomenon, it is imperative to present what can be regarded as the state of public administration discourse in South Africa with emphasis in local government administration.

## **2.7 THE STATE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION DISCOURSE IN SOUTH AFRICA**

South African public administration has its principled base from section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, which subscribes to the normative foundations. It takes practitioners in local government to ensure that the new mandate of developmental local government is implemented on the basis of those principles. The tools and approaches of developmental local government must be guided by those principles together with the theoretical or mental framework in place. The theoretical framework of public administration forms the basis of approaches or mental framework adopted. It however needs to be mentioned that during the transition in the early 1990s, very little work was done by the African National Congress (ANC) as the ruling party, on the nature of the neither post-apartheid public service nor public administration (Cameron, 2009: 911). It was understandably focused on the issue of political power which was obviously consolidated in the majority. It will be seen in terms of complexity thinking that the above-mentioned principles, various legislative prescriptions and the theoretical framework in use provide a schema or what Anderson (1999: 220) refer to as a schemata. A schema or schemata consists of a set of rules that reflects regularities in experience and enables a system to determine the nature of further experience and make sense of it (Stacey, 1996:289; Anderson, 1999:220). It also contains rules indicating how the system should respond to its experience, which may include extending, modifying, or changing the rules comprising the schema. The schema or schemata develop what in this study is referred to as *isomorphism*. The main stream theoretical discourse in public administration provides such schema or schemata. South African public administration debates have been dominated by Cloete's generic processes perspective until the introduction of the Initiative Public Administration of 1999 that brought about the systems theory approach. A brief outline of the Mount Grace debates in South Africa is provided for in the ensuing paragraphs will serve more clarity.

### **2.7.1 The Mount Grace Debates**

The state of public administration discourse in South Africa may also partially be derived from the proliferation of Mount Grace debates as also presented in the previous paragraph. It is subtly put forward by Schwella (2000:34) that South Africa at the time of Mount Grace debates was characterised

by rapidly changing and highly dynamic contexts as a result of marked changes since the 1990's. Cloete (2008) as cited in Cameron and Milne (2009:389), muses how Public Administration and Management transformation principles accepted in Mount Grace 1 are actually contained in the 1996 South African Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, with a caution of lack on uncertainty whether there is any causal relationship. While the government never lost sight of its constitutional and development role during the transition to new dispensation after 1994, it is generally accepted that New Public Management (NPM) reforms were influential in South Africa (Cameron, 2009: 914). Unlike the Minnowbrook in the United States of America, participants of the Mount Grace in South Africa also interacted and engaged with the state and have an opportunity to contribute in the shaping of the new public administration (Cameron and Milne, 2009:390). Extensive policy and interactive consultancy work for government served on commissions, allowing academics to contribute to the solving of real life problems. The deliberation at the academic *fora* is easily translated to shape the approaches in practice. For example most experts served in the 1998 Presidential Review Commission (PRC) where academics were drawn from various universities; as well as the contributors to the well-known macro-economic development strategy GEAR (see Department of Finance, 1996). Although Mount Grace 1 did not specifically call for the introduction of New Public Management, some of the presented papers argued strongly for a Public Management approach in the discipline of Public Administration (Cameron and Milne, 2009:390). These have led to further deliberations from other quotas. For example Tshikwatamba (2007:755) argues that Public Management carried out the equivalent of coup over Public Administration. New Public Management (NPM) is a general approach to regulation in stark contrast to the traditional managerial model; strongly market-oriented, promotes self-regulation, and trusts that the regulated and the government can become partners (LeMay, 2006:388; Haynes, 2003). The rational-choice underpinnings of the New Public Management (NPM) are problematic to the continued legitimacy of democratic institutions in heterogeneous societies attempting to maintain an inclusive polity (Kaboolian, 1998: 191). The New Public Management (NPM) approach has also dominated the introduction of the new local government developmental mandate through the White Paper on Local Government (1998) together with the state's neoliberal approach.

Given the complexity of the environment of South African public administration, the ordinary causal effect approach, that is advocated by the New Public Management (NPM) conception on its own might at times appear to be absolute. Although Schwella (2000) in the Mount Grace II debates have cautioned

these modern fallacies, it need to mentioned that he was advocating for systems thinking within the same rational paradigm. Authors such as Senge (1990) and Stacey (1995) have noted that rational paradigms start to breakdown when faced with unpredictable and unstable conditions (Combe and Botscheme, 2004:500) as they tend to be rigid recipes within the unpredictable phenomena. South Africa comprises of a diverse society and such diversity is protected in terms of the Bill of Rights provided for in chapter two of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. Application of the constitutional basic principles governing public administration in South Africa might trigger diverse reaction to various agents or systems within the greater society and administrators within the field of Public Administration. Such will culminate down to developmental local government. But as indicated before, public administration is developed from various strands and various approaches. Those varying approaches determine the content or focus of the discourse. The ensuing paragraph outline those approaches with a view of uncovering bias of each approach to dominant or mainstream public administration in relation to complexities within the phenomena of public administration.

## **2.8 APPROACHES IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

The fact is that there are now many theories of public administration, but one necessity is to learn what is involved in the policies and techniques that public administrators must provide themselves with so as to meet the changing and expanding demands of society and its attempt to adjust to complexity and protect and promote the human element in human institutions (Dimock and Dimock, 1969:8). The new local government developmental mandate presents a phenomenon within South African public administration. There are many ways to study the phenomena of public administration (Kumar, 2002:181). White (1999:6) refers to those many ways of studying the phenomena of public administration as fundamentally story telling or a narration. Any type of knowledge, even scientific knowledge, that is known about public administration is basically a story grounded in language and discourse and expressed in narrative form through conversations. Kumar (2002:181) identified the traditional approaches, new approaches, scientific approaches, mechanistic behaviour approach, and ecological approach. Fox and Miller (1995:04) refer to such as public administration theoretical endeavours being sought from political science, philosophy, economics, organisation theory, sociology, social psychology, and any other related sciences that can assist (see also Coetzee, 1988). Traditional approaches comprises of historical approach, legal approach, and institutional approach. New approaches are classified as behaviourally, systems approach, and structural-functional approach.

Scientific approaches comprise of comparative methods, new techniques and case methods. Each approach will be emphasised within the discussion of modern approaches to public administration. In the ensuing paragraphs a distinction will be made between modern approaches to public administration and postmodern approaches in relation to the applicability to new local government developmental mandate in South Africa.

### **2.8.1 Modern approaches to public administration**

In discussing modern discourse, or the dominant discourse, or the mainstream public administration, it is of essence to first outline modernity or modernism. In other literature these is referred to as the orthodox (see Fox and Miller, 1995; Svara, 2001). Modernity may be characterised by rationalisation, centralisation, specialisation, bureaucratisation and industrialisation (Bogason, 2004:2). Van Rensburg (2000:3) has cited Lyon (1994) in that to understand modernity one needs to identify its characteristics. The characteristics range from stage of Enlightenment that created a situation of differentiation of labour and a tendency of urbanisation. Cunningham and Weschler (2002:106) explained modern as referring to our presently ingrained cultural values, the dominant theory in use in both society and academy: “causality, determinism, egalitarianism, humanism, liberal democracy, necessity, objectivity, rationality, responsibility, and truth”. Rosenau (1992:5) refers to modernity as engendering the accumulated experience of the Western civilisation, industrialisation, urbanisation, advanced technology, the nation state, and life in the fast lane. Modernism therefore emphasise the utility of tradition (as proven practice), as well as legitimacy, identity, achievement, and rationality (Jun and Rivera, 1997:134; Bogg and Geyer, 2007:120). Farmer (1995:5) refers to modernity as a distinctive core assumptions and beliefs about the power of the human subjects and human reason that have constituted the dominant mind-set of the West for the last five hundred or so years, a period of so many technological, social, political, and economic miracles. According to Cova (1997) in Arias and Acebron (2001:8), modern science as based on the rule of reason, the establishment of rational order and emergence of a freed subject; it has fallen very short of its goals. Public Administration theory is a paradigm case of modernity (Farmer, 1995:47). A paradigm is the set of preconceptions that is brought from the past to each new situation to be dealt with (Stacey, 1996a: 52). It is the lens through which the world is looked at and it therefore determines what is perceived. Richardson, Mathieson, and Cilliers (2000:41) refer to the term paradigm as a perceived agreement upon how one should interpret and interact with the world. Analysts are regularly categorised by analytical paradigm they support, e.g. interpretivist, or mechanist. Modernity’s view of

the centered subject, the unconstrained subject engaged in the epistemological project in which truth and values require grounding in the self, has led to distinctive features of rationalisation and reasoning in public administration theory (Farmer, 1995:47). Much of Public Administration theory embodies the rationalisation spirit that the Enlightenment celebrated: the calculating or instrumental rationality that Weber describes, the purposive-rational rationalisation that Habermas depicts (Farmer, 1995:47; Fox and Miller, 1995). This rationalising is manifested in the attempts to develop the public administration discipline along scientific and technological lines. Public administration has developed throughout various stages informed by various scientific bases. A scientific thought and experiment have always had a strong influence on administrative theory and practice (Overman, 1996:487). According to Overman (1996:487), based on the ideas of men like Newton and Maxwell or Darwin and Linnaeus, science developed and refined not just specific theories of gravity and electricity or evolution and classification, but large scale ways of thinking upon which inquiries are based in many other disciplines, including the social, political and administrative sciences (see also Daneke, 1990; Dooley, 1997; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). To define public administration, for example, Woodrow Wilson relied on the exclusivity of politics and administration, the indivisible administrator, and the objectivity of law (Overman, 1996:487; Fox and Miller, 1995; Svara, 2001). Dobuzinskis (1997:300) confers that for Woodrow Wilson to proclaim that politics and administration belong to different spheres, he applied to public administration the positivist dogma, that facts must be separated from values. The French philosopher, Auguste Comte (1798-1857), developed positivism as a secular religion for humanity and planted the seeds of mainstream social science (White, 1999:13). He rejected theological and metaphysical explanations of human behaviour in favour of scientific ones. He believed that human behaviour obeyed the laws just as rigorous as Newton's laws of motion. According to Spicer (2001:3) more than a few public administration writers, followed the lead of positivists such as Herbert Simon to have sought to focus the attention of the field of public administration on relatively narrow and well defined empirical questions, which seem readily amenable to scientific investigation, rather than a broad and enduring questions of political philosophy, which are difficult or even impossible to reduce to empirically testable hypothesis. The positivist tradition fosters an engineering mentality toward the use of knowledge in administrative and policy settings (White, 1999:4). Whereas this is appropriate for solving simple, well-structured problems, it fails to explain the logic of how formal knowledge of administration or public policy is used to solve complex, ill structured problems. According to Dunn (1981) cited in White (1999:4) a well-structured problem has few decision makers or stakeholders, a

limited number of alternatives, a well-defined problem, and agreed upon values to direct action. In contrast, an ill-structured problem has many decision makers, numerous possible alternatives, competing definitions of the problem, and conflicting values to guide decision making. The effective solutions of ill-structured problems involve a type of knowledge and action that is not captured in the positivist conception of science. More of the work in the discipline of Public Administration is derived from what is now called scientific management or management theory. It is also referred to as a classic model of public administration (Bourgon, 2007:9). Administrative management, sometimes called “classical administration”, owed much to scientific management and progressivism, and drew heavily from Henri Fayol and other theorists (Wamsley *et al*, 1996:15).

In general, mainstream management theory has emphasised the strategic and technological knowledge that practitioners may draw on in carrying out their responsibilities (Jun and Revira, 1997:139). It has put its emphasis on improving efficiency and productivity, tighter budgetary controls, better customer or client services, functional rationality, and objective concepts of ethical responsibility. According to Bourgon (2007:9) such classic model was founded upon a number of conventions, including a strict separation of political and professional activities, public service anonymity and political neutrality. The public service was governed by precisely prescribed rules and accountable to elected officials: thus, it was expected to exercise minimal discretion in executing its tasks. The power structure was vertical and hierarchical; it valued and encouraged impartiality, compliance and predictability (Bourgon, 2007:9). Berger (1973) in Jun and Revira (1997:141) refer to modernisation in the developing world as has had three main characteristics, namely; the pluralisation and therefore relativisation of organic lifeworlds; the rise of bureaucracy and technocracy among public institutions; and the uneven development of technical and economic production, which brings about deepening of economic and sociocultural determinism. In the public administration context, Bourgon (2007:9) contend that the public service as we know it today, owes much to the Public Administration theory that developed and prevailed during the beginning of the twentieth century including; respect of the rule of law; a commitment to serving the public good; and an expectation that public servants will exhibit integrity, probity and impartiality in serving the public trust. In the ensuing paragraphs a highlight is made on some modern approaches which reflect the elements. Those approaches are mechanistic behaviour approach, behavioural approach, and systems approach.

### **2.8.2 Mechanistic Behaviour Approach**

Mechanistic behaviour approach emphasises a machine-like behaviour of public administrators or civil servants (Kumar, 2002:194; Svara, 2001). Mechanistic behaviour approach is based on the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton (Kiel, 1994:12; Overman, 1996:489; Heylighen *et al*, 2007:118), which is based on the belief that the universe is completely deterministic (Morcol, 2005:299; Heylighen *et al*, 2007:119; Habtemichael and Cloete, 2010:88). Its philosophy is one of simplistic. Such behaviour was the result of scientific management movement and observance of bureaucratic rules and procedures. Scientific management theorists like F.W. Taylor and others, were aspiring to develop a one best way to do the job (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1983:33; Fox and Miller, 1995). Scientific management assumes that a given job can be broken down into its constituent parts, with each measured, timed and analysed irrespective of context; and that there is an objectively best way of doing the job, again irrespective of context (Fenwick, 1995:11). To design and implement management methods, Fredrick Taylor relied on fixed time and space, the primacy of physical reality, and simple causal relationship (Kiel, 1994:12; Overman, 1996:487; Morcol and Wachhaus, 2009:46). Max Weber developed a rational bureaucratic image of specialisation; clear lines of authority, and rule based procedures mirrored the ideals of logical empiricism in the scientific community. Weber envisioned a sociology that would combine a concern for objectivity with an understanding of the meaning of human action for those involved - a combination extremely difficult to achieve (Fox and Miller, 1995; Dooley, 1997; Denhardt, 2008:25). Scientific management had aimed largely at organising work at the shop-floor level, administrative management sought to develop principles for the organisation as a whole (Fox and Miller, 1995; Wamsley *et al*, 1996:15; Dooley, 1997). It was concerned with developing the universal principles and methods that can be applicable to each and every organisation or institution including local government or municipalities for the purpose of this study. This was seen through an attempt to develop the principles of administration by theorists that followed such as Gulick and Urwick with their POSDCORB acronym, Herbert Simon with his proverbs of administration. POSDCORB is standing for the functions of the chief executive, being planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting (Coetzee, 1988:11). Theories developed through scientific management were rationalistic and mechanistic. The central concern was to achieve the best performance of the physical activities (Stacey *et al*, 2000:61). The main focus was on the actions of the parts. The theorists ignore interaction of the parts. All these theorists were within the ambit of the modern scientific discourse which is based on the notion of causal links. According to Cilliers (1998:22), those theories are based on a hypothesis of “if

then”. The assumptions are basically on linear relationship. In the case of developing social intervention programmes, Mouton (2009:853) refers to those programmes as “simple programmes”. Programmes are defined as simple when it is possible and usually quite easy to capture the programme theory, using logic model, in a single, linear causal path, often involving some variation on five categories, namely, inputs, processes, outputs, outcomes, and impact (Mouton, 2009:853). The conceptualisation of structures and basic management in developmental local government reflect this approach. For example the Weberian bureaucratic structure forms the basis for developing a meaningful organisational arrangement of the local municipality. Developing local government municipal structures continue to have some elements of mechanistic approach. Clear functional demarcations need to be put in place and elected councilors are expected to perform activities as outlined in the relevant legislation. The day to day management of municipalities will still require mechanistic aspects in municipalities. This study contends that such mechanistic approaches in their modern context will remain the basis of the theoretical framework of public administration. But by itself the mechanistic approach lacks much of addressing the complex phenomena of developmental local government.

### **2.8.3 Behavioural approach**

The human relations school is associated with Mayo (Fenwick, 1995:11). The school assumes that the social group, and in particular the interpersonal relations of the workgroup, are just as important as the actual organisation of the job in determining output and performance. The well-known Hawthorne studies in the United States in the 1920's and 1930's appeared to demonstrate that solidarity of the workgroup at the Western Electric Company, and for that matter seemingly benign interest shown in the group by the researchers, had a greater impact than physical conditions or economic incentives had on output (Fenwick, 1995:11). The assumptions of human relations school run counter to that of Scientific Management. It emphasises the group than the individualistic approach. The Hawthorne studies experiment underscored a fundamental truth, obscured for some time by scientific management theories, namely, that the employees of an organisation constituted its basis, and that upon their attitudes, behaviour, and morale within their primary groups ultimately depended on industrial effectiveness and productivity (Kumar, 2002:195). The study came to realise the existence of internal and non-rational elements of human behaviour in a work environment. Interrelations between workers and groups may exist beyond the provisions of the organisational structure. Local governments as municipalities consist of human beings which have interrelations. The behavioural approach recognised those interrelations

within the linear or rational perspective. The interrelations within developmental local government phenomena are more of interactions. Interactions do not conform to rational modern interpretations as they have feed-back loops and unpredictable.

#### **2.8.4 Systems Approach**

Scientific management was challenged by the Systems Thinking Theorists (Kay *et al*, 1999:722; Kiel, 1994:13; Heylighen *et al*, 2007:119). The origin of general systems is traced to the thinking of the biologist, Von Bertalanfy in the 1920s (Stacey, 1996a:276; Dooley, 1997; Kumar, 2002:185; Heylighen *et al*, 2007:121). The German biologist Von Bertalanfy put forward the idea that organisms, as well as human organisations and societies, are open systems (Stacey, 1996a:276-277; Bevir, 2009:202). They are systems because they consist of a number of component sub-systems that are interrelated and interdependent on each other. They are open because they are connected by feedback links to their environments, or supra-systems of which they are part of. Senge (1990:7) refer to business and other human endeavour also as systems. They are bound by invisible fabrics of interrelated actions, which often take years to fully play out their effects on each other. A number of theorists from various disciplines began to think and write about the unification of science in their quest for a body of concepts lending unity or organisation to studies undertaken in various disciplines, they developed the concept of “system”, which has since then become a basic conceptual asset of general systems theory (Kumar, 2002:185). According to Kumar (2002:185) the concept of “system” has been borrowed from the natural sciences where it is used to refer to clearly defined sets of interactions. The term has been defined as a complex whole, a set of connected things or parts, organised body of material or immaterial things, and its analysis is concerned, not so much with individuals as such, but rather the roles that individuals play and their interactions (Kumar, 2002:185; Bevir, 2009:202). In the new local government developmental mandate in South Africa the concept of “system” has been adopted on the establishment of local government municipal systems as enacted per Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. Processes, tools and approaches in developmental local government may be regarded as systems; inclusive of individuals or agents in developmental local government. In terms to policy programmes intervention, Mouton (2009:854) refers to programmes that have systematic features or with alternative causal strands as “complicated programmes”. Complicated programmes are characterised or distinguished in literature by interventions implemented through multiple agencies; interventions with multiple simultaneous causal strands and interventions with alternative causal strands (Mouton,

2009:854). The new systems theorists developed along three pathways over much of the same period of time (Stacey *et al*, 2000:64). Systems thinking theories which were developed are: General Systems Theory, Cybernetics and Systems Dynamics and can be discussed as follows:

#### **2.8.4.1 General systems theory**

According to Kumar (2002:186) the growing tendency in general systems theory is to describe human organisations within a broad framework of systems thinking. A system in that context is an assembly of interdependent parts which may be referred to as sub-systems, whose interaction determines its survival (Zimmerman *et al*, 2009: 05). Interdependence means that change in one part affects other parts and thus the whole system. The changes in one of the municipality department or municipal entity will eventually affect other operations within the whole municipality operating system. The central concept of the general systems theory is that of homeostasis, which means that the systems have a strong tendency to move toward a state of order and stability, or adapted equilibrium (Stacey *et al*, 2000:65). They can only do this if they have permeable boundaries that are open to interactions with other systems. They display the property of equifinality, which means that they can reach homeostasis from a number of differing starting points along a number of differing paths. The systems' history and context is not an issue. What is important is its current state of relationship with other systems and clearly defined boundaries. Public administrators as management in the case of developmental local government assume the role of controlling the system towards the point of equilibrium. In the context of developmental local government the point of equilibrium would be for municipalities to achieve its constitutional objectives. Administrative processes, tools and approaches as systems are marshaled towards a common predetermined objective.

#### **2.8.4.2 Cybernetic systems**

Cybernetics, which was defined in 1948 by Nobert Wiener as the science of communication and control in the animal and the machine, demonstrates that purposefulness can be accounted for by formal models in which corrective feedback loops have been built (Dobuzinskis, 1992:357). Cybernetics is the interdisciplinary study of the structure of regulatory systems. It is closely related to control theory and systems theory (Heylighen *et al*, 2007:122). Cybernetics is an approach that seeks to control an organisation by using feedback without understanding the feedback structure of the organisation itself (Stacey, 1996a:274). It sees effective regulators as those that cause the system to be largely self-

regulating, automatically handling the disturbance which the environment bombards it with. Cybernetic systems are self-regulating, goal-directed systems adapting to their environment (Stacey *et al*, 2000:65). The system comes with build-in checks and controls. Once set in place it can operate automatically as long as all parts are performing properly. Planning and budgeting systems in public administration and management may serve as examples of cybernetic systems in that quantified targets are set for performance at some point in future through forecasts. Total Quality Management and Business Re-engineering projects are also fundamentally cybernetic in nature.

#### **2.8.4.3 Systems dynamics**

According to Stacey (1996a:249) dynamics is the study of how a system changes overtime: classical dynamics establishes laws of motion through time for physical bodies; thermodynamics establishes laws of heat dissipation overtime; population dynamics establishes the patterns of change in population overtime; economic dynamics attempts to establish and explain patterns of economic development overtime; psychodynamics tries to explain the human behaviour patterns overtime that are generated by contradiction and tension, for example by the need to be part of a group and yet be a free individual, by the feeling of love and hate for the same person. Mathematical models of a system are constructed, consisting of recursive, non-linear equations that specify how the system changes states over time (Stacey *et al*, 2000:66; Haynes, 2007). Systems dynamics theory recognises amplification, feedback (positive or negative) and non-linear responses. The system moves from being self-regulating to self-influencing, be self-sustaining or self-destructive. Instead of thinking of a system moving towards an equilibrium state, it is thought of as following a small number of typical patterns or archetypes (Stacey *et al*, 2000:66). Public administrators as management have to recognise those patterns and identify leverage points at which action have to be taken to change them so to stay in control.

The theoretical frameworks as discussed in the previous paragraphs laid a strong foundation for the modern discourse in public administration and theoretical framework for developmental local government. The major criticism is that they are solely cause-effect approaches. Schwella (2000), although he was debating on support of Systems Thinking, regarded those limitations as fallacies that have also encroached in the disciplines of public administration. It is argued in this study that the application of those modern theoretical approaches in the new local government developmental mandate need to be complemented by complexity thinking to reduce the tendency of sticking to rigid theoretical

intervention in public administration in South Africa and to stimulate creativity in public service practitioners. In as much as the approaches discussed above lay a foundation for the theoretical perspective of South African new local government developmental mandate and public administration in general, they are applied in a turbulent environment. Institutions develop what may be perceived as good policies and processes for realising the new local government developmental mandate, only to find that those good policies and processes can hardly be implemented due to one way or another, they cannot be synchronised with the realities on the ground. Complexity begins to manifest itself already from that point. As Mouton (2009:861) state in a concluding proposal of his article on “Assessing the impact of complex social interventions” that we need to remind ourselves that inferring causality does not mean that a particular event, or a string of events as in a programme, necessarily constitutes the sole cause of another event or events, or that the fact that an event or set of events cause some other events under certain conditions does not mean that it will always do so, confusing causality with law likeness. The latter is another way of reminding us that programmes have different effects under different circumstances of implementation, target group variation and contextual variation. Those approaches and theoretical dispositions as discussed above form the basis of most public administration discourse in South Africa. The theoretical strands also emanate from other disciplines related to public administration such as management. Having conceptualised developmental local government and relate its state in terms of epistemological discourse in relation to modern theoretical discourse, it is now critical to present a complementary discourse in public administration by discussion a post-modern approach to public administration.

## **2.9 POST-MODERN APPROACH IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

Postmodernism is ambiguous as a concept, and it has created much controversy (Bogason, 2001:166). According to Rose (1991) cited in White (1999:153) the term postmodern had been used during the 1950's and 1960's but did not come into common currency until the following decade. Generally postmodernism is the recognition that Enlightenment's promises of universal truth, justice, and beauty would not be realised in modern society. Beyond this it is difficult to give the concept a unitary definition, no matter how comprehensive it might be, because of diversity of themes and ideas. Postmodernity has been considered as being either epochal, in replacing modernity as the current time frame, or epistemological, in its relativity to other interpretations of social structures, and Newton (1996) considers the implications of both uses of the concept for the study of organizations (Barnet and

Crowther, 1998: 431).The concept of postmodernity is however considered most fully by Lyotard (1984) who questions the use of modernist metanarratives which legitimate society as existing for the good of its members with the consequent presumption that the whole unites the parts as an expression of the common good. According to Grbich (2004:17), postmodernity/postmodern literally means the time following modern era, while postmodernism is the identifiable ideological position that developed from modernism, including further development of ideas, stylistic communications and perceptions and beliefs which began to dominate this era.

According to Cilliers (1998:114) postmodernism means that there is no single discourse that can unify all forms of knowledge, there is a need to cope with a multiplicity of discourses, many different language games – all of which are determined locally, not legitimated externally (see also Jun and Revira, 1997; Miller and Fox, 2007; Agger, 1991; Farmer, 1995; White, 1999). There is no single theoretical approach or framework which can address a given phenomenon on its own without the application of other theoretical approaches or frameworks from other disciplines with different interpretations and those interpretations need to be informed by the realities of that given phenomenon which are determined closely or locally. Postmodern theorists would argue that administration should be dispersed and fragmented, capable of accommodating conflict, multiplicity and difference, and decentralisation and autonomy (Jun and Rivera, 1997: 138; Cilliers, 1998; Agger, 1991; Miller and Fox, 2007; White, 1999). With greater participation and the localisation of politics and administration, policy makers put less emphasis on centrally established development goals and programs, and there is also a gradual reorientation from the knowledge needs of the national government to those of localities (Jun and Revira, 1997:140). The postmodern sensibility stresses perspectivism (Schram, 1993:250). Things are always understood from a partial or both in a sense of incomplete and biased perspective. The postmodern sensibility stresses textual mediation; understandings of the world are mediated through texts and there is a need to be attentive to how discursive practices help constitute the partial perspectives relied on for making sense of the world. Bogason (2001:171), refer to the fact that in 1993, Fox and Miller published their first stab at what postmodern analysis of public administration might mean. To them postmodernism means a number of radical changes in our understanding of the world. It involves movements such as:

- From centripetal to centrifugal, that is, from centralisation to fragmentation;

- From metanarratives to disparate texts, that is, from the grand theories to more or less circumstantial evidence;
- From commensurability and common units to incommensurability, that is, difference rather than likeness;
- From universals to hyper-pluralism, that is, to fragmentation instead of generalised units of analysis;
- From Newtonian physics to Heisenberg's quantum physics, that is, from causal theory to unpredictable analysis of the microcosms, where the intervention of the researcher is felt.

Postmodern conditions are characterised by fragmentation: An overarching rationale or vision is replaced by processes of reasoning, and we see trends towards decentralisation, individualisation and internationalisation (Bogason, 2001:171). There is currently a considerable debate going on the subject of postmodernity/postmodern in social sciences. This study presents postmodernity as an approach to be adopted complementary to modern discourses in public administration. Modern thinking is viewed as a discourse that laid a foundation in the field of local government public administration. Like it was cited somewhere in this text that according to Sokal (1996:2) if there is anyone who believes that the laws of physics are mere social conventions, he/she is invited to try transgress one from the windows of his twenty first floor apartment. Postmodern thinking is, however complementary to modern scientific discourse by reflecting on the other side of a coin. A postmodernist view of organizations, such as local government institutions, is that they are sustained by the rules governing their existence and by the resource appropriation mechanisms which apply to them rather than by any real need from the people who they purport to serve (Barnet and Crowther, 1998: 433). Postmodern thinking is, just like modern thinking characterised by various traditions such as the radical tradition; postmodern tradition; and hermeneutics. Those traditions are briefly discussed in the ensuing paragraph.

### **2.9.1 Basic traditions in postmodern thought**

Hoksbergen (1994) as cited in Arias and Acebron (2001:8) identified three basic traditions in postmodern thought. Traditions are the radical tradition, the postmodern tradition and hermeneutics. Those traditions are briefly outlined as follows:

### ***2.9.1.1 The Radical Tradition***

The most radical position is that of French postmodernism represented by Derrida (1976), Foucault (1980; 1982), Lyotard (1984) and others. In the extreme relativistic position, they state that each one creates his /her reality and reject possibility of judging one reality as more real than the others since no independent criterion exists on which to base judgment. Things cannot be precisely defined because they have multiple and unstable meanings (White, 1999:153). There is no enduring truth to anything and no standards by which to judge truth, so there can be no precise definitions and certainly no true knowledge.

### ***2.9.1.2 The Postmodern Tradition***

Kuhn (1977), Lakatos (1977) and Feyerabend (1995) form the core of the second and well known postmodern tradition. They recognise the complexity of scientific activity and see science in the context of traditions establishing their own standards of what is acceptable science.

### ***2.9.1.3 Hermeneutics***

The third postmodern tradition is hermeneutics associated with the writings of Heidegger (1962), Gadamer (1975), Habermas (1972), Ricoeur (1971) and Taylor (1975). Their interest in the study is interpretation of texts, extending their research techniques not only to literature, but to arts, jurisprudence and, more recently, the social sciences. Hermeneutics is the theory of interpretation in history, religious, art, law, and literature (White, 1999:47). It is the art of science of interpreting the meaning of texts or text like entities, and it offers general principles for determining the validity of interpretations of meaning.

These strains of postmodern thought do not appear in a vacuum, but within and in response to a changing society with new and evolving characteristics (Arias and Acebron, 2001:8). In a postmodern society, economic relationships adopt new meanings and management needs to take new directions. Bourgon (2007:12) viewed this from the point given the demand for accountability across all levels of government, there is growing need to find a new balance between conflicting lines of tension. According to Bourgon (2007:10) as society become more complex, the need for flexibility continued to grow. Arias and Acebron (2001:9) sources out from Hetzel (1995) and Firat and Shultz (1997) and compile what

they describe as characteristics of a postmodern society. Such characteristics are outlined as per the table 2.1. Each characteristic is provided with a qualification on the left column.

## 2.10 MODERNISM VERSUS POSTMODERNISM

It is imperative to draw a line between modernism and postmodernism. A simple distinction of the two will assist in understanding its application in a discourse coupled with the elaborations made above. Underlying the distinction between modernity, and foundationalism, as some choose to name it, and postmodernity is what Bernstein (1983) called “Cartesian anxiety” (Arias and Acebron, 2001:8). Fox and Miller (1995:45) draw the distinction between modernism and postmodernism by outlining what they call the general traits of modern culture versus postmodern culture. Table 2.2 presents such depiction as outlined by Fox and Miller (1995:45).

**Table 2.1:** Characteristics of a postmodern society and its qualifications

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Qualification</i>
<b>All opposites become simultaneously possible</b>	There is no unified criterion on which to base the judgment of reality of a fact against another (Firat, 1992)
<b>Tribes replace social classes</b>	Each individual belongs to several tribes that develop their own complexes of meanings and symbols. In each of these tribes he may play a different role, making every attempt at classification be impossible (Cova, 1997). Civilization has essentially globalised only the surface of human life (Havel, 1995)
<b>Value systems are transformed</b>	Openness and tolerance of different styles and ways being and living become an integral part of postmodern plural societies
<b>Fashion</b>	The emphasis shifts from content to form and style
<b>Fragmentation</b>	Life becomes a collection of disjointed moments and experiences rather than a sequence of consecutively chained episodes
<b>Differentiation</b>	The identity of individuals and institutions become blurred, share and mixed
<b>Hyper-reality</b>	Simulation and representation are becoming more relevant to human life than physical conditions and “hard” realities
<b>Chronology and time</b>	The present overarches both past and future and is both the temporal limitation to reality and an instrument for its construction
<b>Anti-foundationalism</b>	Rejection of the existence of an immutable base limiting the scope and span of constructed realities
<b>Acceptance of disorder and chaos, crises and disequilibria as a norm</b>	Equilibrium is undesirable as it implies the negation of new alternatives to the status core
<b>Pastiche</b>	Irony, parody, imitation, mixture, quotation, self-reference, pun, joke and wink of the eye

**Source:** Adapted from Arias and Acebron (2001:9)

**Table 2.2:** General Traits of Modern versus Postmodern Culture

<i>Problematic</i>	<i>Modern</i>	<i>Postmodern</i>
<b>Architecture</b>	Functional, Bauhaus	Eclectic, referential
<b>Mode of production</b>	Mass assembly, factory	Postindustrial, information
<b>Organisation</b>	Weberian hierarchy	Adhocracy, devolution
<b>Sociology</b>	Nuclear family	Fragmented households
<b>Philosophy of science</b>	Logical positivism	Methodological anarchy, interpretivism, ideography Antifoundationalism
<b>Philosophy</b>	Search for universals	Decentered self
<b>Psychology</b>	Integrated authentic self	Situational
<b>Ethics</b>	Utilitarian, deontological, syllogistic	
<b>Media</b>	Print linearity	Video, montage, MTV, channel surfing

**Source:** Miller and Fox (1995:45)

These oppositions share what might be called the entropic principle; differences between modern and postmodern may be variously expressed as follows (Fox and Miller, 1995:45): Intégration versus disintegration; Centralisation versus decentralisation; Centripetal versus centrifugal; Totalisation versus fragmentation; Metanarratives versus disparate texts; Melting pot versus salad; Commensurable versus incommensurable; The impulse to unify versus hyper-pluralism; Universalism versus relativism; and Newton versus Heisenberg (see also Miller and Fox, 2007). These oppositions present the ontology or perspective on which developmental local government can be dealt with. If developmental local government is viewed from the ontological base of modern discourse, then it can be dealt with from a logical positivist perspective. There can be a grand meta-narrative and unified theory that can address developmental local government. On the other if developmental local government is viewed from the postmodern ontological base, then there is no unified theoretical discourse that can in itself deal with local government. It means there can never be one best way of implementing developmental local government. Just like Public Administration itself as a discipline, an eclectic form of discourse that will accommodate the fragments of reality are necessary. Each local government as a municipality is unique and has its context that requires a situational narration of the challenges it faces.

## 2.11 CONCLUSION

Developmental local government found itself in a conceptual hindrance right from its establishment as a sphere of government to its characteristics. From its inception, developmental local government poses a challenge in praxis. The challenge emanate from locating the form and structure of developmental local

government as a sphere of government within the system of government in South Africa. The sphere of government is distinct from the tier or level of government in that it relate to the autonomy of local government. The legislative controls and supervision to local government by other spheres of government from its establishment, the contention of the sphere of government become unrealistic in practice. The dynamic nature of development makes it difficult to accurately define developmental local government beyond the operational definition provided for in the White Paper on Local Government of 1998. In actual sense developmental local government contextualisation goes beyond the provisional definition provided for in the White Paper on Local Government of 1998 in practice. Involvement and interactions of multiple policy formations to realised developmental local government makes it impossible to have a single unified description in reality. The definition of developmental local government as provided for in the White Paper on Local Government of 1998 and other statutory provisions provide a working base for implementation. Contextualisation of developmental local government must be beyond the working definition. The characteristics of developmental local government create a conceptual conundrum in that they comprise of various aspects deriving their conceptual bases from diverse theoretical basis. It is also near impossible to realise each character within the ambit of the single municipality. This in itself creates complexities ranging from multiplicity of theoretical basis involved and context for operationalisation of developmental local government. Local government operates within the prescripts of other spheres of government which compromises its autonomy. Conceptualisation of developmental local government itself also provides a hindrance given the ontology of the philosophy of the developmental state. Developmental instead is adjectival and cannot be reduced to development. A considerable number of literature on the subject deals with developmental local government from the perspective of development. Developmental local government therefore closely relate to development. It is a moving definition. The characteristics of developmental local government present a theoretical conundrum in terms of various fields where it draws from, such social development, economic growth, integrating and coordinating, democratising development, and leadership and learning. The theoretical base of each characteristic provides a hindrance for contextualisation making it complex to come out with one acceptable position of each. This in itself creates complex phenomena for the implementation of developmental local government as there cannot be a single theoretical disposition of addressing it. The need for a rigorous theoretical base to deal with these phenomena will not be emphasised. The matters that form the core character of developmental local government cannot be realised within the constraints of a single municipality. For example social

development and economic growth take form beyond a municipal authority. Practitioners in local government however relied on the existence of dominant theoretical discourse in the field of public administration to address those challenges. Given the complex praxis of developmental local government as presented in this chapter, it is apparent to present the need and state of theoretical discourse in dealing with developmental local government in South Africa. On the other hand, introduction of developmental local government within the South African dispensation created a need to realign the theoretical stand within the field of Public Administration. Theories remained the tool of dealing with phenomena as arises and developmental local government created such phenomena. South Africa has however provided for the principles governing its public administration within its constitutional establishment. Those principles are in place to guide any theoretical disposition to be applied in public administration within South Africa, including developmental local government. The normative nature of public administration also contributes to the subjectivity in applying any theoretical strand with positivist ontology. The theoretical debate in South Africa however took a different position during the Mount Grace 1 and Mount Grace 2 conferences. New Public Management (NPM) based on dominant or mainstream Public Administration discourse dominated the debate. Dominant theoretical discourses are applied at best with minimal success. Those dominant or modern discourses developed through various approaches which have culminated to various theoretical strands.

The approaches are mechanistic behavioural approach, behaviour approach, and general systems approach. These approaches laid a foundation for the theoretical strand of public administration and they still play a role in developmental local government. The challenge is that they are based on linear positivist ontology of the Newtonian rational science. South African Public Administration is dominated by New Public Management (NPM) aspects stemming from the current debate and the neoliberal approaches adopted by government. Modern approaches are informing the new public management approaches. The New Public Management (NPM) conception dominated by the rational modern discourse tends to focus on looking for a simple way to do the job. There is a need to go beyond the prescripts of modern paradigms to postmodern paradigms informed by complexity theory. Postmodernism approach has also developed through various traditions. Those traditions also manifest itself in the society. If developmental local government has to be viewed from the postmodern perspective therefore, there is no unified discourse on its own that can give meaning to developmental local government. Local narratives will be the best explanations to describe developmental local

government. Given the state of circumstances in developmental local government it is proper to present a complex reflexive theory which closely describes the phenomena of developmental local government as it prevails in South Africa. The ensuing chapter will contextualise complex reflexive theory in relation to developmental local government. It will present developmental local government as a complex reflexive system that cannot be reduced to one rational explanation.

## CHAPTER 3

### COMPLEX REFLEXIVE SCIENCE IN DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

It has been seen from the previous chapter that the theoretical strands in public administration to address developmental local government can emanate from various theoretical approaches. Those approaches can either be within the ontology of modern or mainstream public administration or postmodern discourse. The normative nature of public administration also makes it difficult for any approach to come out with an explanation on its own. A new field of interdisciplinary research, often referred to as the “Science of Complexity” emerged from the interplay of physics, mathematics, biology, economy, engineering, and computer science (Chu, Strand and Jelland, 2003:19; Haynes, 2007). Its mission is to overcome the simplification and idealisation that have led to unrealistic models in these sciences. The science of complexity exposes the limitation of rationality in sciences or what is mostly referred to as Newtonian physics. The same simplifications and idealisation occur within developmental local government in South Africa. According to Combe and Botscheme (2004:501) complexity has started to receive a considerable attention in strategic management literature. For example authors like Nutt (1991), Kiel (1994), Parker and Stacey (1994), Senge (1991), Stacey (1991, 1995, 2000), Mitleton-Kelly (2002), and Cilliers (1998) devoted much on complexity. Complexity science may offer an alternative towards postmodern thinking in the implementation of the new local developmental mandate in local government administration. Developmental local government as outlined before provides a critical perspective of theoretical conceptual hindrances in a modern discourse or mainstream public administration. Complexity science is presented in this chapter in the form of complex reflexive system that the developmental local government resembles. Complex reflexive system is conceptualised with a view of drawing a line between ordinary complicated systems and complex reflexive systems like developmental local government.

The characteristics of complex reflexive systems are presented in relation to the postmodern society which exists where developmental local government is taking place. The emphasis is on how those characteristics manifest themselves in developmental local government within Vhembe District municipality area that reduces developmental local government to a state of *morphogenesis* as introduced in chapter one. Complexity is also presented in the form of its principles. The principles are applicable in any complex reflexive system. Consideration of those principles will require

developmental local government to be addressed differently. Complexities in developmental local government are presented as taking various forms that evolve in complex reflexive iterative. Those forms of complexity are complexity in multiplicity, complexity in context, complexity in persona, and complexity in accountability and responsibility. Those various forms of complexity are discussed with a view of elaborating their stake in public administration especially in developmental local government

### **3.2 THE CONCEPTUALISATION OF COMPLEX REFLEXIVE SCIENCE**

It is no mean feat to either precisely delineates what constitutes complexity or even define the very term “complexity” (Chu, Strand and Jelland, 2003:19; Nowotny, 2005; Goldstein, 2008:2). Like many other scientific theories, the complexity theory is not a unified and homogeneous perspective (Teisman and Klijn, 2008:228; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). Nowotny (2005:15) put it that complexity is notoriously hard to define and measure as it emanates from a variety of perspective and can surface in various forms of interactions. Complexity science has its roots in well-developed disciplines including physics, mathematics, biology, chemistry, engineering, meteorology and astronomy (Habtemichael and Cloete, 2010:86; Chu *et al*, 2003; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). It is because of this diversity of sources that it has not been easy to formulate an integrated theory of the concept. The term “complexity” does not only explain one kind of system behaviour; but a set of characteristics that can identify in most natural systems, including organisations and their processes (Dolan, Garcia and Auerbach, 2003:24). Boisot (1999) in Mason (2007:12) refers to complexity to be known as a collection of theories that makes up its body of knowledge (see also Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). A variety of concepts are used to describe the so called ‘disorder’ or the perception of ‘disorder’ or ‘complexity’ (Uys, 2002:35). Uys (2002:35) outlined how various authors refer to the phenomena of complexity in a variety of concepts. Parker (1995) and Overman (1996) used the concept chaos; Parker (1995), Cilliers (1998), Stacey (1995) and Le Moigne (1995) refer to it as complexity; Kiel (1993) used the concept of non-linear systems; Briggs (1989) and Handy (1990) used catastrophe, Zohar (1997) refer to it as quantum approach; Daneke (1990) used advanced systems theory; Mandelbrot in Parker (1995) refer to it as bounded stability and again Parker (1995) calls it extraordinary management. Some refer to organisations within unstable environments as self-organisations or learning organisations (Uys, 2002:35). These conceptual difficulties result from at least three crucial factors involved in the study of complex systems (Goldstein, 2008:2). The first has to do with exponential explosions of new findings across huge number of fields and from a great many countries. Complexity theory is essentially trans-disciplinary in nature, representing the confluence of

research from around the world in such ideationally and methodologically varied fields. In this study however, the concept of complex reflexive system has been preferred due to the structure base, form and function of developmental local government that also interact in a social human nature system with the internal structure. It is argued that the existence of the internal structure within the system or urgent makes it to be reflexive and have purpose that cannot be predicted.

The science of complexity studies the fundamental properties of nonlinear-feedback networks and particularly of complex adaptive networks (Stacey, 1996:10; Dooley, 1997). Stacey (1996:10) further refers to complex adaptive systems as systems that consist of a number of components, or agents, that interact with each other according to sets of rules that require them to examine and respond to each other's behaviour in order to improve their behaviour and thus the behaviour of the system they comprise. According to Cilliers (1998:02), a complex system is not constituted by the sum of its components, but also by the intricate relationships between these components (see also Stacey, 1992, 1993, and 1996; Kiel, 1994; Van Uden, Richardson, and Cilliers, 2001:56; Nowotny, 2005; Heylighen, 2007; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). Cilliers (1998:02) further espouse that complexity is not located at a specific identifiable site of the system because it results from interaction between components of a system; it is manifested at the level of the system itself.

Complexity may be understood from the perspective of a complex system. According to Collins English Dictionary (2006), complexity refers to the state or quality of being intricate. Perona and Miragliotta (2003:104) indicated that complexity may be better understood if one may first clarify the word "complicated" as distinct from "complex" the same as Cilliers (1998). Both words come from Latin language. "Complicated" originally means "of things knotted, entwined with each other", while "complex" means "of things which interact among each other." Zimmerman and others (2009: 05) however refer to 'Complex' as implying diversity or a great number of connections between wide varieties of elements. To understand a complicated system, one needs to divide it into sub-elements and study each part separately and independently. The example of the complicated system may be the vehicle engine. To understand how the engine of the vehicle runs, each sub-element of the engine may be studied separately. The relationship of the parts of the engine is linear. No matter how big the complicated system might be, all one need is a complicated procedure to study that system and modern or traditional science based on Newtonian logic can be of assistance in dealing with such a system (Van Uden *et al*, 2001; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009:03). If developmental local government is complicated, all what is needed is a complicated procedure of realising it, then it can be successfully implemented.

Systems that are necessary for realising developmental local government, like IDP, Performance Management Systems, Community Participation System, may just be packaged through a standardised procedure. The challenge however remains interaction among those systems. On the other hand complex reflexive systems are made up by single elements which have intimate connections, counterintuitive and non-linear links. Understanding the functioning of each single part does not imply to understand the whole system (Perona and Miragliotta, 2003:104; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). Understanding IDP, Performance Management System and Community Participation System do not mean to understand the whole notion of Developmental Local Government. A complex reflexive system is defined by relationships and networks rather than their constituent elements (Blackman). A complex reflexive system has many natural rules that influence its behaviour, and multiple intricacies for dealing with a turbulent environment (Kiel, 1994; Stacey, 1996; Dooley, 1997; Cilliers, 1998; Dolan, Garcia and Auerbach, 2003:24). It interacts with its environment both in terms of feed-backs and feed-forwards, so its boundaries connect the system with its environment rather than separate it. In a complex system, the interaction among constituents of the system and the interaction between the system and its environment are of such a nature that the system as a whole cannot be understood by analysing its components (Cilliers, 1998:3; Van Uden *et al*, 2001; Haynes, 2003; Mitleton-Kelly, 2006; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). The relationships are not fixed, they shift and change often in a self-organised manner. All humans systems are complex, but machine type systems, however intricate are complicated (Mitleton-Kelly, 2006:224). The Norwegian philosopher, Am (1996) as cited in Haynes (2003:27) has defined a complex reflexive system as having four attributes, namely; consists of many independent components; these components interact locally; the overall behaviour is independent of the internal structure of the components; and the overall behaviour of the system is well defined.

Developmental local government is presented in this study as a complex system or complex adaptive system. It is constituted by the intricate relationships between its components. The components in developmental local government range from its establishment, policies, processes, approaches, stakeholders, communities, and elected councillors. Those components also consist of elements which have intimate connections, counterintuitive and nonlinear links such as the IDP, performance management system, and community participation. To understand a single component or part of developmental local government does not imply to understand the whole system of developmental local government. For example the IDP becomes feasible upon interacting with other systems within the municipality. Interaction among the components defines the whole system.

Having clarified complexity as distinct from complicated, it is important to outline characteristics of complex reflexive systems and relate them in the context of developmental local government. The characteristics of complex reflexive systems as discussed in the ensuing paragraph are outlined on the backdrop of the theoretical hindrances presented with the characteristics of developmental local government as presented in chapter two of this study.

### **3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF COMPLEX REFLEXIVE SYSTEMS**

According to Cilliers (1998:03), complex reflexive systems are usually associated with living things such as bacterium, the brain, social systems and language. Cilliers (1998:03) further contend that to understand complex systems it is useful to develop a description of its characteristics. The characteristics of complex systems as outlined by Cilliers (1998:03) are presented in the Table 4.1 of this study. The characteristics are illustrated in line with how they connect to the elements of postmodern society as presented in Henrikson and McKelvey (2002:7294). Stacey (1996:108) refers to the same characteristics as features of complex adaptive systems. Stacey (1996) however further distinguishes between the human systems and ordinary complex adaptive systems. Agents in human systems have additional features being the internal structure. The internal structure of agents in human systems relates to peculiarly human aspects having to do with tension between inspiration and the containment of anxiety, conformity and individualism, leadership and follower-ship, and participant and observer roles (Stacey, 1996:44). The following are the features of the agent's internal structure in a human system as identified by Stacey (1996:45):

- Agents and groups of agents get caught up in sequences of responses driven by emotion and aspiration, inspiration and anxiety, compassion and avarice, honesty and deception, imagination and curiosity. Various stakeholders and role-players in the new local government developmental mandate have their human elements. The office of the Executive Mayor is headed by the mayor who is an individual within a given society. He or she has emotions and personal aspirations, level of honesty and deception, personal imaginations and curiosity.
- Agents share a common purpose but also develop their own individual mental purposes leading to tension between conformity and individualism. Shared common purpose is clearly reflected in the formal arrangements of the institution. A municipal official is provided with job description upon assuming employment with the municipality. The job description provides clearly the role one need to play towards a shared common purpose of the municipality. Throughout the employment the

official is pursuing his/her personal ambitions which develop to his/her mental purpose. The personal mental purpose may lead to conflict. This goes beyond an individual. A prototype example can be given where it was observed that the Trade Union in Makhado Local Municipality becomes unruly because the chairman was seeking promotion.

- Some agents are, or become, more able and/or more powerful than others and apply force and persuasion, whereas others follow. Different roles are assumed as agents' progress or development. In the municipal context, a situation where a secretary of the Trade Union is promoted to the senior position in the municipality. His/her role changes and found him/her having to negotiate with the colleagues from the different side.
- Agents are conscious and self-aware, that is, they can adopt the role of observer and think systematically. Conscious informal withdrawal from active participation in the subject may serve as an example. An agent may decide when to comment or not to comment in discussions. For example some of the reports tabled before the Municipal Council by the Executive Committee of the Makhado Local Municipality never have comments from Head of Departments (Makhado Municipality Council Agenda).

### **3.4 PRINCIPLES OF COMPLEX REFLEXIVE SCIENCE**

Mitleton-Kelly (2002) offers an introduction to complexity by exploring ten generic principles of complex evolving systems and show how they relate to social systems and organisations. She however contend that these are not the only principles of Complex Evolving Systems, but gaining an understanding of these principles and how they relate to each other, could provide a useful starting point for working with them and applying them to management of institutions. The principles interact and are interdependent to each other. It is not enough to isolate one principle or characteristic and concentrate on it in exclusion of others. Haynes (2007:4) derived from the work of Cilliers (1998) and Baranger (2001) to refer to such principles as key propositional statements as applied to policy systems. The principles are discussed below in relation to how they apply in South African developmental local government. The principles are as follows:

#### **3.4.1 Connectivity and interdependence**

Complex behaviour arises from the inter-relationship, and inter-connectivity of elements within a system and between a system and its environment (Stacey, 1992, 1993, and 1996; Kiel, 1994; Cilliers, 1998;

**Table 3.1: Characteristics of complex reflexive systems**

<i>Characteristics of complex systems</i>	<i>Key elements of postmodern society</i>
(a) Complex systems consist of a large number of elements. When the number is relatively small, the behaviour of elements can be given a formal description in conventional terms. When the number of elements becomes large, conventional means becomes impractical and cease to assist in understanding the system.	Postmodernists focus on individuality, fragmented identities, and localised discourse.
(b) A large number of elements are necessary, but not sufficient. In order to constitute a complex system, elements need to interact. Interaction needs not only to be physical, it can also be thought as transference of information.	Postmodernists emphasise that no agent is isolated; their subjectivity is an intertwined “weave” of texture in which they decentered by a constant influx of meanings from their network of connections.
(c) The interaction is fairly rich. Any element in the system influences, and is influenced by quite a few ones. The behaviour of the system is not determined by the exact amount of interactions associated with specific elements.	Postmodernists view agents as subject to a constant flow and alteration of meanings applied in they are using at a given time.
(d) The interactions themselves have a number of important characteristics. They are non-linear. Small causes may have large impacts and vice-versa.	Postmodernists hold that interactions of multiple voices and local interactions lead to change in meanings of texts, that is, emergent meanings that do not flow evenly. Thus, social interaction is not predictably systematic, power and influence are not evenly distributed, and few things are stable overtime. Emergent interpretations and consequent social interactions are nonlinear and could show large change outcomes from small beginnings.
(e) The interactions usually have a fairly short range. Information primarily received from the neighbours. Long range interaction is also possible. The long range influence might however be modulated along the way.	Postmodernists emphasise “local determination” and “multiplicity of local discourses”. Locally determined, socially constructed group level meanings, however, inevitably seep out to influence other groups and agents within them.
(f) There are loops in the interconnections. The effects of any activity can feedback onto itself directly or indirectly, positively or negatively.	Postmodernists emphasise reflexivity. Local agent interactions may form group level coherence and common meanings. These then, reflexively, supervene back down influence the lower level agents. This fuels their view that meanings - interpretations of terms – are constantly in flux – “they are contingents and provisional, pertaining to a certain context and a certain time frame”.
(g) Complex systems are usually open systems. They interact with the environment. It is difficult to define its boundaries. The description is often influenced by the observer in terms of framing.	An implicit pervasive subtext in postmodernism it is that agents, groups of agents, and groups of groups, etc., are all subject to outside influences on their interactions of meanings. Postmodernists see modern societies as subject to globalisation and to the complication of influence networks.
(h) Complex systems operate in conditions far from equilibrium. It is in constant flow. Equilibrium is associated with death of the system.	In postmodern society the mass media provide local agents, and groups’ constant information about disparities in the human conditions: (i) fostering social self-organisation and increasing complexity; and (ii) disrupting equilibria; that (iii) lead to rapid technological change, scientific advancement and new knowledge, which in turn reflex back to create more disparity and non-linearity.
(i) Complex system has a history. Their past is responsible for their present behaviour.	Postmodernists see history as individually and locally interpreted. Therefore, histories do not appear as grand narratives uniformly interpreted across agents.
(j) Each element of the system is ignorant of the behaviour of the system as a whole. It responds only to information that is available locally. Interaction of the elements locally determines the whole system. Complexity emerges as a result of patterns of interaction between elements.	Agents are not equally well connected with all other parts of a larger system. Any agent’s view of a larger system is at least part of coloured by the localised interpretations of their interconnected agents.

**Source:** Henrickson and McKelvey (2002:7294)

Van Uden, Richardson, and Cilliers, 2001:56; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:05; Nowotny, 2005; Heylighen, 2007). In human systems, connectivity and interdependence means that a decision or action by any individual in a human system can be a society, group, organisation, or institution, may have impact on related individuals and systems. The relationship between a complex reflexive system and its environment or context is in itself a complex problem (Heylighen, Cilliers, and Gershenson, 2007:128; Lessard, 2007). When dealing with social systems, it is often unclear where the boundary of a system is. It is often a matter of theoretical choice. It is problematic to determine exactly when a given policy starts and ends, and the policy process is widely viewed as an untidy process, that is cyclic and evolving, rather than constructed on a simple linear pathway (Haynes, 2007). In organisational studies connectedness can also refer to the existence of transactions tying organisations to one another, such transactions might include formal contractual relationships, participation of personnel in common enterprises such as professional associations, labour unions, or boards of directors, or informal organisational-level ties like personnel flows (Dimaggio and Powell, 1983: 148).

In terms of the South African developmental local government, each approach, tool, stakeholder, agent, is in one way or another, connected to each other and is also having an interdependent relationship with each other. The municipality's performance management system is connected to the IDP and community participation system as well as other systems. At the same time the IDP and community participation system are interdependent to the performance management system. A Ward Councillor will need a Traditional leader for permission to call the ward committee meeting as well as a member of a local civic organisation. The effect of connectivity and interdependence will not have equal or uniform impact, and will vary with the state of each related individual and system at the time. The state of an individual or system will include its history and its constitution, which will in turn include its organisation and structure. The greater the interdependence between related systems or entities the wider the ripples of perturbation or disturbance of a move or action by any one entity on all other related entities. If there is perturbation on any of local government municipal systems the rippling effect will affect each of the systems. In real practice, the perturbation or disturbance on the municipality's performance management system will ripple the IDP as well as the community participation. This further applies to the perturbation or disturbance of any agent within any of the local government municipal systems. For instance a Municipal Local Council elects a new mayor or appoints a new municipal manager.

### **3.4.2 Co-evolution**

Human societies are part of the living world and therefore also the product of evolution (Nowotny, 2005:17). Recently, biologist has taken a view of evolution that focuses on the transmission of information. Interest in the nature, storage and transmission of biological information grew out of the debate about units and levels of skeleton and evolution. Thus groups are made-up of individuals, individuals are built from cells, and cells contain chromosomes, which in turn have genes. Connectivity applies not only to elements within a system but also to related systems within the ecosystem (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:07; Nowotny, 2005; Gummesson, 2006). Another way of describing co-evolution is that the evolution of one domain or entity is partially dependent on the evolution of other related domains on entities, or that one domain or entity changes in the context of the others. Kauffman emphasised a point that co-evolution takes place within an ecosystem, and cannot happen in isolation (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:07). The English poet, John Donne (1572-631) put it “No man is an island, entire of itself”. Argentinean author Jorge Luis Borges echoed that “.....everything touches everything”. The vantage point for physics professor and networks theorist Alberto-Laslo Barabasi (2002) is that “.....nothing happens in isolation” and that conclusively means that society is a network of relationships within which we interact (Gummesson, 2006:172). In a human context a social ecosystem includes the social, cultural, technical, geographical and economic dimensions and co-evolution may affect both the form of institutions and the relationship interactions between co-evolution entities (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:07). Connectivity and interdependence propagates the effects of actions, decisions and behaviours throughout the ecosystem, but the propagation or influence is not uniform as it depends on the degree of connectivity. Senge (1990:57) allude to this as how today’s problems are created by yesterday’s solutions. Current solutions merely shift problems from one part of a system to another often go undetected because those who solved the first problems are different from those who inherit new problems. The evolution of complex policy systems is defined by the interplay of competition and cooperation among stakeholders with the society (Morcol, 2003; Haynes, 2007:5). Those stakeholders come in different forms ranging from government, communities and citizens. The Integrated Development Plan (IDP) draws some of its contents from the performance management system as well as the community participation system. Both the performance management system and the community participation system draw its contents from the IDP. All of those systems at the same time are determined by the environment outside organisational arrangements. In clarifying the environmental capacity of municipalities, DPLG in partnership with SALGA (DPLG, 2008:27) refer to environmental

capacity as the potential and competency, or lack thereof, found outside of municipalities' formal structures. There are elements that, as a municipality, one has little or no influence or direct impact upon, but may be needed by the municipality. There are external conditions that the municipality may be able to harness. Environmental capacity includes the socio-economic, like a tax base, and demographic composition; the political, legislative and social capital within communities; the ecological, geographical and non-municipal infrastructure; and the natural, mineral and environmental resources available. Those conditions are not static. For example good rains have a bearing on the supply of water within the municipal area. The systems co-evolve and give meaning to each other.

### **3.4.3 Dissipative Structures, Far-from-equilibrium and History**

Another key concept in complexity is dissipative structures, which are ways in which open systems exchange energy, matter, or information with their environment and when pushed far from equilibrium create new structures and order (Kiel, 1994; Stacey, 1996; Cilliers, 1998; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:10; Morcol and Wachhaus, 2009:44). The tendency of dissipative structures is to split into alternative solutions. An observer could not predict which state will emerge, only chance will decide, through the dynamics of fluctuations. The system will in effect scan the territory and will make a few attempts, perhaps unsuccessful at first, to stabilise. Then particular fluctuation will take over. By stabilising it the system becomes a historical object in the sense that its subsequent evolution depends on this critical choice. Complex policy systems are always trying to reinterpret historical and current data in the light of emerging events and this forms part of the feedback and interactive processes within the system (Morcol, 2003; Haynes, 2007:4). In social context, it is the series of critical decisions each individual takes from possible alternatives that may determine a particular life path for the individual (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:13). The alternatives available are constrained by the person's current state and the state of the landscape the person occupies. Thus the emergent behaviour of the person is not a matter of chance but is the result of a person's selection among a finite set of perceived choices, as well as past choices made that have shaped that person's life path. Once a decision is made, there is a historical dimension and subsequent evolution may depend on that critical choice, but before the decision is finalised, the alternatives are sources of innovation and diversification, since the opening up of possibilities endows the individual and the system with new solutions. When a social entity is faced with a constraint, it finds new ways of operating, because away from equilibrium systems are forced to experiment and explore their space of possibilities. The exploration helps them to discover and create new patterns.

When an organisation moves away from equilibrium, new ways of working are created and new forms of organisation may emerge (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:13). This may be innovation or creativity. Due to their internal structure (Stacey, 1996), social human systems can deliberately create constraints and perturbations that consciously push a human institution far from equilibrium and can also provide help and support for the new order to be established. A prototype example can be the disruption of municipal services by members of a Trade Union during wage strikes. After such violent strikes the negotiating team continues negotiating and help to rebuild the way forward.

Rusen in Van Beek (2005:337) refer to the legitimisation of democracy by fundamental normative attitudes and convictions about the nature of domination and power; it obliges the rulers to uphold constitutional law and it commits the rulers and the ruled to keep up validity of a democratic political culture. But that mental condition for the functioning of democracy brings history to the fore because there can be no legitimacy of an organised political domination without some reference to the past (Van Beek, 2005:337). History in itself is a cultural interpretation of the past that helps to foster an understanding of present-day life and to enable projections into, and expectations of, the future. It moulds the experiences of the human past into an empirically concrete idea of the flow of time where the past, the present and the future are interrelated in a way that allows people to place themselves within the experienced temporal changes of self and the world (Van Beek, 2005:338). The fundamental temporality of human life with its incremental and sudden changes, both around and within people, challenges the perception of time, and it is history that relates temporal change to the self-understanding of people and their relations with others.

#### **3.4.4 Exploration-of-the-space-of-possibilities**

Complexity suggests and thrives an entity needs to explore its space of possibilities and to generate variety (Kiel, 1994; Stacey, 1996; Cilliers, 1998; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:14). It also suggests that the search for a single optimum strategy may neither be possible nor desirable. Any strategy can only be optimum under certain conditions, and when those conditions change, the strategy may no longer be optimal. To survive organisation needs to be constantly scanning the landscape and trying different strategies. An organisation may need to have several micro-strategies that are allowed to evolve before major resources are committed to a single strategy. This reduces the backing of a single strategy too early, which may turn out not to be the best one, and supports sensitive co-evolution with changing

ecosystem. Through literature, a prototype example can be given on the survival and adaptation of institutions of traditional leadership in some parts of Africa throughout the colonial era as well as, in relation to South Africa, to post-apartheid era. Beall and Ngonyama (2009) presented an exploration of indigenous institutions and traditional leadership and investigate the reasons why, and circumstances under which divisions between so-called modern and traditional institutions are emphatically asserted, or institutional multiplicity accommodated. In the process it was found that the process of old political settlements and coalitions were broken and new ones constructed, with success being predicted on accommodating institutional multiplicity within a hybrid political order (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:25). Some traditional leaders were more willing to participate in inclusive coalitions than others by exploring the space of possibilities. It is presented somewhere in the study as to involvement of some traditional leaders in formal statutory structures of developmental local government in the Vhembe District municipality area in various capacities other than traditional leadership.

#### **3.4.5 Feedback**

Feedback is traditionally seen in terms of positive and negative feedback mechanisms, which are also described as reinforcing and balancing (Kiel, 1994; Murphy, 1996; Stacey, 1996; Cilliers, 1998; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:15). Positive feedback drives change while negative feedback maintains stability in a system. In human systems, far-from-equilibrium conditions operate when a system is perturbed well away from its established norms, or away from its usual ways of working and relating. When an organisation is disturbed, it may reach a critical point and either degrades into disorder or creates some new order and creates a new coherence. Positive feedback underlies such transformation and provides a starting point for understanding the constant movement between change and stability in complex systems. Feedback when applied to human interactions means influences that changes potential action and behaviour and it is rarely a straight forward input-process-output procedure with perfect predictable and determined outputs (Murphy, 1996; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:16). Actions and behaviours may vary according to the degree of connectivity between different individuals, as well as with time and context. Brian Arthur's economic theory on path dependence and increasing returns is based on the implicit assumptions of negative feedback loops in the economy, which lead to diminishing returns, which in turn lead to equilibrium outcomes.

### **3.4.6 Self-organising, emergence and the creation of new order**

Self-organising, emergence and the creation of new order are three of the key characteristics of complex systems (Stacey, 1996; Anderson, 1999; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:19). Spontaneous coherent behaviour and organization occurs in open systems such as ecosystems and human systems (Kay, Boyle, Regier and Funas, 1999:742). Emergent properties, qualities, patterns, or structures, arise from the interaction of individual elements, they are greater than the sum of the parts and may be difficult to predict by studying the individual elements. Emergence is the process that creates new order together with self-organisation. Checkland (1981) as cited in Mitleton-Kelly, (2002:19), defines emergent properties as those exhibited by human activity system as a whole entity, which derives from its component activities and their structure, but cannot be reduced to them. The emphasis is on the interacting whole and the non-reduction of those properties to individual parts.

Self-organisation is a process in which the components of a system in effect spontaneously communicate with each other and abruptly cooperate in coordinated and concerted common behaviour (Stacey, 1996a:330). However turbulent and unpredictable it may look, a complex or chaotic system can self-organise and arrive at a new level stability (Habtemichael and Cloete, 2010:89). In organisational context, self-organisation may be described as a spontaneous coming together of a group to perform a task, the group decides what to do, how and when to do it, and no one outside the group directs those activities (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:20). Emergence in human system tends to create irreversible structures or ideas, relationships and organisational forms, which become part of history of individuals and institutions and in turn affect the evolution of those entities: e.g. the generation of knowledge and of innovative ideas when a team is working together could be described as an emergent property in the sense that it arises from the interaction of individuals and not just the sum of existing ideas, but could well be something quite new and possibly unexpected (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:21; Habtenmichael and Cloete, 2010:89). An emergent behaviour occurs in a policy system when behaviour emerges at one level but it can be linked to changes at another level (Haynes, 2007:5). When these features lead to changes in structures and behaviour at different levels from which they emerge, we talk of self-organisation.

The principles of complexity as discussed in the preceding paragraphs do form the basis or fundamentals of the various form of complexity. Those forms of complexity are multiplicity and pluralism, persona, context, and complexity in accountability and responsibility. In the ensuing paragraphs, various forms of complexity are discussed as they manifest themselves in developmental local government.

### **3.5 COMPLEXITY IN MULTIPLICITY AND PLURALISM**

Multiplicity refers to the state of being multiple or the state of being various or manifolds (Hornby, 2006:964). It refers to a situation where more than one stakeholder is involved in an endeavor towards an objective. In the context of developmental local government multiplicity may also be related to pluralism. In Management Science perspective pluralism, interpreted in the broadest sense as the use of different methodologies, methods and/or techniques in combination, is a topic of considerable interest in the applied disciplines these days (Jackson, 1999:12; Bevir, 2009:149). Philosophically pluralism refers to a theory that there is more than one basic substance or principle or a theory that reality consists of two or more independent elements. In the ecclesiastical context it refers to the holding of one person two or more offices at the same time. A prototype example is where the Municipal Manager of the local municipality is a chairperson of the sub-regional structure of the ruling political party as well as the secretary of the local branch of South African Communist Party (SACP); as well as where the mayor of the local municipality is also the traditional leader within the area.

Asen (2005:124) view the public sphere as the multiplicity site. The public sphere actually refers to numerous sites of discourse. Some of these sites are directly connected to each other, while others are connected only to the sense that appears as part of an always changing network (Asen, 2005:124). Just as discursive sites are multiple and varied in public administration, so too, do people act in the public sphere in numerous settings and in various ways. People or stakeholders do not confine themselves to a single site nor do they always engage others in the same manner. The manner in which the ward councilor of a local municipality chairs the ward committee meeting is different to the way he/she report to the local traditional leader. Interactions vary as obligations and roles shift depending on a situation. Most councilors elected to local government are also employed as teachers and they are also serving in other community structures. Van der Wal and Van Hout (2009) view multiplicity and pluralism in public administration from the public values perspective. In current debates on public values too often the assumption is made that unitary conceptions exists of what public values are, and that one universal set of classical public core values guides administrative behaviour throughout the public sector (Van der Wal and Van Hout, 2009:220). A number of different classifications of public values exist. There are theoretical or systematic arguments to come up with different sets, types or systems of values, such as individual, professional, organisational, legal, public interest, ethical, democratic, people values, and or more fundamental level espoused values versus values in use (Van der Wal and Van Hout, 2009:222).

Van der Wal and Van (2009:224) further distinguishes various ambiguities in value multiplicity in public administration. They present historical ambiguity as referring to extent to which values changes with time, administrative ambiguity relate to the deliberate or un-deliberate vagueness of administrative goals and objectives. Functional ambiguity has to do with the technical or multicultural issues which are too complex to grasp. Social ambiguity is about intrinsic ambiguous character of people, which is ambivalent by nature, subject to change and emotions of individuals. South African public administration operates on a principled base of being transparent, participatory, development-oriented, accountable, impartial, etc. This principled base gives effect to multiplicity or pluralism in local government public administration. The multiplicity or pluralism effect cut across the application of the generic processes of public administration. Asen (2005:118) presents pluralism in the public sphere on the context of aspects and dimensions. Aspects address axes of cultural, social, and epistemic diversity; dimensions concern domains of values, perspectives, and opinions. The debate of the re-naming of Louis Trichardt Town after Makhado evoked social and cultural issues as Makhado is an ancestral leader of the Vha-Vhenda ethnic group within the local municipality area ([www.zoutnet.co.za](http://www.zoutnet.co.za)). The involvement of more than one stakeholder in the processes of developmental local governance necessitates a need to go beyond the rational modern thinking. For example the development of a single municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) involves a representative's forum that comprises of multiple representatives of various stakeholders. Stakeholders or participants represent complex adaptive systems which public administrators may not always predict their reactions in whatever process. Contemporary pluralism engenders disagreements that implicate multiple and intersecting aspects and dimensions (Asen, 2005:118). No shared framework exists for participants to decide the issue in a mutually agreeable fashion. Individuals acting at random or with their own agendas nevertheless can work effectively as a group or an entire organisation and may create coherence in the absence of any grand design (Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:06). Most service delivery projects tend to be derailed due to unanticipated problems which were never considered during the planning state. Public administrators devote their time on managing on the bases of modern theoretical discourse without flipping the other side of complexity thinking. In most cases such projects get derailed through reasons related to challenges imposed by stakeholders involved. The involvement of stakeholders ensures the achievement of developmental aspirations of local government public administration. Each stakeholder approach the subject from its own perspective and it draws its mandate from a different schema.

### 3.6 COMPLEXITY IN CONTEXT

According to the Bible, Adam and Eve formed the first society in Paradise. They had a relationship and they interacted, they were not free from context even if the complexity of social life has only begun to evolve (Gummesson, 2006:172). Information taken out of its context can mean something totally different from what was originally intended. From a linguistic perspective semantics, as an expression of meaning, are in different ways ambiguous (White, 1999; Van der Wal and Van Hout, 2009:224). Words and sentences have more than one meaning, and are often vague, inconsistent and on top of all subject to change. Farmer (1995:1) put it that public administration is; in an important sense a language (see also White, 1999; and Spicer, 2001). He refers to language as more than a tool for thinking, for conceiving and communicating thoughts. It is also a factory of ideas, approaches, intuitions, assumptions, and urges that make up how the world is viewed; and it shapes individuals. On the other hand White (1999:127) contends that public administration is both behaviour and action. Among other things, social action takes place within the context of inter-subjectivity shared norms, values, rules, beliefs, histories, hopes, aspirations, and practices. Public administration variables, concepts, categories in South African local government public administration found themselves in complexity contexts. All management contexts offer different lookouts, which pave the way to different perceptions of what is going on (Gummesson, 2006:172). Mansuri and Rao (2004:01) on their critical review of Community-Based and Driven Development contend that the naïve application of complex contextual concepts like participation, social capital, and empowerment is endemic among project implementers and contributes to poor design and implementation (see also White 1999; and Miller and Fox, 2007). It will be outlined when community participation in local government affairs may adopt various typologies or modes. Each individual belongs to many groups and different contexts and his/her contribution in each context depends partly on the other individuals within that group and the way they relate to the individual in question (White, 1999; Mitleton-Kelly, 2002:06; and Miller and Fox, 2007). The policy world must also deal with the problem of complexity and to understand the complex dynamics of policy process, there is a need to examine the observations that come to constitute that world (White, 1999; Medd, 2001; Miller and Fox, 2007). Various policy guidelines have been developed to give effect to the provisions of constitutional principles of public administration in South Africa. Public organisations and policies are texts because their stories are told in extensive bodies of written documents, files and studies (Balfour and Mesaros, 1994: 560; Farmer, 1995; White; 1999). One of the most popular is being the “*Batho Pele*” through the White Paper on Batho Pele Principles (1998). The application of these principles in local

government public administration has different contexts to different phenomena. The conceptualisation of the concepts needs to be taken care of. Hand books, guidelines, and terms of reference all use the concepts uncritically, assuming that they are widely and uniformly understood (Mansuri and Rao, 2004:06). According to the National Capacity Building Framework (NCBF) for local government of 2008-2011 (DPLG, 2008:26), it has been noted that during the implementation of Project Consolidate, it became apparent that stakeholders use the term “capacity” in a variety of ways. For some people capacity means simply the volume of posts filled, or more definitely, the number of posts filled by appropriately qualified skilled and oriented people in the institution or sector. For some the term implies technical “know-how”, which may be gained through formal skills training or from experience. Others use the term to refer to change management capability, that is the capacity to positively transform and improve a system or institution, or strategic management capabilities like the capacity to develop a strategic overview, prioritise interventions, and act in areas of maximum leverage. Some people see capacity as attitude, for example a commitment to social and economic emancipation, and a willingness to champion interventions in line with commitment; while others see capacity as a way of working, for example the stamina and tenacity to make steady, even if incremental progress. Others see capacity as a personal character attributes, for example a sense of public integrity. Wamsley and Wolf (1996:143) view contexts from a public administration action perspective. Public administrators need to understand that situations vary and different responses are appropriate in these situations (see also White, 1999). Wamsley and Wolf (1996:143) contend that there are enduring and powerful dynamics in public settings that form contexts for action.

According to Card (2005:397), that is referred to as the agentic shift context. The agentic shift identifies a central change within a person, while there are central features of the situation, called channel factors, that lead to and reinforce this shift, it is the way in which this contextual features work in connection with the naturally compliant nature of human beings that gives rise to extra-ordinary behaviour. These contexts can also be characterised as structures, patterns, or constellation of social forces developed out of governance and administrative history (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:146). They define administrative situations and can evoke specific responses from public servants enmeshed in these settings. At least six such action contexts exist in the public administrator’s everyday world that characterises a large part of current administrative experience. Each of these action contexts suggests particular lines of action for administrators who find themselves working in any one of the contexts (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:143).

Many current prescriptions for action are embedded in one or more of these action contexts. The elements of prescriptions often contain practical advice and constitute valuable ways for understanding, interpreting, and engaging in action in the public administration. Action contexts arise out of relationships: relationships of challenges from society, and government's responses to them (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:145). Often these relationships are seen as competing with one another for primacy, each context arising at times when it makes sense, when there is a fit between context and merging situation. However, they are understandable only in relation to each other. They rise from tensions among them and often compete for public administrators' attention. The specific outcome of working within any one of these contexts is always indefinite. Thus the contexts are fashioned from social and administrative challenges that form our approach for acting on the situation (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:145). Wamsley and Wolf (1996:145) outline six action contexts that capture administrative actions in public administration. They include bureaucracies, markets, organisations, networks, communities, and institutions. They (Wamsley and Wolf) regard bureaucracy, markets and organisations as the familiar action contexts, while networks, institutions, and communities are regarded as of lesser contexts. The language, logic, and power of familiar contexts often encompass most of what is known in the world of public sector, while lesser contexts serve as alternative structures that surface from time to time and present potential ways of interpreting and acting in public agencies. The action contexts are discussed below as outlined by Wamsley and Wolf (1996:147):

### **3.6.1 Bureaucratic action**

Bureaucratic action can be understood by first outlining bureaucracy itself. A bureaucracy is an organisation characterised by hierarchy, fixed rules, impersonal relationships, strict adherence to impartial procedures, and specialization based on functions (Bevir, 2009:37). Bureaucratic action can be found in the private sector as well as in the public sector. As society became more complex and organisations grew larger, organisations increased their division of labour into smaller specialised units (LeMay, 2006:65). Larger institutions began to defer the judgments of these units, which shows that a major foundation of bureaucratic power is expertise, or specialised knowledge. As society became more complex and specialised, decision makers relied on expert advice. Some bureaucratic agencies, then, developed a near monopoly on the technical data or criteria used to decide policy (LeMay, 2006:65). Bureaucracy may be seen as the totality of all government offices or all government employees (LeMay, 2006:118). It is also applied as a derogatory term to inefficient organisations that are plagued by red tape

or calcified and inflexible. Bureaucratic action is grounded in legitimate authority, rationalisation of action of administrative action, and emphasis on procedures and describes a great deal about living in public agencies (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:147). Expectations of compliance with deadlines, acquiesce to regulations that seem out of touch with the demands of the situation, and procedures for awarding contracts all capture elements of this bureaucratic world. At its best, and in its best sense, bureaucratic life involves equal treatment for all employees; reliance on expertise, skills, and experience relevant to a particular position; no extra-organisational prerogatives of the position; specific standards of work output; extensive record keeping dealing with work and output; and rules and regulations that serve the interests of the organisation (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:147). Bureaucratic action should also be understood from the foundations of bureaucratic power. LeMay (2006:65) identifies the following foundations of bureaucratic power:

- The level and acceptance of bureaucratic expertise and the level of political support an agency can develop within the legislature and executive branch, among the clientele or other vested interest groups, and among the general public. It will be presented under complexity of competences as to the requirements and the extent of interaction between various competences determines achievement of given objectives.
- The formal organisational structure – how centralised or decentralised the agency is and what jurisdiction it has in certain policy areas – is another base of bureaucratic power.
- Finally, such power rests also on the political capability of the bureaucrats themselves.

### **3.6.2 Markets**

The market refers most generally to an abstract space in which suppliers sell commodities and services to consumers at equilibrium prices (Bevir, 2009:124). The equilibrium price of an item derives from the amount consumers are willing to pay for it and the cost at which suppliers can produce it. According to Wamsley and Wolf (1996:149), at times, the most appropriate attitude that seem to work for managers is one in which they see themselves as business persons in a big shopping mall. Like shopkeepers, managers respond to efficiency considerations; most importantly as regards customers and competitors. This world eschews bureaucratic command and control strategies and prefers to coordinate actions through some automatic mechanism akin to a market. When operating in this context, one assume that individuals are purposeful agents – that they have a reason for what they do and sort out more effective ways to get what they want. Each party grounds its choice in some utility consideration (Wamsley and

Wolf, 1996:149). The overarching assumption in this context is that public problems can be worked out most effectively when the hidden hand operates; particularly through a balance or a mutuality governed by self-interest. Rather than imposing hierarchically determined rewards and punishment, the incentive mechanisms in the market system do the work in an automatic fashion.

### **3.6.3 Organisations**

Organisational patterns combine the worlds of bureaucracy and markets to form some special forces (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:151). For most public servants who see themselves as managers, the organisational patterns are most familiar and define a good deal of the speech, thought patterns, and technology used to approach administrative problems. Like bureaucracy, this pattern accepts and works within the system of hierarchy and legitimate authority. It also accepts the idea that people conform to the psychological and economic assumptions that present individuals as goal seekers and sub-optimisers. The democratic project gets advanced when rational action serves politically legitimate decisions (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:151). According to Lamothe and Denis (2007:65), the implementation of networks of integrated services forces culturally different organisations to renegotiate their structural or systems arrangements in an inter-organisational context. Autonomy or even survival of organisation is or a major issue. It generates complex interactions between or among organisations. Some of the traits of the management style, historic inter-organisational relationships, and local geographical and socio-demographic characteristics influence the relevance and importance of some given issues. Adaptation of structural arrangements emerges from collective learning process subjected to the combined influence of all organisational actors (Lamothe and Denis, 2007:66). But negotiations within an organisation are not restricted to organisational actors, professionals also participate, promoting their own vision and defending their turf.

### **3.6.4 Networks**

A network is a group of interdependent actors and the relationship among them (Bevir, 2009:137). Networks vary widely in their nature and operations depending on the particular actors involved in their relationships, the level and scope at which they operate, and the wider context. Network theory is widely discussed in the management literature (Combe and Botscheme, 2004:502). Public administrators face constant demands to create, join, and work through networks (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:154). Virtually every public service involves a variety of organisations or actors that must work together or at least try

not to get in each other's way. The actors within a network might be people, states, transnational corporations, or mixture thereof (Bevir, 2009:138). Local municipalities within the same district must work with each other and with private providers of services. Provincial governments are also deeply involved in local government service delivery. National sphere of government is also operating within the areas of local government. Managers and professionals in all fields know the value of networks that ensure career options and success. Networks may range among others from communication, policy networks, personal networks, cultural networks, traditional networks, business networks, political networks, professional networks, sports networks and computer networks. Those networks become a complex web and create a context within which developmental local government must operate.

### **3.6.5 Communities**

The primary settings of community context are places where face-to-face encounters occur (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:156). These include working relationships among co-workers, work groups, associations among the policy and program networks that surround agencies, and also public organisations that deal in face-to-face relationships with citizens in service delivery settings. Relationships and process form essential element of community and such relationships are complex (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:157). Though relationship in a community may begin with some choice, the details or responsibilities are defined by subsequent actions of people in relationship with other individuals. Responsibilities extend beyond contract and build on understanding that the deepest and most important obligations flow from identity and relatedness, rather than from consent (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:157). Within communities, groups and individuals compete, attempting to use local government as a tool to gain advantage over each other (Box, 1998:44). There are places and times when community life is characterised by consensus, cooperation, and gentle transitions, but this is the exception rather than rule. More often this is an environment of conflict, competition, and unsettling change – and this not necessarily to be viewed as negative or abnormal but as the sign of healthy democracy (Box, 1998:44).

### **3.6.6 Institutions**

Institutions are not wholly bureaucracies, organisations, or communities; they contain elements of each and something more (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:160; Piombo, 2009). According to Box (1998:27) an institution is a large and enduring set of practices that are accepted, taken for granted, because these practices are so familiar and so much a part of daily life. The theoretical literature assumes that

institutions evolve in enduringly stable contexts in which the ‘rules of the game’ are clearly understood and applied (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:2). Yet under conditions of fragility or in transitional political contexts the institutional environment is not necessarily stable or indeed legible. The institutional environment is a factor in the success of policy implementation that is not easy to gauge, but that nevertheless plays an important role (Brynard, 2009:563). DiMaggio and Powell (1983) contend that institutions are also subjected to *isomorphic* institutional change. Institutions form the core of public administration life in that they provide a context of developing individual and social identity. At the same time the institutional capacity makes them instruments of social action. Institutions are shapers of identity and meaning and they can also engage in instrumental social action because of their bureaucratic capabilities. According to Card (2005:397), actions within organisational or institutional context should be understood differently as compared to with actions performed outside of such contexts. Institutions provide context for understanding action; they provide a vehicle for appreciating problems, actions, and solutions, and forming conclusions about the appropriateness of interpretation, problems definitions, and decisions (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:160). They possess capabilities for action through routines and resources with actions being institutionalised through structures of rules and routines. Within an organisational context, organisational roles help create premises for decisions and facilitate rational specialisation of labour; however, these same roles have a richer dimension within an institutional world. Roles do provide the rational benefits of the organisational design within the institution; however, they enable a person to define action in the context of the meanings developed within the institution (Wamsley and Wolf, 1996:161). On these basis institutions can take a different form as they evolve.

### **3.7 COMPLEXITY IN PERSONA**

In the practice of management, data and their relationships are incomplete, and decisions in all functions, levels of an organisation and external relationships – from top management to specialists, workers, suppliers, customers and others – are based on mix of fact and judgment calls (Gummesson, 2006:173). The mix of facts and judgment calls are influenced by public managers’ persona in the case of public administration. Persona refers to the aspects of a person’s character that they show to other people, especially when their real character is different, or the role one assumes or display in public or society (Hornby, 2006:1084). In public administration context, persona may be seen as a role, a task, a skill, ability, or a personality trait which one display while assuming public office. Virtanen (2000:333-

334) refer to such as competences as distinct to qualifications. Competence is seen as an attribute of an employee referring to a kind of human capital or human resource that can be transformed into productivity, while qualification is understood as requirements of a certain class of work tasks or job (Virtanen, 2000:334). Individual agents are schemas or algorithms representing the world that they act into (Stacey *et al*, 2000:163). They manipulate and process information according to their schemas as the basis of their interaction and display differing competencies. A schema consists of a set of rules that reflects regularities in experience and enables a system to determine the nature of further experience and make sense of it (Stacey, 1996:289). Public administrators as agents interact in local government public administration through the application of different schemas or displaying different competencies. An average public organisation or public institution has to obey to different professional, legal, economical, management, political, scientific, technical, environmental and civil demands, wishes and expectations (Van der Wal and Van Hout, 2009:226). Managers and professionals in public organisations are confronted with various “wicked” impossible situations and have to apply various competencies. Such competencies vary in relation to contexts and organisations. The human systems are characterised by internal structure. They bring to the workplace their cultures, emotions, personal preferences, attitudes, genders, experiences, skills, and abilities. The challenge is whether it is possible to determine a boundary on the public administrator’s persona and the practice of local government public administration. Virtanen (2000) put forward an argument that the vital competences of the personnel in modern organisations are increasingly value competences and that these should be understood as commitments.

Brynard (2009:557) put it that one almost ambiguous factor in policy performance is commitment. What determines factors such as commitment? What is the relationship between these factors? The key to any initiative is the commitment of everyone concerned to ensuring the successful roll-out of the initiative (Brynard, 2009:561). In essence, commitment refers to an ability to maintain the focus on an initiative from its inception through to its delivery. Such competences or commitments may be classified in five areas, namely, task competence, professional competence in subject area, professional competence in public administration, political competence, and ethical competence (Virtanen, 2000:333). According to Virtanen (2000:333) the mainstream public administration sees competences of public managers as a generic profession and the differences between private and public sectors are not directly addressed. In a

complex arena like developmental local government this poses a challenge. The various competences are discussed below as presented by Virtanen (2000:333):

### **3.7.1 Task competence**

Task competences and professional competences are in many ways the same for both sectors, but public managers have political and ethical competences that make an important difference (Virtanen, 2000:334). The competence areas are the same for non-managers, but since public managers have subordinates and larger formal responsibilities; the contents of particular competences differ from those of other public servants with the task competence being more concrete of the five areas. The criterion for task competence is performance. Goals and means are given and the task has to be accomplished. The value competence is motivation on why one has to perform the task with the instrumental competence being the ability to do the job. All the other competence areas have impacts on social reality through the interface of behaviour structured by task competence (Virtanen, 2000:335). The extent to which municipal officials are competent to do their tasks in developmental local government will structure the social reality created which will be impacted upon by other competences. The prototype example can be given on the extent to which the municipal official is able to communicate at various levels and the ability to interpret statistical data on poverty.

### **3.7.2 Professional competence**

Professional competence of public managers is twofold (Virtanen, 2000:335). A public manager has to be competent either in the substantive field of the line organisation, e.g. health services or in a specific task field in techno-structure of the organisation, e.g. human resources management. The professional competence will be in the subject area of example health services, the value competence will be the extent to which one is able to control the policy object as societal phenomenon of the subject area. The know-how of the policy object of such particular field will be the instrumental competence. A public manager also has to be competent in public administration as distinguished from politics and policy (Virtanen, 2000:335). Public administration in this context may be reduced to narrow administration of execution of a policy given by politicians. Controlling policy programmes becomes a value competence while the know-how of cooperation is instrumental. Virtanen (2000:336) regard professional competences as articulating modernism in that they are based on continuous doing better by controlling the object of the work. The criterion of professional competence is development in the aspects such as

policy object such as better health services; subject know-how such as better mastery of legislative guidelines; policy programme such as fewer mistakes in service delivery; and know-how of cooperation such as better efficiency, also in the implementation of service cuts. Without professional competence there is no long-term quality improvement, although good task competence may lead to high productivity occasionally (Virtanen, 2000:336). In essence, relevant professional competence is a cornerstone for successful developmental local government. Various systems like budgeting, managing performance, reporting, community participation, and service delivery require some level of professionalism that will assist managers to confront them in developmental local government.

### **3.7.3 Political competence**

Political competence has to do with values and power (Virtanen, 2000:336). The ideology and interests of a public manager set the value competence and they have effects on the creation and authorisation of the goals and means of a public policy. Ideological beliefs and interests are partly determined by social background, also for those who are neutral in terms of party politics. The ideal and practice of administrative neutrality has been problematic in the public services of liberal democracies since the middle of 19<sup>th</sup> century (Kalema, 2009:550). Possession of power becomes instrumental competence (Virtanen, 2000:336). It is derived from the power of the office and official authority, but it has to be maintained in day-to-day practice in order to give opportunity to make real decisions. The possessed power may also be ethically unjustified, for example it might be greater than formal authority. With power a public manager can create and allocate resources for preparation of public policies. Without political competence, public managers are not able to contribute to politically acceptable outcomes, no matter how good the output is in terms of developing professional quality and performance (Virtanen, 2000:336). According to Brynard (2009:561), there are divergent views on how to create commitment to policy initiative. One view is that political backing is needed, implying that commitment is mainly a top-down issue; while others regard commitment as something that has to be developed from the bottom-up. The latter view focuses on the attitude of the employees who have to implement the initiative at the ground level (Brynard, 2009:562). The political arena is also complex in that each moment requires a certain skill of handling it. There is no accurately defined political competence that may be regarded as that one has to have to be competent.

### **3.7.4 Ethical competence**

Ethical competence refers to conforming to moral values and moral norms that prevail in culture (Virtanen, 2000:336). Morality becomes the value competence with the prevailing conception of what is right and what is wrong refers to administrative morality. It takes the constitution and the laws determining the general rights and obligations of public managers. Argumentation a process of reasoning in terms of ethics becomes an instrumental competence. It is needed for the ethical review of policy goals and means. Without ethical competence, public managers do not use their political, professional or task competence in right ways (Virtanen, 2000:336). But ethic also develops from a societal background. The manner in which one is raised in a society will also determine the ethic. South Africa has a variety of ethnic cultural groups which are protected constitutionally. Other than professional ethics that one acquires from the professional discipline, there are cultural ethics. Those cultural ethics develop from the traditional background of the ethnic group. For example in Tsonga/Shangaan ethnic group, when one visit a traditional leader to address a community issue, one has to bring a present or a token to show respect. Professionally that can be unethical as it will associate with corruption. But it is the custom and tradition of such ethnic group.

### **3.8 COMPLEXITY IN ACCOUNTABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY**

The concepts and methods that define accountability and responsibility constitute fundamental issues in democratic theory because they determine how public policy and administration remain responsive to public preferences (Dunn and Legge Jr. 2000:74). Accountability and responsibility are also the corner stone of South African local government public administration. Although responsible and accountable behaviour may not be quite synonymous, they are related (Sing, 2003: 88). Accountability conveys a more general sense of giving a report to oneself; as such it overlaps with concepts like responsibility and liability (Bevir, 2009:33). The word “accountability” derives from the Latin word *compuntare*, which literally mean “to count”, and which denoted book-keeping and forms of financial record-keeping. Accountability is an obligation owed by all public officials to the public, the ultimate sovereign in a democracy, for explanation and justification of their use of public office and the delegated powers conferred on the government through constitutional processes (Dunn and Legge Jr. 2000:74). It conveys such as an elected politician or a civil servant, is responsible for acting on behalf of a principal, such as a citizen or government minister respectively, to which they should respond and report (Bevir, 2009:33). The agent is thereby able to hold the agent accountable for his or her actions. Accountability can also be

seen as a personal obligation, liability, or answerability of an official or employee to give his/her superior a desired report to the quantity and quality of action and decision in the performance of responsibilities specifically delegated (Hanekom *et al*, 1996:177). Zarei (2000:43) refer accountability to mean to give account or explain ones decision or action to another authority and accept consequences there-from. According to Kearns (1996:7) the definitions of accountability as provided above are somewhat narrow. They refer to accountability to involve answering to higher authority in the bureaucratic or inter-organisational chain of command. Accountability includes much more than just the formal processes and channels for reporting to a higher authority (Kearns, 1996:9). Instead, the term accountability generally refers to a wide spectrum of public expectations dealing with organisational performance, responsiveness, and even morality of government and no-profit organisations. These expectations often include implicit performance criteria – related to obligations and responsibilities – that are subjectively interpreted and sometimes even contradictory. In this broader conception of accountability, the range of people and institutions to whom public and non-profit organisations must account includes not only higher authorities in the institutional chain of command but also the general public, the news media, peer agencies, donors, and many other stakeholders. Public administration is characterised by the need for accountability, to ensure that public officials can be called on the account of their actions (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1983:112). In terms of Section 195(1) (f) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, public administration must be accountable. Uhr (1992) as cited in Dunn and Legge Jr (2000:74) refer to accountability as the prize citizens extract for conferring substantial administrative discretion and policy responsibility on both elected and appointed government personnel. In most literature, accountability and responsibility are used in an interchangeable form. For the purpose of this discussion accountability is discussed here as distinct from responsibility.

### **3.8.1 Various forms of accountability**

Accountability as explained in the previous paragraph may take different forms and types. Accountability is considered essential to every political, governmental and administrative system, regardless of its exact organisational form or pattern, or its focus, structure and mode of articulation (Sing, 2003:87; Haque, 2000). Hanekom and others (1996:177) differentiate between public accountability and administrative accountability. Yet, according to Firestone and Shipps (2007:213), the meanings of external accountabilities are not straight forward. In fact, the messages of communicating accountability demands are always interpreted locally through processes that differ from location to

location (Firestone and Shipps, 2007:213). The way accountability demands are interpreted makes a difference. Zarei (2000) differentiate various sorts of accountability in public administration. Those sorts are public accountability, administrative accountability, legal accountability, political accountability, professional accountability, and democratic accountability. McGarvey (2001:18) contend that accountability in public administration can only be understood from a multi-perspective framework of analysis. These forms of accountability also manifest themselves in what Dimaggio and Powell (1983) classify as mechanisms of institutional *isomorphic* change. That implies that in as much as various forms of accountability are in place, throughout there are influences that dominate each form of accountability at given moment. Those influences may be coercive, mimetic and normative. The various forms of accountability are discussed below as presented by Zarei (2000).

### **3.8.1.1 Public accountability**

Public accountability is classified as one of the prominent characteristics of the twentieth century public administration and point out that the public elected representatives need assurance (Zarei, 2000:44; Haque, 2000; Romzek and Dubnick, 1987). In the past accountability mainly had monetary connotation and mainly concerned with finance (Hanekom *et al*, 1996:177). The involvement of government in a great number of activities in public service resulted in the word referring more than monetary dealings. It is thus used in a much wider sense and consists of mainly statutory obligation to provide the citizenry with any available information on service delivery. Public accountability connotes that politicians and public administrators, while making decisions which involve public and people's rights or interests as stakeholders, have to explain to the public, in any way, why they have taken such policies or decisions (Zarei, 2000:44). On the other hand the public must have access to the social and political instruments to criticize such decisions and policies and complement such process by resorting to other means of political, legal and administrative accountability. Public may react to and assess administrators decisions through mass media, press, election and ballot box by replacing political leaders and policies, and pressurising through other organised social, economic or political groups. According to Sing (2003:87), an absolute definition, description or explanation of public accountability does not exist. The various definitions that are advocated are underpinned by references to concepts and processes with normative and prescriptive connotations.

### ***3.8.1.2 Administrative accountability***

Administrative accountability refers to devising control mechanisms to keep the bureaucracy under surveillance and in check (Hanekom *et al*, 1996:178). This sort of accountability is aimed at non-political and non-legal authorities such as civil servants and top ranking administrators (Zarei, 2000:45; Bovens, 2005). In local government public officials are responsible to the elected municipal council, regulators, public audit offices, by-laws. According to Cendon (2000:34) administrative accountability may take vertical and horizontal dimension. Vertical dimension is a relationship that links junior officials with senior officials in the form of an organisational hierarchy while horizontal dimension links individual administrators with the public administration system as a whole, which is with citizens as recipient of services and other stakeholders in public administration. Both the vertical dimension of administrative accountability and the horizontal dimension are based on strict and objective criteria of a legal and functional character which takes the form of obligations of doing or not doing that bind public officials (Cendon, 2000:34). For instance, the duty of fulfilling all the obligations linked to the position; the duty of obedience and loyalty towards superiors; the duty of neutrality or impartiality; the duty of integrity; the duty of discretion; the duty of using appropriately public resources; the duty of treating citizens, as much as superiors, colleagues, and subordinates, with attention and respect; and the duty to abide by the Constitution of the Republic and the rest of the legal order. Firestone and Shipps (2007:216) refer to administrative accountability as bureaucratic accountability. Bureaucratic accountability is supposed to ensure that the decision and orders of formal superiors are carried out. It is usually embodied in formal rules, regulations and standard operating procedures that specify what subordinates are expected to do (Firestone and Shipps, 2007:216). Such accountability usually encompasses controls over subordinates' work, and rewards sanctions linked to the performance. A prototype example can be the adherence to regulations on developmental local government. The Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2006 provides stringent procedures to be adhered to in managing local government finances. On the same score, Firestone and Shipps (2007:216) noted that bureaucratic and political accountability became enmeshed when politics generates rules and regulations. The legislation and regulations specifying the procedures and services for local governments are a result of political process. Yet from a local government sphere perspective, municipalities face regulations that must be adhered to. Such regulations are usually non-negotiable for municipalities.

### 3.8.1.3 Legal accountability

Legal and regulatory forces comprise a major portion of the accountability environment (Kearns, 1996:29). They mandate certain organisational actions and prohibit others with a vast array of rules, procedures, reporting requirements, and sanctions by outside entities. Legal accountability is where administrators are accountable to the courts and the judiciary on the basis of the requirement of the rule of law (Romzek and Dubnick, 1987; Zarei, 2000:45; Bovens, 2005). Courts of law and the judiciary in a democratic government are the guardian of democratic process and values such as consultation, rights, equality and justice and liberties of individuals. Public officials are required to follow legal provisions made either by the legislature or the courts' precedents in their day to day decision making including for example, issuing of licenses, collecting taxes, making purchase orders, dismissals, etc. The scope of judicial review depends on the extent of the violations of the statutory provisions or established legal principles or the infringement on individuals' rights and interests (Zarei, 2000:45). Public officials must be aware of the principles of judicial control which are applicable in at least two aspects of their decisions and conduct, namely, the principle of legality or the doctrine of *ultra vires* and the principle of natural justice. The doctrine of *ultra vires* curtails administrative powers on the ground that the existence of authority is for attainment of policy objectives not for any irrelevant purposes. Natural justice or procedural fairness mirrors the idea that a public official cannot be the judges of his/her own case and that, before to make a final decision affecting a person or group's rights and interests, a defense of their case and views must always be fairly heard. The judiciary tends to judicialise the process of decision-making powers of administrators through the medium of procedural fairness and adjudicative process (Zarei, 2000:46). Administrative decision-making is a complex procedure that include taking into account the objectives set by statutory provisions and other governmental regulations, collecting information, evaluating the possible alternative solutions, determining the best options available, assessing different ways of implementation of decisions, and appraising of the possible effects on public interests or relevant parties and individuals. Various aspects of public service delivery have to live up to an enormous variety of regulatory frameworks that aim to maintaining its public character (Van der Wal and Van Hout, 2009:225). The significance of the principle of procedural fairness is that it offers a level of protection for those individual and groups who think their rights and interests have been undermined through these administrative decision-making process (Zarei, 2000:46). In public administration this principle is even provided for as one of the fundamental guidelines of adherence to the rule of law.

#### ***3.8.1.4 Political accountability***

The core of political accountability is responsiveness to the electorate (Firestone and Shipps, 2007:215; Bovens, 2005; Romzek and Dubnick, 1987). According to Sing (2003:89) political accountability is regarded as the highest level of accountability. It focuses on the power of the political authority to legitimise and regulate, to set priorities and distribute resources and to ensure compliance with legislative measures. Political accountability is a sort of responsibility which a political authority like the elected mayor owes to other external political institutions such as the council, council committees and other spheres of government (Zarei, 2000:46). Oliver (1991) as cited in Zarei (2000:46) contend that to improve an effective democratic political accountability, the structure of political system should be decentralised, the election system should be reformed, political parties should be recognised and established, and freedom of information and press ought to be secured. Political accountability also takes place in a double dimension, i.e. vertical and horizontal (Cendon, 2000:28). Vertical dimension of political accountability is a relationship that links those in the high positions of the administrative structure; those officials are appointed and removed freely only to political reasons or political confidence. This is however determined by the legal and constitutional provisions in place. For example the mayor of a local municipality is elected by the council. The horizontal dimension of political accountability is a relationship that links local municipal council with other stake-holders or government agencies. Firestone and Shipps (2007:215) contend that the multitude of political pressures encourages the satisfaction of specific demands, rather than thinking more globally and strategically about how to engage public or build general base of support. The implications of such pressures are for local leaders to become negotiators who can build coalitions by bringing together individuals and groups with divergent interests around relatively common goals. Recent surveys suggest that political accountability continues to bedevil coping with both external and internal concerns (Firestone and Shipps, 2007:216). Party political structures tend to micromanage statutory government structures and throughout the process the real essence of political accountability is distorted.

#### ***3.8.1.5 Professional accountability***

Professional accountability is characterised by the existence of a set of norms and practices of a technical or professional nature that govern the behaviour and performance of members of a certain profession (Romzek and Dubnick, 1987; Cendon, 2000:39; Bovens, 2005). These norms and practices, as long as their respective profession is integrated in the organic structure of public administration,

become also the set of rules, regulations, and principles that govern the operation of public administration in those areas where profession is exercised. Members of the profession are subject to such normative set of rules and move with autonomy when performing their professional activities according to their own criteria of professional knowledge. These professional rules or principles have both technical and ethical dimensions (Cendon, 2000:39). Organised professions got their own codes of behaviour and conduct of professional ethics and apply special mechanisms for application and control.

### ***3.8.1.6 Democratic accountability***

Democratic accountability entails the existence of a direct relationship between public administration and the society, a relationship which society is not only a passive object of the administrative action but rather adopts active role (Cendon, 2000:42). The growth of public administration and the arrival of administrative action to every possible aspect of the society have caused the emergence of a participation process in which two different necessities converge. Public administration has to attain the need to attain a largest possible support and social acceptance for its decisions and on the other hand the need for society and specific groups within to make sure that public administration takes into account and fulfills their own demands and interests (Cendon, 2000:42). The participation process becomes a relationship of accountability where citizens and social groups transmute into agents of control of administrative performance, and public administration is forced to give account and to justify its acts before them. Citizens want to have a direct control over all those matters that affect their existence, such as security on the streets, education of their children, health, housing, water supply, electricity supply, environment, etc. According to Cendon (2000:43), democratic accountability is not established in a formalised and perfectly defined way, the elements of its process-agents of the relationship, evaluation criteria, control instruments, consequences-are not always well defined or formalised in the legal order, they even vary on the grounds of the type of administrative action and certainly from country to country. Democratic accountability focuses its attention on the results of administrative action and their impact in social and economic life. The general satisfaction of the demands of citizens and social groups become the focus. Social groups and citizens become new agents of the control of public administration.

### **3.8.2 VARIOUS PERSPECTIVES OF ACCOUNTABILITY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

According to McGarvey (2001:18)) accountability in public administration may also be understood from a multi-perspective framework of analysis (see also Romzek and Dubnick, 1987; Peters and Pierre,

1998; Bovens, 2005). This is aggravated by the complex nature of accountability in public administration. McGarvey (2001:18) outlines the following as some of the series of alternative perspectives frameworks of analysing accountability in public administration:

### ***3.8.2.1 The Traditional Perspective***

The traditional model of public accountability is a simple one with a coherent chain of accountability – from official in the bureaucracy, from official to minister, from minister to Parliament, from Parliament to people (McGarvey, 2001:18). Each official is technically accountable through a hierarchical structure of the bureaucracy, to elected politicians and to the citizenry at large. It is underpinned by Weberian conceptions of bureaucracy. Honesty, integrity, impartiality and objectivity inform the behaviour of officers as they administer rules decided by the politicians. It is reliant on the mythical dichotomy of policy and administration. The conception is still top down in that politicians decide on policy and administrative officials only execute.

### ***3.8.2.2 The Democratic Perspective***

The democratic perspective emphasises democracy's impact on accountability in public administration (McGarvey, 2001:19). The role of elected bodies encompasses some capacity to scrutinise as well as influence the actions of government. As outlined in the preceding discussion within this chapter, democracy or democratic itself is a moving concept in that it take different contextualisation in different situations. It stretches from participatory democracy to ballot box elections. It will be illustrated in the next chapter as to how such manifest itself in developmental local government through community participation.

### ***3.8.2.3 The Professional Perspective***

Professionals may be viewed as licensed by training into professional knowledge and values to become the guardian of standards and innovation in a given profession (McGarvey, 2001:20). Public sector professionals have been viewed as paternalistic and efficient with the basis of professional judgments being called to question.

#### ***3.8.2.4 The Managerialist Perspective***

The managerialist perspective of accountability emphasises the requirement for direct accountability between administrators and the users of public services (McGarvey, 2001:20). More effective management, choice, empowerment delivers more responsive and accountable public services.

#### ***3.8.2.5 The Governance Perspective***

The governance perspective is consistent with the basis of externalisation of focus by moving beyond traditional institutions of government (McGarvey, 2001:22). The basic argument being that to understand the processes of governance one must widen the spotlight to encompass the networks of other bodies involved in the process of service delivery. This perspective is more contemporary in recognising the reality of partnership and network arrangements in today's modernising joined up public sector. It emphasises the changing scale, character, scope and complexity of public service delivery (McGarvey, 2001:23). Today the bureaucratic apparatus of public administration stretches beyond the narrow confines of the civil plethora of other institutions including quangos and other bodies drawn by civil society.

#### ***3.8.2.6 The Regulatory Perspective***

In recent years the apparent answer to the questions of accountability that the new structures of governance raise, has been to increase the surveillance, audit and regulatory capacity of government (McGarvey, 2001:23). Accountability is no longer ensured through line management relations within clear hierarchical structures but through hands off regulation. While the traditional perspectives of accountability had an inwards focus, the regulatory perspective shifts the focus outward to the regulatory relationships between institutions.

#### ***3.8.2.7 The Rational Choice Perspective***

A rational choice perspective on accountability emphasises that only by focusing on individual political strategies of these actors could a true picture of accountability emerge (McGarvey, 2001:24). Rational choice theorists have much to add to discussions about choosing among policy alternatives, yet they rarely address agenda setting, even though agendas can develop in ways that limit options and make rational choice (Wallance *et al*, 2007:103).

### 3.8.3 VARIOUS FORMS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Responsibility in political, governmental and administrative systems is regarded as a general idea and accountability is regarded as a version of responsibility (Sing, 2003:88). Responsibility refers to the charter of delegated powers that are entrusted to the government, to the grants of power conditionally made available to public officials to do the things that they have the capacity to take charge of, act on, or provide (Dunn and Legge Jr, 2000:74). Responsibility refers to a personal obligation for the task assigned or delegated to an official or agent (Hanekom *et al*, 1995:174). Public administrators can be relied on and left in charge. Elected and appointed public officials act responsibly by showing policy and administrative initiative and leadership in the areas for which they are responsible. Public responsibility implies responsibility to the public through the legislature. According to Harmon (1995:19), the meaning of responsibility confuses and incorporates several combinations of three distinct meanings of the word: agency, accountability, and obligation. Each of these meanings in turn has both an individual and a collective or institutional aspect which introduces the elements of tensions and confusion in the discourse of public administration. Therefore, Harmon (1995:19) classifies responsibility as an agency, accountability and obligation. Responsibility as an agency refer to a situation where one is assumed to possess the power to cause events to happen through the voluntary exercise of one's will (Harmon, 1995:19). It embodies the symbolism of one who is in charge of actions and these actions are not only purposefully in the sense that they are directed towards ends; they are also the formative material from agents shape and continually reshape themselves. Accountability has been discussed at length in the previous paragraphs.

In the context of responsibility, accountability assumes that the agent of whom answerability is demanded is both self-aware and in possession of the necessary means to cause an event or action to occur (Harmon, 1995:25). Obligation introduces an explicitly moral meaning of responsibility by suggesting that one should, or should not perform a particular action (Harmon, 1995:26). Harmon (1995:26) further elucidates that if responsibility is followed by the preposition "for", the meanings of obligation is combined with that of agency; but when it is followed by the preposition "to", the obligatory meaning of responsibility is linked to accountability. Thompson (1980) on the other hand presents responsibility from the perspective of hierarchical model, collective responsibility, as well as personal responsibility. In a hierarchical model, responsibility falls within the person who stands highest in the formal or informal chain of authority (Thompson, 1980:907). Collective responsibility

claims that no one individual responsible some given actions. Personal responsibility is attributed to a person as an occupant of a certain office (Thompson, 1980:908). It needs to be noted that Thompson's (1980) presentation of models of responsibility fits in well to the forms of responsibilities as discussed in the ensuing paragraph. The requirement does not imply that public administrators should act only as mechanical apparatus bound by law and regulation to the legislature like a cog in a wheel, it mean that within the framework supplied by either the legislature or other source, public administrators should perform their duties in such a way that it remains possible to account for all actions according to the framework provided by the legislature (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1983:110). Hanekom and others (1995:175) distinguishes various forms of responsibilities found in public administration. Such forms are elaborated below:

#### ***3.8.3.1 Moral responsibility***

Moral responsibility in the South African context refers to the right of every individual citizen to demand fundamental human rights and to be treated as equal in the services rendered by government (Hanekom *et al*, 1995:175). Government must therefore in a plural society like South Africa strive for the greatest moral responsibility towards various groups.

#### ***3.8.3.2 Political responsibility***

Elected representatives assume their responsibilities through various and diverse political mandates while appointed officials assume their responsibilities on the basis of, among others skills, knowledge and ability. Schedule 4 of the South African Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 provides for the proportional representation of political parties in local governance as well as ward councilor representation. According to Thompson (1981:267) a simple occupation of a political office that has jurisdiction over the outcome in question is normally sufficient to make someone politically responsible.

#### ***3.8.3.3 Administrative responsibility***

Administrative responsibility means equating authority and responsibility (Hanekom *et al*, 1995:176). Authority must be allocated with necessary responsibilities. One will not be held responsible for the matter which he/she do not has authority. Administrative responsibility may further be classified as operating responsibility and ultimate responsibility (Hanekom *et al*, 1995:176-177).Operating

responsibility may be passed on by the administrator and may in turn be passed further down the line of authority. Ultimate responsibility is where the administrator remains responsible for the actions of subordinates to whom he has passed operational responsibility. In the South African context the framework need to be constitutional. Such framework provides a set of ideals which actions are derived from. In terms of complexity thinking the framework serve as a shared schema for legitimate system. Shared schema refers to the component of the schemas that agents in organisations use to make choices consists of rules that are shared with other agents (Stacey, 1996:32). Some of these rules are embodied in a bureaucracy and others are expressed as a shared culture. Legitimate system refers to the hierarchy, bureaucracy, and shared ideology that members of an organization recognize as having the authority to sanction actions and allocate resources (Stacey, 1996:288). The formal structural arrangement of a given municipality serves as a legitimate system and its members, ranging from elected councilors to appointed officials as well as other stakeholders are believed to be sharing an ideology and recognise the sanctions of authority. The Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System and Community Participation System are some legitimate processes put in place to ensure such interaction. How do accountability and responsibility come together in public administration? Dunn and Legge Jr (2000:75) put it this way, “implicit but very important in the definition of responsibility is the requirement that public officials have sufficient definition of their duties, so that definitions may guide their actions as well as provide a basis for those defining the duties or responsibilities of these officials to appraise their actions through accountability methods”. Accountability defines the boundaries within which official responsibilities are acted out while responsibility is about empowering the officials. Without accountability, the discretion of officials might lead to irresponsible actions. Public administration in South Africa is within the hands of elected representatives and appointed officials as well as other structures of civil society which democratically represent the majority of South Africa. Section 195(1)(i) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 provide that public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation. The challenge on accountability and responsibility is the complex sources where public administrators draw their mandates. Responsibility – accountability methods take different forms on different structural arrangements. Various theorists like Friedrich and Finer as cited in Dunn and Legge Jr (2000) have identified different ways on how responsibility – accountability occur in democratic governments. The common ways include

hierarchical, legal professional, and political. The mechanisms are briefly outlined below as provide in Dunn and Legge Jr (2000:79).The hierarchical mechanism focuses on organisationally imposed rules and sanctions. The Executive Mayor or Executive Committee of a municipality remains accountable due to the hierarchical arrangement of local government, as well as the Municipal Manager being the most senior official in the municipality. Each position within the municipal structural arrangement comes with its responsibilities in relation to its level in the hierarchy. The legal method focuses on court actions, review of administrative actions by courts, and the imposition of judicially imposed sanctions on administrators. The professional mechanism focuses on deference to expertise and emphasises on professional knowledge. Political mechanisms associated with accountability – responsibility that includes potentially the general public, elected officials, agency heads, agency clientele, other special interest groups, and future generations. The different mechanisms operate on the basis of shared schemas which are totally different from others. Having attempted to outline different complexities in public administration and management, it will serve no purpose if one does not attempt to reflect on how complexity thinking theoretical discourse may be of assistance in this dilemma. The ensuing paragraphs will attempt to provide as to how complexity theory may be applied to South African public administration.

### **3.9 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has attempted to reflect on complexity thinking discourse through conceptualisation of complex reflexive systems in relation to public administration in South Africa. Complexity was presented as the science which studies the fundamental properties of non-linear feedback networks and particularly of complex adaptive networks or complex evolving systems. Complex reflexive systems may be understood through its characteristics or features. Developmental local government resembles such a complex system. Cilliers (1998) has put forward what may be deemed to be the characteristics of complex reflexive system. Developmental local government consists of a number of systems that interact among themselves. The interactions are beyond rational explanations that can be applied to complicated systems. Characteristics of complex reflexive systems relate well to the nature of postmodern society. It is the nature of postmodernism that there are no unified theoretical discourses that can solely deal with developmental local government on its own. The difference between the ordinary complex systems and human complex systems is that the latter has an internal structure. It able to think and have emotions based on psychological dynamics. Human beings within local government are

human complex systems. They bring with them their emotions and feelings within an organisational setup like developmental local government. Complexity thinking is based on generic principles which are self-organization, emergence, connectivity, interdependence, feedback, far from equilibrium, space of possibilities, historicity and time as well as the creation of new order. Those principles need to be taken care of in dealing with complex reflexive systems like developmental local government. Complexity in public administration manifests itself in the form of multiplicity, context, persona, accountability and responsibility. Multiplicity and pluralism make it difficult for the system to be approached from a single perspective and makes the system to be more complex. Various perspectives with multiple role players make the system to neither be irreducible to a defined unit nor define its boundary or hierarchy. Context relate to the impossibility of the system to have a single acceptable context. Different contexts will make the system to adjust itself in relation to the context. Other systems will also take form in relation to the context of the moment. Persona also brings about the human part of the system. The human element of the system brings other aspects which are internal to human systems. Accountability and responsibility have proved to be a complex and reflexive in public administration. There are various forms of accountability and responsibilities and each one have its form and basis. The science of complexity may be metaphorically or analogically applied by public administrators in public administration to assist in dealing challenges in the field. The ensuing chapter presents the institutional framework of developmental local government to reflect complexities that emanate from its form and function. The framework of developmental local government is presented in the form of a framework of institutional models and its powers and functions as related to other existing institutions within the arena of developmental local government.

## CHAPTER 4

### THE INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENTAL DUTIES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The notion of developmental local government in South Africa came about through the process of local government transformation. This has culminated to the introduction of the White Paper on Local Government of 1998, and resulted on the enacting of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 as well as the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. The Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 53 of 2003 followed to ensure the proper management of local government finances. These legislations put forward the framework for developmental local government as envisaged in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The framework as envisaged in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and other legislations provide form, structure and function of developmental local government. That form and structure come about interactions within the policy landscape. The argument put forward in this study is that in as much as those interactions are geared towards the envisaged ideal of developmental local government, complexities that characterise those interactions result in the system of developmental local government to be complex and reach a state of *morphonesis*. Such complexities create what has been referred as *morphogenesis* is exacerbated by the state of *isomorphismin* drawn from the multiplicity of schemata. This chapter firstly reflects on the framework of the new developmental local government in South Africa and outlines its legal status. The legal status is outlined as provided for in various legislative prescripts as well as the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Its establishment and functions are presented. The framework is presented in the form of institutional models adopted in South African local government such as the categories and types of municipalities. Various categories of municipalities as provided for in the Constitution are outlined. The categories provide the frame of types of municipalities established in various territories. Such municipalities are manned by elected municipal councils. The municipal councils together with its roles and functions are discussed in relation to complexities that emanate on its implementation. The functions and powers of local government are elaborated through a contextual nature which always creates challenges in practice. Such contextual nature is elaborated in terms of perspectives of local government powers and functions. The inherent

institution of traditional leadership is also presented to reflect its role in developmental local government. Secondly, the chapter reflects on responsibilities of new developmental mandate of local government in South Africa and outlines its legal status and states the ideal statutory operations in relation to the tools and approaches necessary for realisation of developmental local government. The tools and approaches to be discussed are, namely, Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System and Community Participation. Those tools and approaches are regarded as systems necessary for realisation of developmental local government. The tools and approaches are introduced homogeneously throughout municipalities in the country. That is what necessitated the introduction of the concept of *isomorphism* in this study. Those systems are by their nature complex in that they are constituted through the interactions of the variety of other systems such as among others the elected municipal council; appointed municipal staff personnel; community participation; performance management. Understanding each one of the tools and approaches do not mean understanding the whole process of developmental local government (Kiel, 1994; Stacey, 1996; Cilliers, 1998; Mitleton-Kelly, 2003; Morcol, 2003; Haynes, 2003; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009; Van Uden *et al*, 2001). The systems interact among themselves and they are not static. They change in form, structure and function as they are implemented and reflect what referred has been referred to as *morphogenesis* in this study is. Municipal plans might appear static in paper, but the moment they are operationalised they become complex in that they involve interactions. Those developmental duties are by themselves policy prescripts that become a schema or schemata involve processes in creating them. For example to develop an integrated development plan require a process as well as its implementation that is informed by a paradigm. As Haynes (2007) put it that it is problematic to determine exactly when a given policy starts and ends, and the policy process is widely viewed as an untidy process, which is cyclic and evolving, rather than constructed on a simple linear pathway. The IDP forms a five year municipality master plan. All other tools and approaches form part of the IDP. The tools and approaches themselves have an interaction relationship with the IDP as a whole. Each of the tool or approach partially depends on the IDP as well as the IDP partially depends on each of the tools or approaches. These tools and approaches are outlined on the basis of their intertwined relationship with a view of exposing their complex nature. Examples on how they manifest themselves in practice will be provided in relation to the practice within municipalities found within the Vhembe District Municipality area. The manifestation will attempt to reflect on complexity properties as they appear in developmental local government.

## 4.2 THE FRAMEWORK OF DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT

In presenting responsibilities for developmental local government, it is of paramount importance to begin by reflecting on institutional framework in which the new developmental mandate is based. The place of local government as a sphere of government has been elaborated in detail before in chapter two of this study. According to Bekink (2006:9), apart from the totally revised constitutional system in South Africa, the entire local government dispensation had to be transformed and restructured under constitutional structures. Notwithstanding the fact that all local governments form part of the government system in the new state and thus comply with the overall constitutional requirements as a sphere of government, municipal governments have also been invested with unique features and principles that underpin the new local government dispensation. The unique features and principles have been specifically designed to facilitate the restructured and transformed local government that would achieve constitutionally defined objects and that would adhere to certain constitutional demands in South Africa (Bekink, 2006:9). The objectives of local government as discussed before should be regarded as general objectives pertaining to general goal of local government, rather than specific objectives related to their general functions (Gildenhuys, 1997:2). In terms of Section 151 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, the local sphere of government consists of municipalities which must be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic; with the executive and legislative authority of such municipalities vested in its municipal council. Such municipalities must have the right to govern on their own initiative the local government affairs of their communities subject to national and provincial legislation as provided for in the Constitution. The national and provincial government may not compromise or impede a municipality's ability or right to exercise its powers of performing its functions.

Most existing literature in South African local government or municipal administration do not clearly provide for local government framework from the point of elaborating on the principle of separation of powers within the municipality itself as a sphere of government. In presenting the new dispensation of South African municipal government and administration, Cloete and Thornhill (2004) elaborated on the roles of municipal councils as the legislative and executive authorities. Administrative and management matters such as municipal human resource management, financial management, policy making and planning in municipalities within the current legislative policy frameworks is provided without drawing a distinction of the various arms of public administration as they manifest themselves in local government sphere. The "*trias politikas*" phrase which simply means separations of powers in

government (Craythorne, 1997:5) is important to be addressed in local government. The “*trias politikas*” means that the legislative, executive and judicial powers of government should be divided or split apart from each other (Craythorne, 1997:5). The most compelling reason for this form of separation of powers is that it prevents autocratic or dictatorial government. However in the new developmental local government system in South Africa, the municipal council is vested with both legislative and executive authority. That is making it difficult to separate those powers if the body is one.

### **4.3 INSTITUTIONAL MODELS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 provide for the establishment of municipalities within the whole Republic. Every part of the territory will therefore be included within the jurisdiction of a specific municipal government (Bekink, 2006:111). In general all communities are in need of local governments that are people driven and are equipped and positioned to achieve optimal social and economic development. According to the White Paper on Local Government of 1998 (DPLG: 57), municipal institutional arrangements cannot be assessed in the abstract, and there are no universally ideal systems. Municipal institutions need to be assessed in the context of specific circumstances, and judged against their ability to meet the needs of local communities. That in essence requires that municipalities of different communities need not be the same. Section 155 of the Constitution of 1996 provide for the establishment of municipalities with various categories. Various types of municipalities established within each category are defined in terms of the provisions of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. According to the White Paper on Local government of 1998 (DPLG: 58), various factors had a bearing on the choice of municipal institutions in South Africa. Those factors are discussed as follows:

- The legacy of colonial and apartheid separation, which has created distortions in settlement patterns.
- The uneven distribution of municipal capacity, particularly between urban and rural municipalities. The conundrum related to the concept of capacity has been presented somewhere in the study. Previous legislation created disincentives for skilled staff to work in rural and small towns. Further under apartheid there was little commitment to building sustainable municipal capacity in large parts of the country.

- The need for rapid intervention in the management of urban and rural systems, to tackle entrenched patterns of inequity, increase economic competitiveness and viability, and harness concentrated capacity and investment.
- Sharp social divisions within local communities, and the need to enable diverse community groups to have adequate voice and representation within the municipal system without perpetuating existing divisions.
- The new vision for local government, and the need for empowered and capacitated municipalities to play a transformed and developmental role in building viable human settlements which meet the needs and aspirations of local communities.

These factors have led to the need for capacitated municipal institutions at an appropriate level to address spatial distortions in settlement patterns (DPLG: 58). A focus on district governments as Centre's of municipal capacity to manage integrated development planning and to ensure rapid delivery where local municipal capacity does not exist; as well as a focus on metropolitan governments to promote social inclusion and the spatial, economic and political integration of metropolitan areas was an attempt to deal with those capacity challenges. Those spatial distortions as outlined in the White Paper on Local government provide a unique description of the nature of South African local government. Developmental local government has to be realised taking those uneven patterns as part of description. It is on this basis that various categories of municipalities are established in South Africa. Those categories are classified into category A, category B, and category C. The ensuing paragraph discusses those various categories of municipalities as provided for in South African dispensation.

#### **4.3.1 Various categories of municipalities**

Section 155 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 provide for the establishment of municipalities with various categories. In its ideal form, a local government system is composed of at least one of two basic types of local government being primary local government and secondary local government (Stanyer, 1976:9). Primary local government exists when the local authority is directly elected by the people living in its area, and a secondary local government is when the authority is indirectly elected, that is appointed by one or more primary authorities. According to Stanyer (1976:9) primary local government consists of local authorities who have stable and clearly marked boundaries, are responsible for a range of public services and have an independent power of local taxation, in

addition to having their members directly elected. Those authorities are the foundation of most modern systems of local government. Primary local governments can further be distinguished within two types, namely, simple type and, or complex type (Stanyer, 1976:9). Simple primary local government occurs where there is only authority with jurisdiction over a particular territory, while complex primary local government is found where several local authorities are independently elected and have co-ordinate jurisdiction, though not necessarily in respect of the same services. The South African types of municipalities are based on complex type. The establishment of districts and local municipalities are of the complex type of local governments. Various types of municipalities established within each category are defined in terms of the provisions of chapter one of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. Such categories and types are follows:

#### ***4.3.1.1 Category A municipalities***

In terms of section 155(1) (a) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, a category “A” municipality is a municipality that has exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in its area. Section 2 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 provides specific qualifications for areas which must have category “A” municipalities. An area to have category “A” municipality must be regarded as a conurbation featuring areas of high population density; an intense movement of people, goods, and services; extensive development; and multiple business districts and industrial areas. There must be a center of economic activity with complex and diverse economy; with a single area for which integrated development planning is desirable. There must be strong interdependent social and economic linkages between its constituent units. In South Africa those municipalities are found in highly urbanized and industrialized area like Johannesburg, Cape Town, Tshwane, Port Elizabeth and Durban. They are referred to as metropolitan municipalities.

#### ***4.3.1.2 Category B municipalities***

Section 155(1)(b) of the Constitution provide for category “B” municipality as a municipality that shares municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with category “C” municipality within whose area it falls. In terms of section 3 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, an area that does not comply with the criteria set out in section 2 of the same Act, such criteria being the determination of category “A” municipality, must have municipalities of both category “C” and category “B”. The Minister must apply the criteria set out in section 2 of the Local Government Municipal

Structures Act 117 of 1998 and determine whether an area in terms of the criteria must have a single category “A” municipality or whether it must have municipalities of both category “C” and category “B”. Such ministerial determination is done in consultation with the MEC of local government in the province concerned, the Demarcation Board, SALGA and organised local government in the province. Most local municipalities in Limpopo Province South Africa are within this category. Most local municipalities have executive and legislative authority in its areas with a District Municipality which is a category “C” municipality.

#### ***4.3.1.3 Category C municipalities***

Section 155(1)(c) of the Constitution provide for category “C” municipality as a municipality that has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality. District municipalities serve as examples for this category. In terms of the Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 a district municipality means a municipality that has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality and which is described in section 155(1) of the Constitution as a category C municipality. District municipalities have executive and legislative authority in areas which are also covered by local municipalities. For example the Vhembe District Municipality has both executive and legislative authority on certain aspects within the area of Mutale Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality, Makhado Local Municipality, and Thulamela Local Municipality. Within the various categories of municipalities there are also different types of municipalities. The types within each category are defined in terms of the systems or combination thereof that exercise legislative and executive authority of the municipality. The types of municipalities found in South African developmental local government are discussed in the ensuing paragraph.

#### **4.3.2 Types of municipalities**

The Constitution specifies that municipal councils should make decisions concerning the exercise of all powers and the performance of all functions of the municipality (DPLG, 1998:83). National legislation may provide criteria for determining the size of a municipal Council, whether municipal Councils may elect an Executive Committee or any other committee, and the size of the Executive Committee or any other committee of a municipal Council. Section 7 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act

117 of 1998 provides for different types of municipalities that may be established within each category as defined in terms of systems or combination of such systems as follows:

#### ***4.3.2.1 Collective executive system***

There are a number of ways in which the executive should be structured (DPLG, 1998:84). One of the key decisions is whether the executive should be collective or an individual. The system allows for the exercise of executive authority through an executive committee in which executive leadership of the municipality is collectively vested. The municipal council elects within itself a number of councillors who must sit in the executive committee. The number of councillors to sit in the executive committee is determined through the establishment of the municipality in terms of section 12 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. The executive committee must ensure proportional representation of the municipal council.

#### ***4.3.2.2 Mayoral executive system***

The system allows for the exercise of executive authority through the executive mayor, in whom the executive leadership of the municipality is vested and, who is assisted by the mayoral committee. The executive mayor is elected by the full council in a sitting. The executive mayor appoints members of the mayoral committee from among councillors. The mayoral committee must ensure proportional representation of the whole municipal council.

#### ***4.3.2.3 Plenary executive system***

The system limits the exercise of executive authority to the municipal council itself. The whole municipal council is vested with executive authority. The system is applicable to municipalities with few councillors. In most cases those municipal councillors must be less than ten (10). Smaller municipalities adopt this type of system as municipal councillors are few to can constitute an executive committee or mayoral committee.

#### ***4.3.2.4 Sub-council participatory system***

The system allows for delegated powers to be exercised by sub-councils established for specific parts of a municipality. The system is applicable where the municipal council is further divided into sub-

councils. Each sub-council may be delegated executive powers over the territory that it is responsible for.

#### ***4.3.2.5 Ward participatory system***

The system allows for matters of local concern to wards to be dealt with by committees established for such wards. The system allow for the strengthening of ward committees to exercise executive powers which might have been delegated.

A summary of the executive systems applicable to the different types of municipalities is illustrated in table 4.1 below as presented by Fourie and Opperman (2007:17). It need to be mentioned that the adoption of any of these systems do not go without hindrances in practice. The establishment of each of the system is accompanied by other dynamics like political power play and circumstances of the municipality. These in it create complexities ranging from multiplicity of stake-holders involved, the persona, context and sources of accountability and responsibility. For example in the Vhembe district in Limpopo the Executive Mayor is deployed by the ruling party. The election of the executive mayor in the council sitting is a formality as legislated. The executive will appoint members of the mayoral committee in consultation with the ruling party. It stands to be argued that the executive mayor might be imposed to the municipal council as well as the mayoral committee.

#### **4.3.3 Local government municipal council**

The established municipalities must have municipal councils. The council is the main representative organ of local government, and it is primarily through the council that the public has a voice in the affairs of local government (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000:255). In terms of section 157(1) of the Constitution of 1996, a municipal council consist of members elected in accordance with the national legislation which prescribed a system of proportional representation based on that municipality's segment of the national common voter's roll, and which provides for the election of members from lists of party candidates drawn in a party's order of preference; or of proportional representation combined with system of ward representation based on that municipality's segment of the national common voter's roll. Such electoral system must result in general, in proportional representation. The ward system provide for election of candidates to contest elections within a ward demarcated per Local Government Delimitation legislation.

**Table 4.1:** Types of municipal executive systems within municipal categories

Category A municipalities			
<b>Collective executive system</b>	Collective executive system with a sub-council system.	Collective executive system with a ward participatory system.	Collective executive system with sub-council participatory and a ward participatory system.
<b>Mayoral executive system</b>	Mayoral executive system with sub-council participatory system.	Mayoral executive system with a ward participatory system.	Mayoral executive system with sub-council participatory system and a ward participatory system.
Category B municipalities			
<b>Collective executive system</b>	Collective executive system with a ward participatory system		
<b>Mayoral executive system</b>	Mayoral executive system with a ward participatory system		
<b>Plenary executive system</b>	Plenary executive system with a ward participatory system		
Category C municipalities			
<b>Collective executive system</b>			
<b>Mayoral executive system</b>			
<b>Plenary executive system</b>			

**Source:** Adopted from Fourie and Opperman (2007:17)

#### 4.3.4 Local government municipal administration

For elected municipal councils to deliver on local government mandate, administrative authority must be in place. Policy intentions of the municipal council must be implemented by administrators. Administrators at all levels or spheres of government are charged with the task of effectively, efficiently, and responsively implementing public programs (Fesler and Kettl, 1991:32). The South African local public administration is provided for in terms of Section 50 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. Basic values and principles governing local public administration are provided. Such basic values and principles are as embodied in Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. In terms of section 51 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provides that a municipality must within its administrative and financial capacity establishes and organise its administration in a manner that would enable the municipality adhere to these principles:

- The municipality must be responsive to the needs of the local community.
- Facilitate the culture of public service and accountability amongst its staff.
- Performance orientated and focused on the objects of local government set out in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 1996 and duties required thereof.

- Ensure that political structures, political office bearers and managers and other staff members align their roles and responsibilities with the priorities and objectives set out in the municipality's integrated development plan.
- Establish clear relationships, and facilitate co-operation, co-ordination and communication between its political structures and political office bearers and its administration; its political structures, political office bearers and administration and the local community.
- Organise political structures, political office bearers and administration in flexible way in order to respond to changing priorities and circumstances.
- Perform its functions through operationally effective and appropriate administrative units and mechanisms, including departments and other functional or business units; when necessary, on a decentralised basis.
- Assign clear responsibilities for the management and co-ordination of these administrative units and mechanisms.
- Hold the municipal manager accountable for the overall performance of the administration.
- Delegate responsibility to the most effective level within administration.
- Involve staff in management decisions as far as is practicable.
- Provide an equitable, fair, open and non-discriminatory working environment.

Those basic values and principles reflect on the normative foundations of the discipline of public administration. Those principles are applicable in all spheres of government. In terms of complexity theory those principles represent a schema or a source of guidance on how one goes about in the field of public administration.

#### **4.4 FUNCTIONS AND POWERS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Every public institution is created to provide specific products or services (Cloete, 2004:300). For the provision of each product or service; appropriate functions must be performed. This means that every public institution is identified and characterised by its functional activities. According to Cloete

(2004:85) provision of those products and services takes place within the administrative process. Nothing can be done in any matter in public sector before a policy on it has been accepted by the legislature or other competent institution to declare that action must be taken in the matter to reach one or more objectives (Cloete, 2004:85). When a policy has been provided and objectives declared, the other generic administrative processes can be commenced, along with the delivery, auxiliary and instrumental functions and the functional activities. In developmental local government those policies range from the constitutional establishment of local governments to introduction of municipal structures and municipal systems as per the intentions of the White Paper on Local Government of 1998, further with the provisions of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000.

In his classic writings, Ryder (1955:13) noted that there are still misunderstandings of the nature and work of the various types of local government authorities. This lack of knowledge is displayed not only by the average man-in-the street, shown by remarks such as, “Why does not the Council do something about?”, when Council has probably no power or authority to deal with the matter in question, but even by those who, one would think, might know better – the would-be Councillors: That is, candidates at local elections. This phenomenon remains with local governance up until the conception of developmental local government in South Africa. Most community protests in South Africa are among other issues as a result of lack of services which are not wholly the competency of local government. For example, municipalities in South Africa have no authority to provide housing in their provinces. The Provincial Department of Local Government and Housing has powers and functions over housing matters. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 entrenches the specific powers and functions applicable to all municipalities in the state. The same provision is made in chapter 5 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 as well as chapter 3 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. However, according to Cloete (1977:85) local authorities has over the long periods assumed functions which are of a wider nature – sometimes for historical reasons and at other times from sheer force of circumstances. A particular example provided was of the trends which may be culled from the history of local government in Great Britain. Thus police as a local government function in Britain is a heritage from the early Saxon period of British history when the responsibility of “Keeping the King’s peace” was placed upon the inhabitants of every locality (Cloete, 1977:85). The rapid growth of urban areas during the development of industrial revolution in Britain necessitated

certain local government or municipal services. The instances serve to show how both history and the exigencies of the moment have played part in the development of local services (Cloete, 1977:85). The introduction of developmental local government in South Africa has a different history. The same history will never be wished away in order to describe the nature of the system of local government to be in place.

In South African context, such history of the development of the need of local government functions and services is derived from the colonisation of South Africa commenced in 1652 marked by the arrival of Dutch settlers in the Cape colony (Craythorne, 1997:1). Dutch settlers brought with them a system of *landdrosten* and *heemraadaden* who jointly had judicial, police, civil and military functions (Craythorne, 1997:1). Other than the documented developments of South African local government system from its colonial past, it need to be stated that every urban area originated from a piece of farm land which set apart for closer settlement of people who were no longer farmers or who farmed on or cultivated pieces of land (Cloete and Thornhill, 2004:2). There are however both documented and undocumented development of settlements in South Africa which in all essence have culminated to the need of municipal services to local communities. For example the area covered in this study includes mostly rural villages which came about through forced removals during the 1960's. Its ancestral archeology includes early Kingdoms like Mupungubwe, Dzata and Thulamela. This study is not interested in tabulating the history of colonisation and apartheid developments which occurred during those times. The essence is that the current system of local government and administration in South Africa was developed to eradicate the injustices of the past (Cloete and Thornhill, 2004). The whole country is now having municipalities irrespective of being rural or urban. These in it make South African local government unique. Municipalities are now assigned with new roles and functions in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. The Constitution addresses the issue of municipal powers and functions in two categories (Bekink, 2005:215). It directly provides for powers and functions of municipalities while on the other hand it indirectly incorporates and mandates certain issues that are also of importance to municipal powers and functions. The constitutional powers and functions are executed within the context of administrative activities which Cloete (2004:85) categorised it into four groups, namely, generic administrative and deliver, auxiliary, instrumental, and functional, also referred to as line functions. Although Cloete's generic approach has been criticized in the wake of repositioning the state of Public Administration in South Africa, the approach still remain a

workable base for the practice of public administration. In practice the groups of functions are usually carried out simultaneously and are integrated to such an extent that it is often hardly impossible to see where one ends and the other begins (Cloete, 2004:85). In discussing powers and functions of local government it is important to draw a distinction between powers, functions and services. The distinction is made on the basis that the way those efforts are addressed as powers, functions or services are likely to bring a perception to the recipient in relation to complexities of defining the recipient as a citizen. Section 156 of the Constitution of 1996 provide for powers and functions of municipalities. Each municipality has executive authority in respect of, and has the right to administer local government matters listed in Part B of Schedule 4 and Part B of Schedule 5 of the Constitution; as well as any other matter assigned to it by national or provincial legislation. Matters listed in Part B of Schedule 4 and Part B of Schedule 5 of the Constitution is presented in table 4.2 below.

**Table 4.2:** Functional areas for local government

Schedule 4B	Schedule 5B
The following local government matters to the extent set out in section 155 (6) (a) and (7):	The following local government matters to the extent set out for provinces in section 155 (6) (a) and (7):
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Air pollution</b></li> <li>• <b>Building regulations</b></li> <li>• <b>Child care facilities</b></li> <li>• <b>Electricity and gas reticulation</b></li> <li>• <b>Firefighting services</b></li> <li>• <b>Local tourism</b></li> <li>• <b>Municipal airports</b></li> <li>• <b>Municipal planning</b></li> <li>• <b>Municipal health services</b></li> <li>• <b>Municipal public transport</b></li> <li>• <b>Municipal public works only in respect of the needs of municipalities in the discharge of their responsibilities to administer functions specifically assigned to them under the Constitution or any other law</b></li> <li>• <b>Pontoons, ferries, jetties, piers and harbours, excluding the regulation of international and national shipping and</b></li> <li>• <b>Storm-water management systems in built-up areas</b></li> <li>• <b>Trading regulations</b></li> <li>• <b>Water and sanitation services limited to potable water supply systems and domestic waste-water and sewage disposal systems</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Beaches and amusement facilities</li> <li>• Billboards and the display of advertisements in public places</li> <li>• Cemeteries, funeral parlours and crematoria</li> <li>• Cleansing</li> <li>• Control of public nuisances</li> <li>• Control of undertakings that sell liquor to the public</li> <li>• Facilities for the accommodation -are and burial of animals</li> <li>• Fencing and fences</li> <li>• Licensing of dogs</li> <li>• Licensing and control of undertakings that sell food to the public</li> <li>• Local amenities</li> <li>• Local sport facilities</li> <li>• Markets</li> <li>• Municipal abattoirs</li> <li>• Municipal parks and recreation</li> <li>• Municipal roads</li> <li>• Noise pollution</li> <li>• Pounds; Public places</li> <li>• Refuse removal, refuse dumps and solid waste disposal</li> <li>• Street trading, Street lighting, Traffic and Parking</li> </ul>

**Source:** Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996

The executive authority and the right to administer eventually locate local government in a position to perform administrative activities in relation those matters. In response to new agenda of concerns, municipal functions develop around model cities, human relations, housing, and social and economic development, for example, which goes beyond programmes associated with physical planning and local government structures (Powers *et al*, 1974:7). In responding to these new demands and changing concerns, local government operates within a complex set of realities, with form and structure built of laws which still often reflect the concerns and problems of society or community of a generation ago. In the ensuing paragraphs, the constitutional powers and functions of local government is presented from the local government powers perspective, local government functions perspective, as well as local government services perspective.

#### **4.4.1 Local government powers perspective**

To understand local government powers, it is important to conceptualize power from the point of everyday language. According to Hornby (2006:1136), the meaning of power ranges among others from control, ability, authority, influence and others. Control, ability, authority and influence are the main focus in relation to local government administration. Power in relation to control refers to the ability to control either people or a thing. According to Van Niekerk *et al* (2001:141) power is at the heart of a political system. If the group in a political system can control the behaviour of the other that group or party is exercising power. Power can also be defined as the ability to achieve some desired effect, regardless of what opposition may exist (Van Niekerk *et al*, 2001:141). It is the ability to make people act in a manner in which they would otherwise not. Legitimacy is one form of power. In the context of developmental local government however local government powers refer to the ability to influence in the context of public administration. Power, influence and authority have been discussed in chapter two under leading and learning as a characteristic of developmental local government. Many of the powers that local authorities have are laid down in various pieces of legislations and often regulated through various national departments. Those powers have limitations over certain functions or services. For example, all local municipalities within Vhembe District have no authority to provide water services. Whatever local government does is the result of the political process and ultimately is tested in that process (Powers *et al*, 1974:7). Political control is a fact of life, with practical effects on how the organisation performs its tasks as well as what tasks the organisation performs. According to Powers *et al* (1974:12) local governments are creatures of the state in a legal sense. They hold only powers granted

to them by their creators. In the South African context the creator is in terms of the Constitutional provision legislated per the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 Of 1998. Local government powers may be broad or narrow or somewhat in between, but basically the unit can do only those things and assume only those powers which have specifically been granted per relevant dispensation. Not all municipalities can do the same things since powers are assigned per various legislative provisions. Section 156 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 provide for powers and functions of municipalities on matters provided for in the respective schedule. Considering powers from a public administration perspective, various sources of power can be distinguished within organisations or institutions. Local government powers over matters identified in the constitution are not without terms of reference as to their limits and control within the broader system of government. For example local government powers over water and sanitation services is limited to portable water supply system and domestic waste – water and sewerage disposal systems.

#### **4.4.2 Local government functions perspective**

According to Gildenhuis (1997:4) it stands to reason to realise their goals and objectives, local governments must execute specific related functions. For many years the functions of local government were centered on the physical building of streets and roads, and the operating of water and sewerage facilities, and around efficiency in the management of these functions (Powers *et al*, 1974:7). As indicated in the previous paragraph, the Constitution 1996 provide for powers and functions without drawing a specific line as to the specific meaning. Functions are distinct from powers, as well as services. The functions of public institutions have traditionally been classified as line and staff functions (Gildenhuis, 1997:4). Cloete (2004:302) refers to those line functions as functional activities of public institutions. This classification has a military origin, the modern classification line and supporting functions (Gildenhuis, 1997:4). However, no system for the meaningful classification of the functional activities of public institutions has yet been devised (Cloete, 2004:302). In everyday language, a function refers to among others a special activity or purpose of a person or a thing to fulfill or perform (Hornby, 2006:605). In this context a thing here is local government. However, in the heading outlining the matters in Schedule 4 and Schedule 5, the Constitution provide for functional areas. The moment they are functional areas they become adjectival. Functional refers to practical and useful; or having a special purpose; or making it possible to somebody to do something or for something to happen (Hornby, 2006:605). It stands to confirm that in the functions perspective local government must among

others make it possible for something to happen. Municipalities as local governments must make it possible for functions as listed in the schedule to happen. The challenge is that other spheres of government have some part of authority over those functions at a certain level or stage of service delivery. It became clear where local municipalities prioritise water within their areas of jurisdiction, but the national Department of Water Affairs did not give them authority to render such function. Deriving from the powers perspective it entails that some degree of authority must be available for local government to be functional on those matters.

#### **4.4.2.1 Line functions**

Line functions are those functions which contribute directly to the delivery of services to the public (Gildenhuys, 1997:4). Fesler and Kettl (1991:33) refer to such functions as direct administration. Those functions are attributed to the primary existence of the institution or organisation. For example for the existence of an institution to render education within a society, direct offering of education becomes its line function. There is a direct relationship between the public and the staff delivering those services. According to Gildenhuys (1997:4) those functions are also directly related to three groups of objectives in local government, namely, control and protection functions; social welfare functions; and economic welfare functions. Each group of functions aims at realising its related objectives. Each group is discussed below:

##### **4.4.2.1.1 *Control and protection function***

Control and protection functions aim at maintaining order among households and individuals and protect them and their property against all kinds of threats (Gildenhuys, 1991:4). Some traditional control and protection functions are Building control, Civil protection, Fire protection, Flood water control, Land-use control, Pollution control, Security, and Policing and traffic control. The common denominator of these functions is the terms of control and protection (Gildenhuys, 1997:4). These functions either control or protect something or someone, and are directly related to the control and protection objectives. Ensuring the performance of this function at times necessitate the municipality to require assistance from other spheres of government.

#### **4.4.2.1.2      *Social welfare functions***

Social welfare functions aim at the social aspects and social development of the individual in the municipal community (Gildenhuis, 1997:5). They have to do with the personal physical and mental development of the individual. Some examples of traditional social welfare functions are ambulance services, burial and cremation, comprehensive environment programme, housing, personal health, and active and passive recreation. The common denominator here is the social welfare of the individual (Gildenhuis, 1997:5). All these functions are related to the social and mental or physical health aspects of the community. They are directly related to the social welfare objectives. Social welfare functions however overlap to a great extent in practice. For example health services remain the national competency as well as other social related services like social grants to the poor.

#### **4.4.2.1.3      *Economic welfare functions***

The purpose of the economic welfare functions is to create conditions and amenities for the development of the economic welfare and prosperity of the individual (Gildenhuis, 1997:5). They aim at providing and maintaining economic infrastructure services for economic development purposes. Some of the traditional economic welfare functions are abattoirs, electricity supply, fresh produce marketing, public transport, roads, streets and rainwater drainage, sewage disposal, solid waste removal, and water supply. The common denominator here is the economic welfare of the individual (Gildenhuis, 1997:5). Producers, manufacturers, traders and households cannot survive and prosper economically without economic infrastructure services. These functions are directly related to the economic welfare objectives.

#### **4.4.2.2 *Supporting functions***

Supporting functions are sometimes called staff functions, or corporate functions, or auxiliary functions (Gildenhuis, 1997:5). In the narrow view of understanding administration they are also referred to as administrative or office work and are mostly referred to as the administration of local government. According to Gildenhuis (1997:6), it does not matter which term is used as long as one understands that supporting functions contribute indirectly, through their support of the line functions, to the realisation of the goals and objectives of local government. According to Cloete (2004:285) for any public institution to perform the generic administrative functions, as well as the functional and the instrumental activities, a number of auxiliary functions have to be performed. These auxiliary activities

are performed to improve the effectiveness and efficiency with which the other functions are performed or to make the performance of the other functions possible. According to Gildenhuis (1997:6) typical supporting functions are auditing, economic development planning, financing, judicial, office and secretarial, human resources, resources supply, and town planning.

Cloete (2004:86) classify auxiliary functions to be including research, conducting public relations, providing legal services, with what he is referring to as notification functions as publishing official documents or publications as well as constructing and maintaining information systems like data collection, processing and retrieval. In addition to auxiliary functions, there are what Cloete (2004:86) refer to as instrumental functions. Instrumental functions are personal and impersonal. Personal instrumental functions include decision making, communicating in the form of writing, reading, and speaking. Impersonal instrumental functions refer to the provisioning of offices, workshops, laboratories, furniture, equipment, motor and other transport, uniforms and stationery. Auxiliary functions pose a challenge in developmental local government.

#### **4.4.3 Local government services**

For local government to execute their functions with a view to realising their goals and objectives, they are bound to supply and deliver municipal goods and services to their communities (Gildenhuis, 1997:7). The question is that are municipal goods and services different from functions? As it can be noted in various statutory provisions of South Africa local government dispensation the concept of services always come out without being conceptualised. People have long been aware that the nature of goods has a bearing upon human welfare. Aristotle, for example, observed: *"that which is common to the greatest number has the least care bestowed upon it"* (Ostroom and Ostroom). Definitions of services are numerous (Lewis, 1991:31). Services are not things (Shostack, 1987:34) and can be differentiated from goods. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 refers to sustainable services without defining the word services (Craythorne, 2003:158). Similarly, the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 devotes a chapter to municipal services without defining what these services are. The White Paper on Local Government (DPLG, 1998:158) refer to basic household infrastructure as essential municipal services such as water, sanitation, electricity, roads, storm-water drainage and street lighting, needed to sustain a healthy and safe standard of living. The Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 on the other hand refer to basic municipal services as a municipal service that is necessary to ensure an acceptable and reasonable quality of life and, if not provided, would endanger

public health or safety or the environment. The same definition adopted in the Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003. According to Craythorne (2003:158) this represents a break from the past when old provincial ordinances defined and limited the services of local government, often to a narrow degree. A service in everyday language refers to among others a system that provides something that the public needs, or organised by the government or private company (Hornby, 2006:1335). Lewis (1991:31) provide a working definition for a service as any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially tangible and does not result in the ownership of anything, it may or may not be tied to physical product. Lewis (1991:31) further provide examples of what she referred to as service sector organisations to be including organisations providing transport, communications, insurance, banking and finance, professional services, education, health care, leisure and entertainment, tourism, public administration and defense. Typically, services are intangible in the sense that they are consumed but one cannot possess them. For example in local government a community has street lights and storm-water drainage, but they never receive anything concrete. The municipality provides street lights as goods to ensure street lighting as a service. Communities will never finish the street lights, but they will continue receiving a service. For municipalities to render services, they must provide goods through proper functioning. Shostack (1987:34) referred to Judd (1964), Rathmell (1974), Shostack (1977), Bateson (1977), and Sasser, Olsen, and Wynckoff (1978) to be among the first to ponder the implications of services intangibility, service perishability, heterogeneity, and inseparability. Svensson (2004:278) cited Gronroos (2000) to refer to services as different from physical goods in several characteristics. Those characteristics are services are intangible and heterogeneous; the production of services, distribution, and consumption are simultaneous process; service is an activity and process; service is a core value created by buyer-seller interactions; consumers participate in the production of services; services cannot be kept in stock; and there is no transfer of ownership in service transactions. Municipal services are classified in terms of their characteristics (Gildenhuys, 1997:7). They are classified as collective services, particular services and quasi-collective services.

#### **4.4.3.1 Characteristics of collective goods and services**

Public goods and services have certain characteristics which distinguish them from other general goods and services. Those characteristics also determine the mode of delivering that good or service to

communities or the public at large. According to Gildenhuys (1997:7), the nature of collective services can be explained in terms of the following characteristics:

#### **4.4.3.1.1      *Non-apportionable services***

They are used collectively by the public because they cannot be divided into consumption units. Collective services therefore cannot be supplied per unit according to market demand and sold at a price per unit determined by the free interaction of supply and demand in the market place (Gildenhuys, 1997:7). The character of collective goods and services is the jointness of use or consumption (Ostroom and Ostroom). No jointness of consumption exists when consumption by one person precludes its use or consumption by another person. In that case consumption is completely sub-tractable.

#### **4.4.3.1.2      *Non-exclusive services***

This means that members of the public cannot, under normal circumstances, be excluded from utilising such services irrespective of whether they are paying for them or not where exclusion is infeasible, anyone can derive benefits from the good so long as nature or the efforts of others supply it (Ostroom and Ostroom). The air we breathe can be viewed as a good supplied by nature, so exclusion is difficult to attain. A view of a building whether seen as a "good" or a "bad" is supplied by the efforts of others and is not subject to exclusion in normal circumstances. Air, noise, and water pollution are "bads" that an individual cannot exclude or avoid except at a cost; conversely, an individual cannot be excluded from receiving a good when the pollution level is reduced.

#### **4.4.3.1.3      *Inexhaustible services***

In other words, collective services cannot become depleted in the process of utilisation. As long as they are properly maintained, they remain available for public.

#### **4.4.3.1.4      *Monopolistic services***

Local governments usually hold monopolies on such services. This means that they have no competition except between local governments within a single state. Where a good is characterized by jointness of consumption and non-exclusion, a user is generally unable to exercise an option and has little choice

whether or not to consume (Ostrom and Ostrom). The quality of a good or service is available under existing terms and conditions, and one's preference will not materially affect the quality of such a good. Furthermore, individuals may be forced to consume public goods which have a negative value for them. Streets, for example, may become congested thoroughfares restricting the convenience of local residents and shoppers who are required to cope with the traffic whether they like it or not.

#### ***4.4.3.1.5 Collective services can only be financed by taxation***

The nature of collective services is that they can only be financed through collective taxation because a price per unit cannot be charged. The taxpayers therefore do not receive a direct *quid pro quo* for their tax payments, in other words, they do not receive value equal to the amount of tax they pay. Good examples of collective municipal services are roads, streets, rainwater drainage, traffic control and parks (Gildenhuys, 1997:8). These services have to be financed from taxation, unless toll gates are installed for every street and park, which is practically impossible.

#### **4.4.3.2 Particular goods and services**

The characteristics of particular services are the exact opposite of those collective services (Gildenhuys, 1997:8). They are by nature particular goods and services are identifiable and can be characterised by the following:

##### ***4.4.3.2.1 Particular services are apportionable***

This means that their utilisation can be apportioned according to a quantifiable consumption unit. A price per unit consumed can be determined according to the cost of its supply. For example, household electricity is consumed in units. The more the consumption the more one will pay.

##### ***4.4.3.2.2 Particular services are exclusive***

This means that non-payers can be excluded from using them. If the household do not pay for electricity, they are simply disconnected from the supply. Exclusion has long been identified as a necessary characteristic for goods and services to be supplied under market conditions (Ostrom and Ostrom). Exclusion occurs when potential users can be denied goods or services unless they meet the terms and

conditions of the vendor. If both agree, goods or services are supplied at a price. A *quid pro quo* exchange occurs. The buyer acquires the good and the seller acquires the value specified.

#### **4.4.3.2.3 Particular services are exhaustible**

In other words, they disappear in the process of consumption and must be continuously replenished. The example provided for water and electricity serve well. Water is exhaustible therefore it needs to be accumulated for use. Electricity must be generated over the time for constant supply.

#### **4.4.3.2.4 No monopoly**

Unless a local government monopolizes a particular service by way of legislation, there is no monopoly for rendering it. This means that any private entrepreneur may render such services in competition with the local government. The normal situation is that local governments monopolize particular services by way of legislation, thereby converting them into public monopolies. For example in South Africa electricity generation is regulated. No private supplier is authorised to generate electricity except government entities.

Good examples of particular services are water and electricity supply services, which are usually financed by consumer tariffs. Consumer tariffs represent a price per unit consumed and are based on the cost per unit supplied. This means that consumers receive a direct *quid pro quo*- they receive value equal to the money they pay.

#### **4.4.3.3 Quasi-collective services**

Quasi-collective services are municipal services characteristic of both collective and particular services (Gildenhuys, 1997:8). In some instances they can just as well be called “quasi-particular” or “subsidized particular services”, because consumers or users, for various political reasons, are subsidized fully or in part through taxation. Local governments render quasi-collective services either because of the impact of the positive externalities generated to the advantage of the whole community or the impact of negative externalities generated to the detriment of the whole community. For these reasons these services should either be regulated or delivered by local government.

The following are good examples of quasi-collective services:

- Fire protection services, which are particular services with both negative and positive spillover effects. If a building catches fire and the fire is not extinguished, the fire may spread to the surrounding buildings, thereby threatening all buildings and the whole community's property. This is the negative spillover effect. If the fire is extinguished, all other properties are protected from catching fire. This is the positive spillover effect.
- Preventive health services are another example of particular services which are rendered to individuals and for which price per unit can be determined, but which may, because of positive and negative spillovers, be regarded as quasi-collective services. If everybody is inoculated against contagious diseases, the community is protected against the spread of the diseases. This is the positive spillover effect. If no inoculation takes place, everybody is threatened by the possibility of infection. This negative spillover effect. The sources for financing the costs of quasi-collective services are taxation to cover the fixed capital and fixed maintenance costs for simply being available when needed, and user charges to cover the direct operational costs (Gildenhuys, 1997:9).

#### **4.4.4 Municipal Service Delivery**

On the background of understanding powers and functions of local government as distinct from services, it is important to conceptualise municipal service delivery. Local governments exercise powers to execute functions as provided for in various legislations. In exercising those powers and functions, local governments are rendering municipal services. Such rendering of municipal services has become known as municipal service delivery. Municipal service delivery need to be understood as a fusion of enforcing or applying of power or authority by municipalities over functions they are supposed to perform, in that process services are rendered. Before service delivery is visible, a range of activities are performed such as the delivery of actual goods in the form of infra-structure. For example to provide for health services, clinics need to be built.

#### **4.5 TRADITIONAL LEADERSHIP**

In many parts of the world, and especially in post-colonial states, customary institutions remain important (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:2). The tendency in the past was to see 'traditional' and 'modern' forms of social organisation as distinctly separate and 'development' as the transition from the former to the latter. The South African Constitution of 1996 recognises the institution, status and role of traditional

leadership, according to customary law (Gildenhuis and Knipe, 2000:271). The notion of institutions within complexity has been discussed before. The Constitution allows tribal governments – referred to as traditional authorities that observe systems of customary law to function subject to any applicable legislation and customs. According to LeMay (2006:140) traditional authority refers to authority that rests on a belief in the sacredness of immemorial traditions; obligations of personal loyalty to chiefs selected in the traditional way. Section 211 and 212 of the Constitution of 1996 acknowledge the role of traditional leadership as an institution in local government. To this end the South African government promulgated Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act 41 of 2003 to provide among others the recognition of traditional communities; to provide for the establishment and recognition of traditional councils; to provide a statutory framework for leadership positions within the institution of traditional leadership and provide for houses of traditional leadership.

#### **4.5.1 Brief historical overview of Traditional Leadership in South Africa**

According to Schapera (1967:4) at the time when they first met with the Europeans, the Bantu were divided into a very large number of small, separate tribes with their cultural institutions whole fundamentally the same. Every tribe had its own distinctive name, occupied its own territory, and lived independently under its own chief (Schapera, 1967:5). Those tribes have survived over the years. Traditional leadership institutions or indigenous institutions have adapted to colonial systems of governance in the past and have engaged by a variety of states over many years in a range of ways (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:2). The adaptation of the institution of traditional leadership and its resilience over the years confirms its complexity. It is obvious also in South Africa per protracted negotiations that preceded the promulgation of the Traditional Leadership and Governance Act 41 of 2003. According to Beall and Ngonyama (2009:2) state and society are not always hermetically sealed from one another and in many contexts indigenous institutions co-exist or compete with other forms of social and political organisation. This has given rise to the kind of institutional multiplicity that configures the political order that characterises many post-colonial states today (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:2). In the ensuing paragraphs traditional leadership is presented from the perspective of chieftainship and headman-ship relating to local government in the Vhembe District municipality area. The conundrum of maintaining the system will be elaborated upon. The historical basis forms a premise for the discussion.

#### **4.5.2 Traditional Chieftainship**

In the early years of South Africa's transition chieftaincy was hotly debated and remains a matter of contention (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:3). Popular opinion divided into two broad view points: the first was that chieftaincy operates as a brake on South Africa's hard won democracy and on process of democratic consolidation. The second was that traditional authority is integral to African culture and constitutes a different, even a unique form of democracy. The conceptual conundrum in describing democracy has been presented before in this study. It is still questionable if it not democratic enough for the people of South Africa to retain their traditional leadership accustomed to their cultures. Democracy tends to take away their entrenched cultural traditions which define them. In between the two broad views are the pragmatists who believe that chieftaincy should be accommodated because it is part of the institutional fabric of the country (Beall and Ngonyama, 2009:3). This study contend that the pragmatist view have influenced the promulgation of the South African Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act 41 of 2003. The South African Traditional Leadership and Governance Act 41 of 2003 provide for Traditional Leader and Senior Traditional Leader instead of chiefs or chieftaincy. In terms of the same Act senior traditional leader means a traditional leader of a specific traditional community who exercises authority over a number of headmen or headwoman in accordance with customary law, or within whose area of jurisdiction a number of headmen or headwomen exercise authority. The conceptualisation of community in traditional leadership presents a dimension as discussed before. The definition of senior traditional leader in terms of legislation tally to what traditionally in the Vhembe District municipality area referred as the chief or tribal chief. Customary tribal chieftainship is hereditary, although some cases do exist where chieftainship was obtained unlawfully or by violent means (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000:273). Rank in the "Bantu" social system was confined to the chief and members of his family, and was therefore dependent entirely upon birth (Schapera, 1967:22). The person having the right to succession succeeds as a chief. Tribal chieftainship has a form of structural arrangement which in some cases differ from tribe to tribe. A prototype example can be given where in Vhembe District, Limpopo Province, the Vha-Venda Tribe have a different tribal structural arrangement to that of Va-Tsonga Tribe. The Vha-Venda Tribe has chiefs and paramount chiefs also referred to as kings. The Va-Tsonga Tribe has chiefs as well as headmen or '*indunas*'.

#### **4.5.2.1 Traditional Functions and duties of the Senior Traditional Leader (Chief)**

Schapera (1962) cited in Gildenhuis and Knipe (2000:274) the chief in terms of customary law has considerable number of duties which among others include serving the interests of his subjects, and keep himself abreast of the affairs of the tribe; personally consider the grievances, problems and appeals of the people of his tribe, notwithstanding their rank, and adjudicate on them; serve as the chief executive officer of the tribal government in that nothing of importance can be done without his consent; ensure that the headmen are managing the local divisions of the tribe effectively and efficiently; controls and distributes the use of tribal land, of which he is regarded as the owner – holding it in trust of the tribe; serves as the head of the tribe's army and arranges military expeditions; serve as the tribe's spokesperson in the case of external relations with other tribes and external organisations, institutions and authorities; maintain law and order in that he is the chief judge whose judgment is final. As judge, he has to protect the rights of the people of his tribe, determine whether justice is being done to the injured or oppressed, and punish offenders. The chief also has legislative authority. He may initiate legislation and, after consultation with his advisors and discussion at an open meeting of the tribe, he may promulgate the legislation.

In summary, it may be stated that the chief in terms of customary law has legislative, executive and judicial powers, and that there is no question of separation of powers as applied in Western democratic model (Gildenhuis and Knipe, 2000:275). In real practice most traditional leaders are still performing these functions as part of their traditional customs. For example traditional leaders in Vhembe district still have a “*khoro*” sitting to deal with matters of their communities. Some of the issues they deal with are classified as powers and functions of local government in terms of the constitution. The Njakanjaka Traditional Community under “*nduna*” or headman Rikhotso still meet on fortnight basis. Among matters in their agenda is consideration of matters ranging from the administration of the cemeteries, the supply of water, provision of electricity, education related issues, the condition of streets, consideration for the price of home-made beer, to solving domestic disputes. The traditional duties cut across the spheres of government.

#### **4.5.2.2 Functions and duties of Traditional Councils as provided for in the Traditional Leadership and Governance Act**

The new dispensation in South Africa has provided for the legislation in traditional leadership. Comparing the nature of traditional leadership in terms of its origins as outlined before, the provisions of the new legislation provide for the different form of traditional leadership. Such comparison can be eluded through the presentation of the functions of traditional councils as provided for in the Traditional Leadership and Governance Act 41 of 2003. In terms of the Traditional Leadership and Governance Act 41 of 2003, the traditional council is responsible for administering the affairs of the traditional community in accordance with customs and tradition; assisting, supporting and guiding traditional leaders in the performance of their functions; supporting municipalities in the identification of community needs; facilitating the involvement of the traditional community in the development or amendment of the integrated development plan of a municipality in whose area that community resides; recommending, after consultation with the relevant local and provincial houses of traditional leaders, appropriate interventions to government that will contribute to development and service delivery within the area of jurisdiction of the traditional council; participating in the development of policy and legislation at local level; participating in development programmes of municipalities and of the provincial and national spheres of government; promoting the ideals of co-operative governance, integrated development planning, sustainable development and service delivery; promoting indigenous knowledge systems for sustainable development and alerting any relevant municipality to any hazard or calamity that threatens the area of jurisdiction of the traditional council in question, or the well-being of people living in such area of jurisdiction, and contributing to disaster management in general; and performing the functions conferred by customary law, customs and statutory and applicable provincial legislation must regulate the performance of functions bylaw consistent with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The traditional council is required to keep proper records; have its financial statements audited; disclose the receipt of gifts; and adhere to the code of conduct. It also required co-operating with any relevant ward committee established in terms of section 73 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. It must meet at least once a year with its traditional community to give account of the activities and finances of the traditional council and levies received by the traditional council. The activities of the traditional council must be apolitical. It must not be aligned with any political party.

### 4.5.3 Headman (Induna)

Apart from the central authority, consisting of the chief, chieftains, headman, *Indunas*, tribal council and general tribal meetings, each tribe has a system of local governance (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000:277). The tribal area is divided into local areas or units which vary in size and importance, each under the control of an acknowledged authority. The phenomenon is till the same within municipalities in Vhembe District Municipality. For example, Bungeni Tribal Authority within Makhado Local Municipality comprises of Bungeni Shikhulu area or village under headman or “*nduna*” Mavundza, Wayeni area or village under “*nduna*” Malele, Shitaci area or village under “*nduna*” Shirindza, Njakanjaka village under “*nduna*” Rikhotso, Mutsetweni village under “*nduna*” Makhuvele, and Mahatlani village under “*nduna*” Rikhotso. The South African Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act 41 of 2003 defines a headman or headwoman as a traditional leader who is under the authority of, or exercises authority within the area of jurisdiction of, a senior traditional leader in accordance with customary law, and is recognised in terms of legislation. In the Vhembe District those local areas are villages which vary in size and population. The smallest effective local political unit is the sub-district or ward under the control of the headman or the ‘*induna*’. The headman-ship is hereditary and in some case is the member of the chieftainship family. The Headman or headwoman, on behalf of the chief, is responsible for maintenance of law and order and sound government in his village. He or she must help the inhabitants of the village solve their problems and represent them in tribal matters. Those *indunas* still hold meetings with their communities in traditional way. That is assembling under the designated tree and deal with community related issues. It is outlined in chapter 7 of this study as to the manner such meetings forms part of the methodology for data collection. Annexure “G” and “H” depict the picture of how such meetings takes place in the Njakanjaka Village as of November 2010 where the researcher was also part of the same meeting. Basically that is the traditional “*Khoro*” of the Njakanjaka Traditional Village in Makhado Local Municipality

## 4.6 DEVELOPMENTAL DUTIES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Section 153 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 provides for the developmental duties of the municipalities. It state that each municipality must structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning process to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community; and participate in national and provincial development programmes. The South African Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000

provide among others, the development of culture of community participation, integrated municipal planning and establishment of performance management system. The preamble of Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provides that the new system of local government requires an efficient, effective and transparent local public administration that conforms to constitutional principles. Local government municipal systems consist of a number of components or agents that must interact with each other according to the provisions of the relevant legislation to realise objectives of local government. Anderson *et al* (2005:673) cited Cilliers, McDaniel and Driebe and refer to people, human processes, administrative processes and computer systems as examples of agents in relation to complexity science (see also Cilliers, 1998; Stacey, 1996, Kiel, 1994, Morcol, 2003; Haynes; 2003; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). Local government municipal systems are implemented per relevant directives provided by the National Department of Provincial and Local Government through a variety of agents. A system is by itself a set of dependent or interconnected things while an agent may be a person, a molecule in biology, a species, or an organisation among many others (Zimmerman *et al*, 2009: 05). Regulations promulgated are applied throughout the diverse municipalities in South Africa. Public Administrators in South African Local Government are striving towards proper implementation of local government municipal systems provided for by the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. Such implementation takes modern form of theoretical approach or what Zimmerman and others (2009) refer to as traditional science, which in most cases did not yield anticipated results (see also Stacey, 1996; Kiel, 1994; Cilliers, 1998; Van Uden *et al*, 2001; Farmer, 1995). Complexity theory serve as a premise for attempting to understand challenges for the implementation of local government municipal systems in South Africa with specific reference to municipalities found within Vhembe District Municipality area, Limpopo Province, South Africa. The presentation of Local Government municipal systems below will be from the complexity theory point of view in that those critical aspects within developmental local government that cannot be reduced to uniform analysis or not adhere to a reductionist approach will be exposed.

#### **4.6.1 INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

According to Cryathorne (2003:149) an Integrated Development Plan means a plan aimed at the integrated development and management of the area of jurisdiction of the municipality concerned in terms of its powers and duties, and which has been compiled having regard to the general principles contained in chapter one of the Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995, and where applicable, having

regard to the objective contemplated in chapter four of the Act. Van der Walt and others (2007:95) cited the South African Intergovernmental Forum (2001) which refers to Integrated Development Planning (IDP) as a participatory planning process aimed at integrating sectoral strategies, in order to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and across the population, in a manner that promotes sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and marginalised. The South African Department of Provincial and Local Government (2001) defines integrated development planning as a process through which municipalities prepares a strategic development plan for five year period (Rauch, 2001:4). The Development Bank of Southern Africa and the National Business Initiative (2000) define integrated development planning as a management tool that enables municipalities to take a broad strategic view of their development requirements and address all key issues in holistic IDP (Van der Walt et al, 2007:95). The Forum for Effective Planning and Development (FEPD) as cited in Rauch (2002:9) defined integrated planning as participatory planning process aimed at integrating sectoral strategies, in order to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographic areas and across the population in a manner that promotes sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and the marginalised. The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 defines an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as a plan envisaged in Section 25 of the same legislation. Section 25 of the same legislation provide for an IDP as the municipality's single, inclusive and strategic plan for the development of the municipality which links, integrates and co-ordinates plans and takes into account proposals for the development of the municipality; aligns the resources and capacity of the municipality with the implementation of the plan; forms the policy framework and general basis on which annual budget must be based; complied with the provision of chapter 5 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000; is compatible with national and provincial development plans and planning requirements binding on the municipality in terms of legislation. Being defined from various angles, the IDP itself constitutes a plan of which such plan is for development and it must be integrated. The conundrum of understanding development has been discussed before. Within any local area there are many different agencies that contribute to development (Bekink, 2006:71). These usually include various national and provincial government institutions, parastatals, community organisations and private institutions. It is the responsibility of developmental local government to provide vision, leadership and strong co-ordination between these different role players and an important method of ensuring better co-ordination and commitment is through the process of Integrated Development Planning (Beskink, 2006:71).The Local

Government Municipal System Act 32 of 2000 specifies what must be reflected in the IDP, but does not prescribe the content (Cryathorne, 2003:151). It is left to individual municipalities to come out with content. These necessitate the need for locally determined content which conceptually lands itself in the complex postmodern ontology.

#### **4.6.1.1 Characteristics of Integrated Development Planning**

Through the process of integrated development planning a municipality has to identify the needs of the community, prioritise projects and programmes as a five-year strategic plan for service delivery (Asmah-Andoh, 2009: 107). The integrated development planning processes provide additional responsibilities and opportunity for municipalities to undertake activities differently for obtaining more effective and efficient outcomes. Van der Walt and others (2007:99) outlined the following characteristics of integrated development planning process which correlate with the key principles of a Local Agenda 21 adopted in the 1992 Earth Summit:

##### **4.6.1.1.1 Integration**

According to Hornby (2006:775) integrated means a situation in which many different parts are closely connected and work successfully together. Integration on the other hand refers to the act or process of combining two or more things so that they work together (Hornby, 2006:776). In the context of development, development practitioners should follow an integrated approach to stay true to the dictum that development is about people (Davids *et al*, 2005:26). The integrated approach is based on an understanding that the nature and meaning of the whole is more and other than those of its constituent parts. That in it reflects the role of interaction among constituents parts. Through interaction the constituents parts become boundary-less and hierarchies become blurred to fit in rational analysis (Cilliers, 2000; Van Uden *et al*, 2001; Zimmerman *et al*, 2009). Those interactions are so complex and tend to define the relationship as well as the IDP itself. The constituent parts have its dimensions with various contextual elements. According to Ravetz (2000), the integrated development planning process takes the form of various dimensions which are horizontal and sectoral integration, environmental integration, vertical integration, time integration, resource integration, and institutional integration (Van der Walt, 2007:99). Horizontal and sectoral integration includes co-ordination of land use and spatial development with sectors such as among others housing, education, transport, and health. The challenge

of horizontal and sectoral integration is the lack of clearly defined boundaries for purposes of integration (Cilliers, 2000). Environmental integration includes co-ordination of policies and programs within an environmental framework. Being a complex system the IDP co-evolves with the environment. That co-evolution brings other complex system in place. The environment is within the broader system of ecology which it is practically impossible to grasp. Ecological environment refers to the relationship between human beings and thus organisations and their air, soil and water in the physical environment (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2007: 110). Vertical integration is the integration of the national, provincial, district and local government policies and programs, and, on the municipal level, the integration of attempts by individuals, residents, non-governmental organisations, the private sector and other stake holders to formulate objectives and to follow a plan of action to achieve the objectives of the community and of the country as a whole. Time integration is the consideration of long term dynamic trends, pressures, objectives and targets, with a strategic horizon of at least 25 years. Resource integration is the co-ordination with funding sources programmes and projects in order to fulfill planning objectives resources take different forms ranging from material human resources to financial resources. Integrating resources from various ranges might bear serious obstacle within the IDP. Institutional integration involves the establishment of partnerships and agencies with the capacity for implementation. Various institutions exist within a society. Such institutions evolve and take different forms within a society. In search for integration in South Africa with its heritage of inequitable growth and development, and its reality of countless demands and limited resources, is probably more complex and pronounced than anywhere in the world (Coetzee *et al*, 2001:11). South Africa can hardly afford expensive development mistakes. Instead it needs to achieve integration through integrated development planning with a view to harness the country's scarce resources in a coherent and purposeful manner.

#### **4.6.1.1.2 Participatory**

According to Rauch (2002), the integrated development planning approach is based on the principle of inclusive and representative consultation and/or the participation of all residents, communities and stake-holders within a municipality, as well as representatives from other spheres of government, sector specialists and other resource persons (Van der Walt, 2007:100). There is considerable debate on what may constitute participatory. Participation must be institutionalised. More about participation is outlined under community participation as a system.

#### **4.6.1.1.3 Strategic**

Although strategic planning systems serve several different purposes, a principal purpose is to limit search activities (Simons, 1995:48; Senge, 1990). Strategic planning is often used to stipulate what search activities are not acceptable and should not be pursued. According to LeMay (2006:193) strategic planning in itself refers to a set of processes used by an organisation to assess a strategic situation and develop a strategy for the future; with a strategy being an overall conduct of a major enterprise or an organisation to achieve long-term goals or, a pattern found in a series of organisational decisions. According to Rauch (2002), a strategic approach includes prioritizing a few crucial issues rather than dealing in a comprehensive manner with all issues; focusing analysis rather than wasting resources collecting useless information; addressing root causes of problems, rather than only symptoms; taking given resources and the relevant context into consideration; and identifying and analysing alternative strategic options (Van der Walt, 2007:100). Zimmerman and others (2009: 04) pose various questions in relation to strategic planning that has to take place within a complex situation like developmental local government. Those questions are: What does strategic planning mean in highly turbulent times? How do creativity and potential get released? How do they get trapped? Traditional management theories have focused on the predictable and controllable dimensions of management. Although these dimensions are critical in organizations, they provide only a partial explanation of the reality of organizations; or what Senge (1990) refer to as viewing oneself through pieces of a broken mirror. Complexity science invites public administration discourse to examine the unpredictable, disorderly and unstable aspects of organisations. Complexity complements the traditional understanding of organizations to provide them with a more complete picture.

#### **4.6.1.1.4 Implementation-oriented**

Rauch (2002) identified the following requirements of an implementation-oriented process the project proposals have to be concrete and specific with regard to quantitative targets, quality, timing, costs and responsible implementations agencies; integrated development planning must comply with the financial resource framework; a link between the planning and budgeting process must be ensured; and consensus among all role players and stake-holders on planned projects must be reached to avoid delays in implementation (Van der Walt, 2007:100-101).

#### **4.6.1.2 Contents of the Integrated Development Planning**

Section 26 of the South African Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provides that Integrated Development Plans (IDP) must reflect certain contents. Such aspects are further regulated per Municipal Planning and Performance Regulation of 2001 promulgated in terms of section 120 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, read together with section 37, 43, and 49 of the same legislation. The Regulation refines the aspects to fine details which must be reflected in each local government or municipality's IDP. The aspects are municipal vision, assessment of the existing level of development, development priorities, development strategies, spatial framework, and a financial plan.

##### **4.6.1.2.1 *Municipal Vision***

It must reflect the municipal council's vision for the long term development of the municipality with special emphasis on the municipality's most critical development and transformation needs. The vision will emanate from the municipality's strategic plan. The strategic plan comes about through the strategic management process. A vision statement is often considered to be the first step in the strategy formulation and strategic management process (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2007: 63). The vision statement answers the question what the municipality does want to become? In terms of the Municipal Planning and Performance Regulation of 2001 the municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) must at least identify the institutional framework, which must include an organogram, required for the implementation of the integrated development plan; and addressing the municipality's internal transformation needs, as informed by the strategies and programmes set out; any investment initiatives in the municipality; any development initiatives in the municipality, including infrastructure, physical, social, economic and institutional development; all known projects, plans and programs to be implemented within the municipality by any organ of state; and the key performance indicators set by the municipality. These entail processes that must be fused through an intricate public administration process ranging from policy making to control and management. The impossibility of providing a meaningful vision which can be sustained at an organisational level has dominated the literature of scholars which among others include Senge (1990), Stacey (1996), and Kiel (1992). For municipalities to develop a vision that will reflect the greater established diversity of its community can be an ideal rather than a reality to be reduced into practice. Of course rational public administration processes do lay a foundation of having that ideal situation which impartially gives shape to IDP.

#### **4.6.1.2.2      *Assessment of the existing level of development***

It must reflect on the assessment of the existing level of development in the municipality, which must include an identification of communities which do not have access to basic municipal services. Reflection of the existing level of development in the municipality necessitates the need for baseline information of development within the municipality. As discussed before that development takes different forms. Development may be contextualised in different ways depending on the matter at stake. Identification of communities' also present dilemma as to the communities varies. To provide for these aspect the Municipal Planning and Performance Regulation of 2001 provide that the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) may have attached to it maps, statistics and other appropriate documents; or refer to maps, statistics and other appropriate documents that are not attached, provided they are open for public inspection at the Offices of the municipality in question. This will reflect on the existing level of development of the municipality. From the basis of modern rational ontology or scientific rationale, it is presumed that there is a possibility of computing all the required information and statistics that will accurately inform this basis. For example municipalities in South Africa still rely on Statistics South Africa for baseline information which is available within a time space of approximately five years. The Local Government Municipal Demarcation Board to determine the capacity of district and local municipalities in 2001 within the Limpopo Province relied on the 1996 statistics of Statistics South Africa (Municipal Demarcation Board, 2001). The initial IDPs for municipalities established during the year 2000 relied mainly on the census of 1996 and the 2001 community survey by Statistics South Africa. Such census provided a baseline until another census is due on the next five to six years that follows. This is irrespective of time space between the time of establishing municipalities and the time the census was conducted.

#### **4.6.1.2.3      *Development priorities***

It must reflect the council's development priorities and objectives for its elected term, including local economic development aims and its internal transformation needs. Development priorities refer to those aspects the municipality deems important to ensure development. Economic developments aspects are covered in the municipality's Local Economic Development Plan (LED) which is another approach to developmental local government.

#### **4.6.1.2.4      *Development strategies***

It must reflect the council's development's strategies which must be aligned with any national or provincial sectoral plans and planning requirements binding on the municipality in terms of legislation. A strategy is an effort or deliberate action that an organisation implements to outperform its rivals (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2007: 2). The new developmental local government comprises of municipalities found within the whole country. National and provincial sphere of government has to deliver all services they have authority within the boundaries of municipalities. The IDP must be aligned with all sectoral plans and planning requirements of those spheres of government. The alignment need to be entrenched with the development priorities and objectives, which strategy may in relation to finances address the revenue raising strategies; asset management strategies; financial management strategies; capital financing strategies; operational financing strategies; and strategies that would enhance cost-effectiveness.

#### **4.6.1.2.5      *Spatial development framework***

It must reflect a spatial development framework which must include the provision of basic guidelines for land use management system for the municipality and council's operational strategies and applicable disaster plans. Each municipality is required to develop spatial development plan which forms part of the IDP. Disaster management is also provided for through different legislation. In terms of the Local Government Municipal Planning and Performance Regulation of 2001 a spatial development framework reflected in a municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) must give effect to the principles contained in Chapter 1 of the Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995. It must set out objectives that reflect the desired spatial form of the municipality and contain strategies and policies regarding the manner in which to achieve the objectives which strategies and policies must indicate desired patterns of land use within the municipality; address the spatial reconstruction of the municipality; and provide strategic guidance in respect of the location and nature of development within the municipality; set out basic guidelines for a land use management system in the municipality; set out a capital investment framework for the municipality's development programs; contain a strategic assessment of the environmental impact of the spatial development framework; identify programs and projects for the development of land within the municipality; be aligned with the spatial development frameworks reflected in the IDP's of neighbouring municipalities; and provide a visual representation of the desired spatial form of the municipality. Such representation must indicate where public and private land

development and infrastructure investment should take place; indicate desired or undesired utilisation of space in a particular area; may delineate the urban edge; must identify areas where strategic intervention is required; and must indicate areas where priority spending is required.

#### **4.6.1.2.6 *Financial plan***

It must reflect a financial plan which must include a budget projection for at least the next three years and key performance indicators and performance targets determined in terms of the municipality's performance management system. The Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 has been enacted to provide for the regulation of financial management within municipalities. In terms of Local Government Municipal Planning and Performance Regulations of 2001 a financial plan reflected in a municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) must at least include the budget projection required by section 26(h) of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. In essence the municipality's IDP must inform the municipality's annual budget that must be based on the development priorities and objectives referred to in section 26(c) of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 and the performance targets set by the municipality; and be used to prepare action plans for the implementation of strategies identified by the municipality. The financial plan must indicate the financial resources that are available for capital project developments and operational expenditure. The financial plan must include a financial strategy that defines sound financial management and expenditure control as well as ways and means of increasing revenues and external funding for the municipality.

#### **4.6.1.3 Framework for Integrated Development Planning**

The framework for the process for planning, drafting, adopting and review of integrated development plans must be adopted at the level of a district area. According to the provisions of Section 27(1) of the South African Local Government Municipal systems Act 32 of 2000, each district municipality must within a prescribed period after the start of its elected term and after following a consultative process with the local municipalities within its area adopt a framework for integrated development planning in the area as a whole. The framework will be binding for the district municipality and all local municipalities within the area. In the context of this study it means that the Vhembe District municipality must within the prescribed period after its elected term and following a consultative process adopt a framework for integrated development planning for the local municipalities within its

area of jurisdiction. The local municipalities are Mutale Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality, Makhado Local Municipality, and Thulamela Local Municipality. The framework must at least identify the plans and planning requirement binding in terms of national and provincial legislation on the district municipality and the local municipalities or on any specific municipality. It must be able to identify matters to be included in the integrated development plans of the district municipality and the local municipalities which need alignment as well as to specify the principles to be applied and co-ordinate the approach to be adopted in respect of those matters. Procedures for consultation between the district municipality and local municipalities during the process of drafting their respective integrated plans must be determined as well as the provisions on effecting changes to the framework. The Local Government Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulation of 2001 provide that in the event of district municipality that considers an amendment to its IDP; such district municipality must consult with all the local municipalities in the area of the district municipality on the proposed amendment; and take all comments submitted to it by the local municipalities in that area into account before it takes a final decision on the proposed amendment. Such is also applicable to a local municipality that considers an amendment to its IDP in that it must consult the district municipality in whose area it falls on the proposed amendment; and take all comments submitted to it by the district municipality into account before it takes a final decision on the proposed amendment.

#### **4.6.2 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION**

In terms of Chapter four (4) of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, each municipality must develop a community participation system. Such community participation system must be developed for the purpose of encouraging and creating conditions for the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality which include the preparation, implementation and review of the integrated development plan; the establishment, implementation and review of the performance management system; the monitoring and review of municipal performance including the outcomes and impact of such performance; the preparation of the budget; and dealing with strategic decisions relating to the provisions of municipal services. In providing for the basic values and principles governing public administration, section 195(1)(e) of the Constitution of the Republic of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, provide for among other principles that the public must be encouraged to participate in policy making. This in itself is a provision for public participation. At the same breath the Constitution of 1996 provide for the status of local government to the effect that each municipality have the right of

governing its community. Section 152(1) (e) provide that local governments are to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in matters of local government. According to the White Paper on Local Government (DPLG, 1998:32), building local democracy is a central role of local government, and municipalities should develop strategies and mechanisms, including, but not limited to, participative planning, to continuously engage with citizens, business and community groups. The Constitution provides for public participation as a principle of public administration. When providing for local government the same Constitution refers to community participation. It is imperative to elaborate on public participation as distinct from community participation.

#### **4.6.2.1 Community identification**

The constitutional establishment of local government in South Africa requires municipalities to involve communities in matters of local government. That in itself necessitates the need for public participation in local government. The existence of state requirements for local government is a sign that the state takes participation seriously – seriously enough not to leave it to take a chance (Berner and Smith, 2004:1141). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 provide for community in terms of geographical location. That in itself puts developmental local government in a dilemma as within the same municipality there can be various communities stretches beyond the geographical demarcation. It is, of course, not only local government Commissions who have found the concept of community to be elusive. Plant (1974, 1978) points to the essentially evaluative nature of the word – Hillary (1955) listed 94 definitions, whose only common denominator was that they all dealt with people. Crow and Allen (1994) report Halsey in 1974 as stating that community had “so many meanings as to be meaningless”. Plant (1978) thus draws on Bryce Gallis’ criteria to argue that community is an “essentially contested” concept, used in both an evaluative and a descriptive way, and incapable of being detached from normative understandings, stating: when the term is used in substantive debates about social and public policy it is never used in neutral fashion. There is always going to be some normative and ideological engagement (Plant, 1978: 106).Community thus “tends to be a God word” (Bell and Newby, 1971: 16), and has at times escaped intellectual rigour, being perceived either as a lost ideal past or as a future to be aspired to. Thus below the surface of many community studies lurk value judgements of varying degrees of explicitness about what constitutes the good life (Bell and Newby, 1971: 16). Participation is a way of receiving information about issues, needs and attitudes and provides affected communities the opportunity to express their views before policy decisions are taken. Municipalities require active

participation by citizens at four levels, namely, as voters, as citizens, as consumers, as well as organised partners (DPLG, 1998:33). Section 16(1) of the South African Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 requires each municipality to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance. Community participation must also contribute to building the capacity of the local community to participate in the affairs of the municipality and councilors and to foster community participation. Resources and funds within the annual budget must be set aside for the purpose of public participation.

#### **4.6.2.2 Public participation in context**

Public participation lies at the heart of democracy (Masango, 2002:52). Public participation is a powerful tool; it informs and educates citizens, and therefore enhances the democratization process in South Africa (Van der Walddt, 2004:117). According to Melo and Baiocchi (2006:587) recent years have seen much practical and academic interest in novel forms of decision-making in the management of cities, such as participatory mechanisms and governance by networks. Driven much by dissatisfaction with standard models of representation as by the growing relevance of regions and cities as *loci* of innovation, themes like ‘local participation’ have become *de rigueur* when discussing urban affairs. A citizen’s perception of active democracy may be grounded in the idea that he or she has the opportunity to effectively participate, but for many, participation stops after ballots have been cast (Berner and Smith, 2004:141). Many citizens, administrators, and politicians are interested in increasing public participation in public decisions (King *et al*, 1998:317). What constitutes public participation has been at the center of the literature on civil society in South Africa (Smith and Vawda, 2003:31). According to Masango (2002:53) communities, citizens and workers can be identified on the basis of specific characteristics; consequently, in community, citizen and workers’ participation, participants can be easily identified, since their identity does not vary in accordance with the activity at stake. In public participation, however, the public cannot be identified on the basis of specific and fixed characteristics, since it varies according to the issue requiring participation. This is due to the fact that the public as an entity continually reconstitutes itself, based on the specific circumstances (Masango, 2002:53). It is discussed in chapter six of this study as to how ‘community’ or ‘stakeholder’ varies. In literature, public participation is sometimes referred to as community participation, stake-holder participation etc. Public participation in terms of its meaning can also be contrasted with a related and widely used term – *community participation*. Community participation is normally used in the context of local government

affairs, as opposed to issues of national public interest (Moeti and Chelechele, 2008). In other scholastic debates public participation is covered as deliberative democracy. Public participation is one of the basic principles governing public administration in South Africa. According to Davids and others (2005:113) public participation is an elusive concept which acts as an umbrella term for a new style of development planning intervention. Krumar (2002) shows how the meaning of public participation differs depending upon the context which it applies (Davids *et al*, 2005:113). For public participation to have specific meaning, the relevant public and the issue at stake should be specified (Masango, 2002:53). Rahman (1993) contend that defining public participation should relate to the experience and exposure of that part of the process or intervention (Davids *et al*, 2005:113). Public participation can therefore be defined as a process in which members of the public – as individuals, members of groups, or group representatives – deliberately take part in a goal-oriented activity (Masango, 2002:53). It can therefore be said that the expression ‘public participation in policy making and implementation refers to an exercise in which members of the public – as individual citizens, interest groups, or interest groups representatives – deliberately take part in the relevant public policy making and implantation processes. In terms of the White Paper on Local Government of 1998 (DPLG, 1998), local democracy is to be strengthened through public participation. It is imperative that in contextualising public participation for purposes of strengthening local democracy, an overview of deliberative democracy be presented.

#### **4.6.2.3 Deliberative democracy**

According to Melo and Baiocchi (2006:588) deliberative democracy theory refers to a body of political theory that seeks to develop a substantive version of democracy based on public justification through deliberation. The conundrum of conceptualisation of democracy has been discussed in chapter two of this study. Cohen and Rogers (1992) in Melo and Baiocchi (2006:588) defined deliberative democracy as more than democracy as a political system, but also more than a discussion based democracy, deliberative democracy calls for the deliberation of citizens as reasonable equals for the legitimate exercise of authority and as a way of transforming the preferences and intentions of citizens. The debate on public participation or deliberative democracy is also facing challenges of defining the real participants. The ensuing paragraph presents the dilemma on identifying participants for public participation.

#### **4.6.2.4 Community Participation Framework**

Municipalities must develop mechanisms, processes and procedures for community participation within their areas of jurisdiction. According to Bond et al (1999) and De Villiers (2001) much attention in the service delivery literature has focused on the conceptual and legislative frameworks for integrating public participation into modes of governing in the post-apartheid era (Smith and Vawda, 2003:31). These frameworks are useful for understanding the democratization of the state but are less helpful in revealing how the concrete mechanisms for public participation have been implemented. According to King *et al* (1998:319) public participation process framework have four major components, namely, the issue or situation; the administrative structures, systems, and processes within which participation takes place; the administrators; and citizens. The framing of these components can either be in the conventional participation context or authentic participation context. The participation framework contexts as identified by King *et al* (1998) are briefly discussed below:

#### **4.6.2.5 Context of Conventional Participation**

In the context of conventional participation, the administrator controls the ability of the citizen to influence the situation or the process (King *et al*, 1998:320). The administrative structures and processes are the politically and socially constructed frameworks within which the administrator must operate. In the South African developmental local government it can be the adherence to statutory provisions as per relevant frameworks; for example the RDP and IDP laid a foundation in engaging citizens in service delivery (Smith and Vawda, 2003:31). These frameworks give the administrator the authority to formulate decisions only after the issue has been defined. Thus, the administrator has no real power to redefine the issue or to alter administrative processes to allow for greater citizen involvement. The administrator plays a role of an expert while a citizen becomes a client. White and McSwain (1993) cited in King *et al* (1998:320) suggest that participation within this context of is structured to maintain the centrality of the administrator while publicly representing the administrator as representative, consultative, or participatory. The citizen becomes the client of the professional administrator, ill-equipped to question the professional's authority and technical knowledge. Fischer (1993:165) refers to this process as a "practitioner - client hierarchy". Participation in this context is ineffective and conflictual, and it happens too late in the process, that is, after the issues have been framed and most decisions have been made (King *et al*, 1998:320). Rather than cooperating to decide how best to address

issues, citizens are reactive and judgmental, often sabotaging administrators' best efforts. Administrators are territorial and parochial; they resist sharing information and rely on their technical and professional expertise to justify their role in administrative processes.

#### **4.6.2.6 Context of Authentic Participation**

Authentic participation is deep and continuous involvement in administrative process with the potential for all involved having an effect on the situation (King *et al*, 1998:320). It requires that administrators focus on both process and outcome. In this context, participation is an integral part of administration, rather than an add-on to existing practices. According to Roberts (1997) in King *et al* (1998:320) authentic participation means that the public is part of the deliberation process from issue framing to decision making. As it has been discussed in previous paragraphs, deliberative democracy also has its own dimensions. In this context public participation requires that public administrators become interpretive mediators. They must move beyond the technical issue at hand by involving citizens in dialectical exchange by engaging with citizens in discourse rather than simply getting citizen input. The administrator becomes a corporative participant, assisting citizens in examining their interests, working together with them to arrive at decisions, and engaging them in open deliberation (King *et al*, 1998:320). According to Smith and Vawda (2003:31) integrating citizen participation into the process of service delivery has been at the cornerstone of some of the most important legislative and public policy pieces in South Africa. Section 17 of the South African Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provide that participation by local community in the affairs of the municipality must take place through the political structures for participation in terms of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. The mechanisms, processes and procedures must be in terms of the Local Government Systems Act 32 of 2000 as well as other appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures established by the municipality and councillors. The appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures established by municipalities must provide for matters such as the receipt, processing and consideration of petitions and complaints lodged by members of the local community; notification and public comment procedures, when appropriate; public meetings and hearings by the municipal council and other political structures and political office bearers of the municipality, when appropriate; consultative sessions with locally recognised community organisations and where appropriate, traditional authorities; and report back to local community. The mechanisms, processes and procedures must take into account the special needs of the people who cannot read or write; people with disabilities, women and other disadvantaged

groups. A municipal council may establish one or more advisory committees consisting of persons who are not councillors to advise on any matter within the council's competence. Such members must represent gender balance.

#### **4.6.2.7 Typologies of public participation**

Besides the fact that public participation as a concept differs from practitioner to practitioner and is therefore understood differently by different parties, the manner in which public participation is enlisted also varies (Davids *et al*, 2005:114). Researchers like Arnstein (1969) and Pretty (1994) developed "typologies" of public participation which demonstrate different conceptions (Davids *et al*, 2005:114). Such typologies are passive participation, participation in information giving, participation by consultation, participation for material incentives, functional participation, interactive participation and self-mobilisation. Passive participation is whereby people participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. Participation relates to a unilateral top-down announcement by the authority or project manager. Information being shared belongs to outsiders and/or professionals. Participation in information giving is whereby people participate by answering questions posed in questionnaires or telephone interviews or similar public participation strategies. The public do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings as the findings of the research are neither shared nor evaluated for accuracy. Participation by consultation is whereby participation often involves consultation (LeMay, 2006:150). Those who have authoritative decision making powers seek inputs of those who are affected by the decision. People participate by being consulted as professionals, consultants and planners listen to their views. Elected executive and legislative officials and high level managers of agencies choose to share decision-making power. This may be as basic as adopting policy through a referendum –for example, voters determine whether or not a policy put on a ballot by legislative action or by voter initiative is adopted into law or rejected (LeMay, 2006:151). The professionals define both problems and solutions and may modify these in the light of the people's responses. The process does not include any share in decision making by the public, nor are professionals under any obligation to consider the public's views. Participation for material incentives is whereby people participate by providing resources, such as labor, in return for food and cash. This typology typically takes place in rural environments, where, for example, farmers provide fields but are not involved in the experiment or learning process. The people have no stake in prolonging the activities when the incentives end. Functional participation is whereby people participate in group context to meet predetermined objectives

related to the project, which may involve the development or promotion of externally initiated social organisations. This type of involvement tends not to occur at the early stages of project cycles or planning, but rather once the important decisions have already been made. Interactive participation takes place when people participate in a joint analysis, the development of action plans and capacity building. Participation is seen as a right, not just a means to achieve the project goals. Self-mobilization takes place when people participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. This bottom-up approach allows people to develop contacts with external institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but they themselves retain control over how resources are used. Such self-initiated, bottom-up and self-reliant mobilization and collective actions may or may not challenge an existing inequitable distribution of wealth and power.

**Table 4.3 :** Passive participation versus Active participation

<i>Participation as a means to an end (Passive participation)</i>	<i>Participation as an end in itself (Active participation)</i>
<b>Implies the use of participation to achieve some predetermined goal or objective.</b>	Attempts to empower people to participate in their own development more meaningfully.
<b>Attempts to utilise existing resources in order to achieve the objectives of programmes or projects.</b>	Attempts to ensure the increased role of people in development initiatives.
<b>Emphasises achieving the objective rather than the act of participation itself.</b>	Focuses on improving the ability of people to participate rather than just achieving the predetermined objectives of the project.
<b>More common in government programmes, where the main concern is to mobilise the community and involve them in improving the efficiency of the delivery system.</b>	Finds relatively less in favor with government agencies. NGO's in principle agree with this viewpoint.
<b>Participation is generally short term.</b>	Participation is a long term process.
<b>Participation as a means, therefore, appears to be a passive form of participation.</b>	Participation as an end is relatively more active and dynamic than participation as a means.

**Source:** Davids, Theron and Maserumula (2005:117)

Oakley and Marsden (1991) as cited in De Beer and Swanepoel (1998) state that public participation is associated with actions of communities to improve their current situation (Davids *et al*, 2005:115). The process of public participation through which a community moves away from a less desirable situation can be presented as a continuum. This continuum covers four modes which overlap with the typologies. The modes are, *firstly* the **anti-participatory mode**. In this mode public participation is considered a voluntary contribution by the public to a programme or project which will lead to development, but the public is not expected to take part in shaping the programme or project content and outcomes. The *second* mode is the **manipulation mode**. The manipulation mode includes public involvement in

decision-making processes, in implementing programmes and projects, sharing in the benefits and involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes/projects. The *third* mode is **incremental mode**. Incremental mode is concerned with organised efforts to increase control over resources and regulative institutions in given social situations for groups or movements excluded from such control. The *last* mode is **authentic public participation mode**. Public participation is an active process by which the public influence the direction and execution of a programme or project with a view to enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance or other values which they cherish. Oakley (1991) argues that in a similar vein, the concept of public participation can be distinguished as a means to an end or an end in itself (Davids *et al*, 2005:116). As a means to an end is where participation is passive and as an end in itself is where there is active participation. A comparative analysis to the effect of public participation as a means to an end or an end in itself is presented as table 6.1 as presented by Oakley in Kumar (2002).

#### **4.6.3 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM**

The idea of performance management is far from new – it has long been recognised that performance needs to be managed (Williams, 1998:1). This is true whether one is concerned with performance at the organisational level, the individual level, or any level in between. Over the years there have been so many practices, techniques, tools, systems and philosophies which have as their aim the management of performance. Section 38 of the South African Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provide that a municipality must establish a performance management system that is commensurate with its resources, best suited to its circumstances and in line with the priorities, objectives, indicators and targets contained in the integrated development plan. The culture of performance management must be developed among the political structures, political office bearers and councillors as well as its administration. The affairs of the municipality must be administered in an economical, effective, efficient and accountable manner. According to the White Paper on Local Government (DPLG, 1998:31) performance management is critical to ensure that plans are being implemented, that they are having the desired development impact, and that resources are being used efficiently. Government performance is important to citizens and public managers' alike (Van der Waldt, 2004:33). Citizens expect the law to be enforced, the environment protected, labour, health and safety laws obeyed, and a plethora of goals accomplished. Performance management has emerged as an important tool to enable municipalities to become front-line developmental agencies that strive for high quality service delivery

(Sing, 2003:142). According to the Performance Management Guidelines for Municipalities Draft II (DPLG, 2001:5), performance management is a new requirement for local government in South Africa. Moreover, it is a specialised field with concepts usually interpreted and applied differently. The diversity of views on what constitutes performance management is reflected in the diverse disciplines that have sought to make a contribution to the topic (Smith and Goddard, 2002:248). The manner in which performance management is applied in developmental local government is subject to those diverse theoretical disciplines in discourse. It is of essence that before further discussion on performance management on developmental local government, an attempt be made to conceptualize it.

#### **4.6.3.1 Performance management conceptualisation**

The analysis of performance measurement systems is considerably more extensive than the analysis of performance management systems (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2009:283). Broadbent and Laughlin (2009:284) have observed that despite the work of authors like Fitzgerald and others (1991), Otley (1999), Brignall and Modell (2000), Kloot and Martin (2000), to open the understanding of performance management systems, the wider debate has, in some cases, been closed down again by concentration on how to measure this wider emphasis – for instance through the Kaplan and Norton's Balance Score Card. In practice performance measurement is used interchangeably with performance management, without proper contextualisation and confused with performance management system. For example Sing (2003:127) state that a holistic perspective of the nature and meaning of performance management is useful. Sing (2003:127) instead cited Rouse (1994) to refer performance management as including the description of the range of processes, instruments and mechanisms that improves the quality of goods and services that are provided to achieve objectives without conceptualizing the actual meaning of performance management. On the other hand Ferreira and Otley (2009:264) view performance management system as a term including all aspects of organisational control, including those included under management control systems. According to Ferreira and Otley (2009:264), much of the early literature on performance management systems has been categorised under management control systems, which is, in their view has become a more restrictive term than was the original intention. Hence they prefer to use the more general descriptor of performance management systems (PMSs) to capture a holistic approach to the management and control of organisational performance. The Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 also adopts the concept of performance management system. For many years the concept of performance management was synonymous with micro-

management of employee behaviour (Smith and Goddard, 2002:247; Johnsen, 2001). It certainly has its roots in Taylor's concept of "Scientific Management". More of scientific management is discussed in chapter two of this study. The predominant early interest was therefore from the perspective of human resource management (HRM), although some industrial companies had quite advanced management control systems in place by the 1970s (Smith and Goddard, 2002:247). Armstrong (2007:392) instead contends that performance management is not an HRM technique or tool; it is the natural process of management. Wherever there is management, performance must be the main factor to be sought. If local governments have management, performance management is a natural process in place. According to Patel (1994:34) performance management is an approach which harnesses the endeavours of individual managers and workers toward an organisation's strategic goal. It defines goals and the outputs needed to achieve those goals, it gains the commitment of individuals or teams to achieve those outputs, and it monitors outcomes. Armstrong (2001:367) defines performance management as a strategic and integrated approach to delivering sustained success to organisations by improving the performance of the people who work in them and by developing the capabilities of teams and individual contributors. It is strategic in the sense that it is concerned with the broader issues facing the business if it is to function effectively in its environment, and with the general direction in which it intends to go to achieve longer-term goals (Armstrong, 2007:391). Smith and Goddard (2002:248) refer to performance management to be characterised as an integrated set of planning and review procedures which cascade down through the organisation to provide a link between each individual and the overall strategy of the organisation. LeMay (2006:179) on the other hand defines performance management as the systematic integration of an organisation's efforts to achieve its objectives. In municipal context, performance management can be regarded as an umbrella term for the total management of municipal performance (Van Der Walt, 2007:111). Rabie and Uys (2008: 90) cited Rogers (1999) who refer to performance management, if narrowly viewed, as a set of tools and techniques which can be used by managers and politicians to manage the performance within their own organisations, or it can be viewed more widely as a pattern of thinking that results from a wide-ranging set of changing political, economic, social and ethical pressures that have impacted on local authorities in ways that are more extensive than simply the deployment of specific techniques. Rogers (1999) in Rabie and Uys (2008:90) further defines performance management in local government as the interrelated process which ensure that all the activities and people in local government contribute as effectively as possible to its objectives, in a way which enables a local authority to learn and thereby improve its services to the community. Venter

(1998:45) regards the underlying philosophy of performance management as striving towards maximised performance through the continuous measurement against clearly defined and agreed upon standards. Pollitt (1999) as cited in Smith and Goddard (2002:248) contend that a typical performance management is characterised by five processes that extend beyond the organisation's boundaries. It consist of setting objectives; assigning responsibility; measuring performance; feedback of information to decision making; and external accountability. Otley (1999:365) reduce those five processes to five main issues that need to be addressed in developing a framework for managing organisational performance and present them in as a set of questions. Smith and Goddard (2002:249) on the other hand, provide four broad categories of actions that constitute performance management. Such broad categories are formulation of strategy to determine what constitute performance; development of performance measurement instruments; application of analytic techniques to interpret such measures; and development of instruments designed to encourage appropriate organisational responses to performance information. Fox and Uys (2001:105) regard performance management as consisting of three elements, namely, performance planning, performance monitoring, and performance appraisal. From the conception as presented above, it is clear that performance management can be addressed from various perspectives and dimensions. There is no uniform conceptualisation of performance management. The various definitions by various scholars however cover various aspects which are common. Those aspects relate well on answers to Otley's (1999:366) five main issues to performance management framework. Those aspects are discussed in the ensuing paragraph under the sub-heading development of performance management framework.

#### **4.6.3.7 Dimensions of performance management**

In viewing performance management from a dimension perspective it is important to draw a distinction between performance and performance management. Performance in its broadest sense has probably been an issue in government for as long as government has been around (Van der Waldt, 2004:34). Performance is itself an ambiguous term, and capable of no simple definition (Otley, 1999:364). There are different views on what performance is (Armstrong, 2001:468). Many definitions of performance have been suggested by organisational leaders, decision makers, and students of organisational management and performance (Enos, 2007:3). According to Otley (1999:364) performance is referred to as being about doing the work, as well as about the results achieved. At an organisational level of analysis, it is assumed that an organisation that is performing well is one that is successfully attaining its

objectives; in other terms, one that is effectively implementing an appropriate strategy. Brignall and Modell (2000:288) present performance from the institutional theory insight to be institutionally defined as institutional factors that determine the interests being pursued by organisations. In the context of developmental local government that relate to a performing municipality as the one that is successfully attaining its objectives, which are in this case constitutional with the IDP as an appropriate strategy in place. Otley (1999:364) however went further to raise a point that it is apparent that more attention need to be paid to the definition of performance from the perspectives of relevant stakeholders. Various stakeholders involved in developmental local government have their perspectives on performance. The presence in public services of numerous stakeholders and multiple dimensions of performance imply a situation of considerable complexity in which large numbers of interactions and trade-offs across the dimensions must be managed in order to satisfy the interests of differing stakeholders (Brignall and Modell, 2000:287). The Performance Management Guidelines for Municipalities Draft II (DPLG, 2001:9) allude that it is important for each municipality to identify who its stakeholders are in relation to common stakeholder categories for all municipalities. If performance has to be defined from the stakeholder perspective, the plethora of definitions will prevail as each stakeholder view it from its perspective. As Svensson (2004:279) put it from the service quality context that the encounter is recognised as being dependent upon the interactive process between the service provider and service receiver. That interactive process then is described as a “theatre”, a “show”, or a “performance”. Performance management has been conceptualised in the previous paragraph. The essence here is the dimensions of both performance and performance management. According to Armstrong (2001:468), performance is a multi-dimensional concept, the measurement of which varies, depending on a variety of factors that comprise it such as perceptions, attitudes, structural systems, competences, methods, workflow and many others.

#### **4.6.3.2.1      *Dimensions of performance***

According to Kearney and Berman (1999:15) the dimensions of the nature of performance is illustrated by the modification of perceptions and attitudes; modification of authority system; structural re-organisation; the process of measurement and evaluation; modification of work methods through technology; retraining and replacement; modification of the workflow; and introducing a new work programme. The dimensions help in understanding a great deal about the process of improving organisational performance (Van der Waldt, 2004:39). It illustrates why there is some confusion about

various definitions of performance as such it depends on the dimension on which one is focusing. These dimensions may contradict one another.

#### **4.6.3.2.2      *Dimensions in performance management***

In presenting dimensions in performance management, Sing (2003:129) cited the Organisation for Economic and Co-operation Development (OECD) to refer to critical concepts and elements, such as value for money and quality consciousness as fundamental to the theory and practice of performance management. In the public sector, value-for-money can be characterised as “proxy for profit” (Sing, 2003:129). According to Rouse (1994) cited in Sing (2003) value-for-money may be defined as the economic acquisition of resources and their efficient utilisation to realise the objectives of an institution, simultaneously achieving economy, efficiency and effectiveness.

#### **4.6.3.2.3      *Economy***

Economy refers to the acquisition of inputs of appropriate quantity and quality at the lowest cost. All relevant costs of inputs should be included in any assessment of economy (Sing, 2003:130). These inputs can relate to human and financial resources, facilities, assets, information, time and various consumables. Fenwick (1995) as cited in Sing (2003:130) acknowledges that the most substantial definitions of economy are problematic in that the quality specifications may be omitted or disputed. In practice economy can be a compromise between cost and quality.

#### **4.6.3.2.4      *Efficiency***

Efficiency denotes the relationship between inputs and outputs (Sing, 2003:130). An efficient activity produces the maximum output for input received; it has minimum input for any given quality and quantity of service provided. According to LeMay (2006:24) efficiency refers to the ability to produce a desired good, service, or effect with minimum of effort, expense, or waste. Since ambiguities can arise in common sense and ideological use of the term, municipal functionaries may regard efficiency as the link between inputs and outputs, with precise nature depending on the specific needs and conditions prevailing in the particular municipality (Fenwick, 1995:111). On the other hand LeMay (2006:186) put it that the common challenge facing any public sector institution is the difficulty of measuring efficiency. Without a bottom line indicator, how do public managers determine how efficiently their agencies are operating?

#### **4.6.3.2.5 Effectiveness**

Effectiveness refers to the extent to which an activity or programme achieves its intended objectives (Sing, 2003:132). Its exclusive focus is outputs, outcomes and impacts. At the level of activity the interpretation of effectiveness may be simple, however, often the objective of sub-programmes and are subjective and intangible.

#### **4.6.3.3 Development of the performance management framework**

While performance has proven to be an effective process for organisational functioning, its value can only be assured through a comprehensive and well thought-out design and implementation process (Van der Waldt, 2004:286). In presenting the development of performance management system frame in this study, Otley's (1999) framework is adopted as a point of departure. The extended version of Otley's (1999) version as presented by Ferreira and Otley (2009) is briefly outlined with a view of reflecting challenges they have as frameworks in case applicable in developmental local government. Otley's (1999:365-366) five main sets of issues that need to be addressed in developing a performance management framework is presented in table 6.2 as both question form and answer form. These are posed as questions according to Otley (1999) on the grounds that empirical answers to them will supply pointers to and insights into the design of particular management system (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2009:285). Otley's (1999) framework has formed a basis for a number of studies that followed in performance management. For example Ferreira (2002) used the framework to structure the evidence from various case studies as well as the basis for interpretation and identification of key issues, Tuomela (2005) has drawn on the same framework to present the findings of his case study that investigated the introduction of new performance measurement system, and of late Stringer (2007) has drawn extensively on the framework to evaluate research published in two major journals (Ferreira and Otley, 2009:265). The strengths of Otley's (1999) framework are firstly, the framework provide a helpful structure for analysing management control systems by focusing on five key areas (Ferreira and Otley, 2009:265). The framework seems especially useful for this purpose because it considers the operation of management control systems as a whole and because it can be used with both for-profit and no-profit organisations. Its integrated nature forms the main breath of performance issues. Secondly, the general nature of the framework enables other frameworks to be used to complement its interpretations and insights as shown by Tuomela (2005) and Ferreira (2002). Thirdly the application has been reported to be straight-forward, the areas to be addressed are clear and unambiguous, and the questions asked

appear meaningful at different levels of management. Finally the framework deals with data, a particular important aspect given the difficulty of dealing with large amounts of information in case-based research.

**Table 4.4:** Question and answer form of empirical pointers

<i>Question form</i>	<i>Answer form</i>
1. <b>What are key objectives that are central to the organisation's overall future success, and how does it go about evaluating its achievement for each of these objectives?</b>	The concern is with the definition of goals and the measurement of goal attainment, not just financially but also in terms of stakeholder aspirations. The relative importance given to different goals may well reflect the relative power of different stakeholders.
2. <b>What strategies and plans has the organisation adopted and what are the processes and activities that it has decided will be required for it to successfully implement these? How does it assess and measure the performance of these activities?</b>	This is closely connected with issues of strategy formation and deployment, and with very practical issues of business process and operations management. It represents the codification of the means by which objectives are intended to be attained.
3. <b>What level of performance does the organisation need to achieve in each of the areas defined in the above two questions, and how does it go about setting appropriate performance targets for them?</b>	The third question is more traditional and has a long pedigree of research connected with it, but remains important, as is reflected in the emphasis given to practices such as benchmarking.
4. <b>What rewards will managers, and other employees gain by achieving these performance targets, or, conversely, what penalties will they suffer by failing to achieve them?</b>	The fourth question has tended to be neglected by those concerned with performance measurement as being in the purview of the human resources management function. The inter-connections between the fields need to be better recognised to avoid the many counter-productive examples of short-termism driven by financial incentive schemes that re seen in practice.
5. <b>What are the information flows, feedback and feed-forward loops, that are necessary to enable the organisation to learn from its experience, and to adapt its current behaviour in the light of that experience?</b>	The development of new information systems which still need to be better linked to issues such as the learning organisation, employee empowerment and emergent strategy.

**Source:** Broadbent and Laughlin (2009: 285)

The weaknesses of Otley's (1999) framework however provide a major aspect of this study's contention in relation to developmental local government. Firstly it does not explicitly consider the role of vision and mission in management control systems, despite the fact that these may be key elements of the process of control in organisations (Ferreira and Otley, 2009:265). It is only via key objectives that the framework touches this area of the control system, although it does not explicitly address the issues of what mechanisms and processes are used to bring the objectives to the awareness of employees and managers. Secondly, the frameworks can be interpreted as being focused on what Simons (1995) calls diagnostic control systems, yet the importance of considering all four levers of control for understanding the nature of management control systems. Thirdly, the framework does not stress the ways in which accounting and control information is used by organisations, as against the existence of formal control

mechanisms. Fourthly, the framework tends to look at control systems from a static perspective, perhaps giving a ‘snapshot’ at a point in time, but equally ignoring the dynamics of control system change and development. A more explicit consideration of the process of change and of its dynamics would clearly enrich the understanding of management control systems. This study contends that it must be from a complexity science perspective. Finally, it has been noted as put forward by Malmi and Granlund (2005) and Stringer (2007) as cited in Ferreira and Otley (2009:265) that the interactions between different parts of the performance management system are not explicitly addressed. Interactions are one of the defining characters of complex systems. The principles and characteristics of complex adaptive systems have been discussed in detail in chapter 3 of this study. Ferreira and Otley (2009) have however after considering the widespread acceptance of the need to adopt a more comprehensive approach to management control systems and the limitations of existing frameworks; they put forward what they called an extended framework. Such extended frameworks are briefly discussed below as twelve question performance management system framework.

### ***12-Question Performance Management System Framework***

The extended framework which Ferreira and Otley (2009:266) name as Performance Management Systems Framework represents a progression from Otley’s (1999) five issue questions as discussed in the previous paragraph. The naming of the framework as “Performance Management Systems” aims to reflect a shift from the traditional compartmentalized approaches to control in organisations to a broader perspective of the role of control in the managing of organisational performance. It also aims to give a managerial emphasis, by integrating various dimensions of managerial activity with control system. The 12-question Performance Management Systems framework is outlined as follows:

***Question 1:*** What is the vision and mission of the organisation and how is this brought to the attention of managers and employees? What mechanisms, processes, and networks are used to convey the organisation’s overarching purposes and objectives to its members?

***Question 2:*** What are the key factors that are believed to be central to the organisation’s overall future success and how are they and how are they brought to the attention of managers and employees?

***Question 3:*** What is the organisation structure and what impact does it have on the design and use of performance management systems (PMSs)? How does it influence and how is it influenced by the strategic management process?

**Question 4:** What strategies and plans has the organisation adopted and what are the processes and activities that it has decided will be required for it to ensure its success? How are strategies and plans adapted, generated and communicated to managers and employees?

**Question 5:** What are the organisation's key performance measures deriving from its objectives, key success factors, and strategies and plans? How are these specified and what role do they play in performance evaluation? Are there significant omissions?

**Question 6:** What level of performance does the organisation need to achieve for each of its key performance measures (identified in the above question), how does it go about setting appropriate performance targets for them, and how challenging are those performance targets?

**Question 7:** What processes, if any, does the organisation follow for evaluating individual, group, and organisational performance? Are performance evaluations primarily objective, subjective or mixed and how important are formal and informal information and controls in these process?

**Question 8:** What rewards – financial and/or non-financial – will managers and other employees gain by achieving performance targets and other assessed aspects of performance or, conversely, what penalties will they suffer by failing to achieve them?

**Question 9:** What specific information inflows – feedback and feed-forward -, systems and networks have the organisation in place to support the operation of the PMSs?

**Question 10:** What type of use is made of information and of the various control mechanisms in place? Can these uses be characterised in terms of various typologies in the literature? How do controls and their uses differ at different hierarchical levels?

**Question 11:** How have the PMSs altered in the light of the change dynamics of the organisation and its environment? Have the changes in performance management systems (PMSs) design or use been made in a proactive or reactive manner?

**Question 12:** How strong and coherent are the links between the components of performance management systems (PMSs) and the ways in which they are used, as denoted by the above 11 questions?

According to Ferreira and Otley (2009:267), although not exhaustive, all questions listed above have been found by the authors to yield significant insight into the various aspects of performance management systems (PMSs) design and use, and to form a coherent framework that can be used to structure enquiry in this field. Although they have an underlying logic and may therefore at first sight

appear to espouse a normative framework, this is not the case. Rather, they can be used to facilitate the description of performance management systems (PMSs) design and use in practice, without any prior assumption as to whether the existence or absence of a particular feature is good or bad thing (Ferreira and Otley, 2009:267). They put forward a heuristic tool to facilitate the rapid description of significant aspects of performance management systems (PMSs) design and operation. Ferreira and Otley (2009:267), however contend that there are two aspects that permeate performance management systems (PMSs) that are not explicitly addressed by the above twelve questions. These are contextual factors and organisational culture. Referring to various authors like Chow et al (1999); Firth (1996); Gordon and Narayanan (1984); Govindarajan (1988); Khandwalla (1972 and 1974); O'Connor et al (2004); Perrow (1967); and Simons (1987), Ferreira and Otley (2009:267) justifies that literature has shown that variables relating to external environment, strategy, culture, organisational structure, size, technology, and ownership structure have an impact on the design and use. Consequently performance management systems (PMSs) will require their consideration even if only implicitly. Such variables or factors at the same-time interact with other variables as they are interacting with the performance management system. The second aspects are organisational culture, a notable contextual variable that pervades the entire control system influencing choices and behaviours of individuals, so as with the other external contextual factors (Ferreira and Otley, 2009:267). These factors are viewed within the framework as contingent variables that might explain why certain patterns of control are more or less effective, rather than characteristics of control system that need to be incorporated into a description.

#### **4.6.3.4 Performance management models**

Performance management model is a novel concept in developing countries relative to developed economies (Mwita, 2000:26). Public managers need to consider available models and techniques to ensure that resources are optimally utilised to the maximum benefit of society (Van der Waldt, 2004:175). Various performance management models, tools and techniques are applied to ensure performance management in local government. Some models and techniques are applicable to private sector organisation while other is specific for public sector. It is of utmost importance that private sector models and techniques are not merely adopted for the public sector; the public sector is far too unique for that (Van der Waldt, 2004:171). Rather, public sector-specific models and techniques should be developed or private sector models and techniques should be adjusted to make them applicable to the public sector context. The most common performance management models, systems and techniques

that can be utilised to measure the success of performance initiatives and policy programmes in the public sector are briefly discussed below as identified by Van der Waldt (2004:171). The models, systems and tools are not limited to those identified below, but the exposition of these ones will serve purpose for this study.

#### **4.6.3.4.1 *Three – Es Model***

The Three-Es model refers to measures of economy, efficiency and effectiveness (Van der Waldt, 2004:179). The relationship or link between inputs, outputs and outcomes may thus be described in terms of economy, which refers to the cost of inputs that are used to produce outputs; efficiency, which relates inputs to outputs, that is, the cost of inputs used per unit of output; and effectiveness, which illustrates the extent to which the outputs or services of a programme are successful in achieving stated objectives or priorities (Van der Waldt, 2004:179).

#### **4.6.3.4.2 *Quality Management Models***

The word ‘quality’ brings to mind terms such as inspection, process control, auditing, standards and ISO 9000 (Van der Waldt, 2004:182). While quality indeed includes these principles, it also includes, for example, management systems and continuous improvement, customer satisfaction and market focus, teamwork and the well-being of employees. A variety of quality models, tools, and techniques can be used to measure performance.

#### **4.6.3.4.3 *Business Excellence Framework and the European Foundation for Quality Management***

The Business Excellence Model is a generic model that allows a holistic approach to be taken to the management of an organization’s quality system (Van der Waldt, 2004:183). The search for excellence and dissemination of ‘best practice’ is the underlying philosophy and a major function of the Business Excellence Model. The model identifies four categories of business results, namely, key performance results which can be in the form of finance, society, people and within the mechanics of the model, the most important category of customer results (Burtonshaw-Gunn and Salameh, 2009:54). These quantitative results are underpinned and driven by services of five qualitative enablers comprising of leadership, people, policy, partnership and process management.

#### **4.6.3.4.4 *South African Excellence Foundation Model***

The Business Excellence Model (BAQF) and the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) are the catalysts for the development of the South African Excellence Foundation’s Excellence

Model (Van der Waldt, 2004:184). The Excellence Model is a generic plan that can be applied to both public and private sectors. The model provides a framework and direction which encourage a culture of performance excellence (Van der Waldt, 2004:185).

#### **4.6.3.4.5      *Citizens' Charter***

Citizen's Charters are official frameworks for assessing and awarding quality in the public sector particularly, but may also be applied by private companies as part of customer service standards (Van der Waldt, 2004:186). The essential idea behind charters is to increase the quality of life in society and to pay attention to the needs of citizens. The ultimate purpose is to renew citizen trust not only in public services but in the state (Van der Waldt, 2004:187).

#### **4.6.3.4.6      *Quality Awards***

There are a variety of quality award competitions in the private as well as the public sector (Van der Waldt, 2004:187). In South African local government there are various awards for best performing municipalities in various service delivery categories. A public quality competition award may be defined as a performance measurement instrument, which fosters innovation and quality in the process of the paradigm shift taking place in the 'new public management' of many countries. The competition among the participants of an award programme is supposed to motivate other actors of public agencies.

#### **4.6.3.4.7      *The Balanced Score Card***

Developed by Kaplan and Norton in 1996, the Balanced Scorecard is a set of measures that could give public managers as fast but comprehensive view of the organisation's performance and include both processes and result measures (Van der Waldt, 2004:187; Cokins, 2009:27; Johnsen, 2001). The complexity of managing policy programmes and projects requires that managers be able to view performance in several areas simultaneously. A balanced scorecard or a balanced set of measures provide that valuable information (Holbeche, 2005:248). The balanced scorecard advocated that the organisation strategy must be communicated throughout the organisation using visual maps and shifting performance measures to individual components of the organisation. Cokins (2009:93) has noted that the early indication of trouble is the confusion about what a balanced scorecard is and what its purpose is when applied as a model in practice (see also Johnsen, 2001). Although Kaplan and Norton (1996) have devoted time in developing what can be regarded as a comprehensive model, in practice public managers and practitioners have no consensus in uniformly describing it for proper application. Balanced Scorecard as performance measurement model therefore becomes an addition to the complexity of measuring performance in developmental local government. Cokins (2009) and Johnsen

(2001) noted that the application of balanced scorecard will also depend on the ontological stand of practitioners in relation to excessive rational precision informed by Newtonian mathematics or the Darwinian relative application.

#### **4.6.3.4.8      *The Integrated Provincial Support Programme (IPSP)***

The Integrated Provincial Support Programme (IPSP) is a multi-year strategic programme of South African Government to support targeted provincial governments in achieving and sustaining poverty alleviation, the effective rendering of basic services and good governance through the implementation of their respective Provincial Growth and Development Strategies (PGDS) (Van der Waldt, 2004:190). It was conceived in 1999 as a partnership, initially, between the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DPSA) and some South African provincial governments.

#### **4.6.3.4.9      *Benchmarking***

Benchmarking can be seen as an important management tool of Total Quality Management (TQM) (Van der Waldt, 2004:191). The aim is to identify competitive targets which render the weak points of benchmarking organisation visible and to establish means of improvement. Performance targets set are informed by a comparative performance data on other similar agencies and programs (Poister, 2003: 65). It is a continuous, systematic process of measuring products, services and practices against organisations regarded to be superior with the aim of rectifying any performance gaps. A major challenge in using benchmarking approach is to find a truly comparable programs or agencies in the first place, or to make adjustments for differences in operating conditions in interpreting the performance of other entities as the basis for setting targets for a particular program or agency. In local government it can be said that it is difficult to compare municipalities as they have different circumstances. But in most cases benchmarking is used as an ideal comparison on other aspects of local governance. For example the Makhado Local Municipality benchmarked its salary scales with that of Vhembe District Municipality to be at par with the highly paid municipality within the district.

#### **4.6.3.4.10      *The Servqual model***

The Servqual (Service/Equal) approach begins with the assumption that service quality is critically determined by the difference between customers' or consumers' expectations and their perceptions of the service actually delivered (Van der Waldt, 2004:195). Service quality management may be described as the process of minimising the performance gap between actual delivery and customer expectation (Mwita, 2000: 20). In order to improve the service quality, managers have to adopt "customer-oriented" techniques because service providers directly address user needs. In this regard, the Performance

Management model appears to be the most ideal. In a pragmatic approach, some scholars attempt to define service quality by identifying gaps between provider and consumer in their respective perceptions of service quality (Ballantine and Modell, 1998) or the performance measures they use (Fitzgerald and Moon, 1996). In every economic entity, however, top management must be the frontiers of identifying these "performance gaps" and providing the avenue, framework and empowerment for their therapy. Performance and quality management is concerned with maximising the value added through the Performance Management process such that the initial "costs" are exceeded by the subsequent "benefits" derived from deliverance (Horton and Farnham, 1999).

#### **4.6.3.4.11 *Process mapping and flow charts***

Process maps and flow charts are the most commonly used methods for designing and analysing processes and the most widely used of all problem-solving tools (Van der Waldt, 2004:195). According to Van der Waldt (2004:195) the Process Approach is the System Approach to Management, which states that 'identifying, understanding and managing inter-related processes as a system to contribute to the organisation's effectiveness and efficiency in achieving its objectives'. Within this context, the quality management system comprises of a number on interrelated processes.

#### **4.6.3.5 Performance measurement**

Performance measurement is founded in public administration (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1995:334) and is not a recent innovation (Ho, 2003: 162). Performance measurement is an old idea that has taken on renewed importance (Poister and Streib, 1999:325; Ho, 2003). Measuring workload and worker efficiency was clearly part of the scientific management approach at the turn of the century. The early studies of Taylor (1911), Willoughby (1923), Gulick (1937), and Ridley and Simon (1938) each shared concerns for the development of administrative procedures and practices to ensure efficient delivery of services (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1995:334). Performance measurement in the public sector is concerned with the assessment of performance of organisations, organisational units, and programs (Pollanen, 2005:5). According to De Bruijn (2002:4) performance measurement is a very powerful communication tool: it reduces the complex performance of a professional organisation to its essence. It thus makes it possible to detect poor performance, allowing an organisation to be re-adjusted if it performs poorly. Performance measurement can thus also play an important role in acquiring legitimacy for government action (De Bruijn, 2002:4). The idea behind performance measurement is a simple one: a public organisation formulates its envisaged performance and indicates how this performance may be measured

by defining performance indicators (De Bruijn, 2002:7). After the organisation has performed its efforts, it may be shown whether the envisaged performance was achieved and what the cost was. However, De Bruijn (2002:7) contends that the problem is that the effects of interventions either by an authority are often difficult to measure because public performance is multiple and is achieved in co-production. Further the more period between an intervention and its eventual effect may be long. This makes it impossible in many cases to measure the final effect of an intervention by an authority, not least when abstract goals such as livability, safety, integration or quality are involved (De Bruijn, 2002:7). What is measurable is direct effects of interventions by an authority, the outputs, while in some cases – somewhere between direct effects and final effects – intermediate effects might be identified, which are also measurable.

#### **4.6.3.6 Different methods of measuring performance**

Several methods have been used in the public sector to assist performance measurement development and analysis (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1995:335). According to Ammons (1995:37), for many years, measurement proponents have urged local governments to report not only how much they spend, but also how much they do, how well they do it, how efficiently, and, ideally, what their actions achieve. Advocates promised that more sophisticated measurement systems will undergird management process, better inform resource allocation decisions, enhance legislative oversight, and increase accountability. According to Bouckaert (1993), effective performance measurement system must meet certain standards of validity, functionality and legitimacy. Such standards are briefly discussed below as outlined by Bouckaert (1993):

##### **4.6.3.6.1 *Validity***

According to Bouckaert (1993:13), valid performance measures are sound, cogent, convincing and telling. Validity could be enhanced by pursuing best practices, focusing on the desirability of measures rather than data availability, and considering quality. Validity refers to the internal strength and mechanism, a theory, a system, a classification (Bouckaert, 1993:31). The technical soundness of the measure itself guarantees validity. Validity is the degree that which is intended to be measured is being measured (DPLG, 2001:30). A prototype example is, if it is intended that a measure the percentage of households with a legal electricity connection and the measurement gives the number of households

with an electricity connection, and then the measurement is invalid in that the measure was intended to establish households with legal electricity connection.

#### **4.6.3.6.2      *Functionality***

Regarding the interaction of measures in measurement system and the organisation, Bouckaert (1993:38) identified three possible directions that stretch from a naïve belief in neutrality to an awareness of possible dysfunctionality. For neutrality measures must not affect performance. This is a purely mechanistic and scientific management approach that differs from a human relations approach or systems approach because of its purely objective and technical use. Measures and measurement must be and are placebos. They must guarantee improvement. The design task is to find accurate, conclusive, reliable measures that are also motivating. Accuracy refers to the extent to which the measurement is unambiguous and the degree of error is low (DPLG, 2001:30). Reliability is the degree to which, if the measurement is repeated under exactly the same conditions, it yields the same result (DPLG, 2001:30). A prototype example is, if the cleansing department of a municipality measures three times, immediately after each other, the percentage of dwellings that have not received a refuse collection service in the previous month and arrives at three very different percentages, and then the system is unreliable. Measures and information have an active, not purely, informing function.

#### **4.6.3.6.3      *Legitimacy***

Performance measurement becomes increasingly an element in a strategy of accountability to obtain discharge for responsibilities that are decentralised or devolved (Bouckaert, 1993:37). This turns measurement from an internal and technical matter into an external and, if not political, at least rhetoric matter.

#### **4.6.3.7 Measures and indicators of performance**

Various concepts and processes underpin the understanding of the nature, scope and application of instruments of and mechanisms for performance measures and performance indicators (Sing, 2003:135). In discussing measures and indicators of performance in developmental local government it is important to elaborate on performance standards, performance indicators, performance indicators, and performance targets as they applied in performance measurement within developmental local

government. The discussion will present a critical perspective on the complex nature of each aspect to reflect the challenge which always exists in the real practice of developmental local government.

#### **4.6.3.7.1      *Performance standards***

A criterion is a key factor, characteristic or standard by which something can be assessed (Sing, 2003:136). Criteria may be general as a key performance area, or detailed and specific, such as a measurable target. In terms of the Local Government Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations of 2001, a municipality must, after consultation with the local community, develop and implement mechanisms, systems and processes for the monitoring, measurement and review of performance in respect of the key performance indicators and performance targets set by it. That requires standards to be in place for purposes of developing, implementing mechanisms, systems and process for monitoring performance. The mechanisms, systems and processes for monitoring in must provide for reporting to the municipal council at least twice a year; be designed in a manner that enables the municipality to detect early indications of under-performance; and provide for corrective measures where under performance has been identified. Performance measures must include the measurement of costs, resources and time used to produce outputs in accordance with the input indicators. They must also include the extent to which the municipality's activities or processes produced outputs in accordance with the output indicators as well as the total improvement brought by outputs in accordance with the outcome indicators of the municipality. The mechanisms, systems and processes for review must at least identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the municipality in meeting the key performance indicators and performance targets set by it, as well as the general key performance indicators prescribed. When reviewing key performance indicators set by the municipality local community must be allowed to participate.

#### **4.6.3.7.2      *Performance Indicators***

De Bruijn (2001:7) put it that the central idea behind performance measurement is a simple one: a public organisation formulates its envisaged performance and indicates how this performance may be measured by defining performance indicators. After the organisation has performed its efforts, it may be shown whether the envisaged performance was achieved and what the cost of it was. The Performance Management Guide for Municipalities (DPLG, 2001) describes performance indicators as measurements that tell whether progress is being made in achieving the goals of a municipality. They essentially

describe the performance dimension that is considered key in measuring performance of a municipality. But it need to be stated for the purpose of this study that for a municipality to define its performance indicators, a context of the municipal council's vision and mission is very important (Cokins, 2009: 98). The moment performance indicators have a context it become complex, more importantly if the context has to be derived from the vision and mission of the municipal council. It needs to be stated that the municipal council's mission and vision emanate from its strategic plan which has been built up in the IDP. In developmental local government, establishing performance indicators for performance management purposes is also compounded by the nature of goods and services municipalities are supposed to provide. The Local Government Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations of 2001 define three types of indicators that must be reflected in the municipality's performance management system. The indicators are input indicators that means an indicator that measures the costs, resources and time used to produce an output; outcome indicator that means an indicator that measures the quality and or impact of an output on achieving a particular objective; output indicators that means an indicator that measures the results of activities, processes and strategies of a program of a municipality. The Regulations further provide that key performance indicators of a municipality must be measurable, relevant, objective and precise. In setting such key performance indicators, a municipality must ensure that communities are involved; and the key performance indicators inform the indicators set for all its administrative units and employees; and every municipal entity and service provider with whom the municipality has entered into a service delivery agreement.

#### **4.6.3.7.3      *Performance Targets***

Performance targets are closely linked to measures and indicators, and are usually used in combination with measures and indicators (Sing, 2003:137). Performance targets express a specific level of achievement, often in increased number of outputs, or decreased costs and time. Municipalities must have clear objectives through the IDP which are able to transform to clear performance indicators for purposes of having targets (DPLG, 2001: 24). In terms of the Performance Management Guideline for Municipalities (DPLG, 2001) a municipality must identify baseline measurements which serves as the measurement of the chosen indicator at the start of the period. If performance is seen as a race, the baseline is the starting position and the target is the finish line. In setting targets it is important for the municipality to know how it is performing at the current moment so as to tests whether the chosen indicator is in fact measurable and whether there are any problems associated with it. It is important to

know the date when the baseline measurement was relevant. For example, if the municipality cannot measure its baseline at the given moment, and have to rely on data from the last census, it should clearly be noted that the baseline measurement is relevant to the date of the last census. The last census for all municipalities under review was 2001. The same census has informed the basis of preparations of IDP's for such municipalities and the description of the population size until 2011. A municipality may then look at all the indicators set, and identify targets for each. In terms of the Local Government Municipal Planning and Performance Management Regulations of 2001 such performance targets need to be practical and realistic, measurable in terms of efficiency, effectiveness, quality of product and impact of the performance of the municipality, administrative component, structure, body or person for whom the target is set, and be commensurate with available resources, municipality's capacity, and be consistent with the municipality's priorities and objectives set out in the IDP. The priorities and objectives as set out in the IDP lays a foundation for performance targets and a base for such targets. These make the interaction between the IDP and the Performance Management System to be rich and inseparable for modern rational analysis.

#### **4.7 CONCLUSION**

The institutional framework of developmental local government constitutes a structural base for municipalities as envisaged in South Africa. Municipalities themselves as local government have a challenge of organising themselves within the traditional public administration principle of the doctrine of separation of powers. Municipal councils are expected to perform both legislative and executive functions. The fusing of both legislative and executive authority in council makes it difficult to demarcate a boundary as to where the legislative stops and executive starts. Municipal councils are also constituted by elected councillors. Councillors are elected in the form of proportional and ward representation system. The electoral system allows for political parties to forward candidates in both proportional representation and ward representation. Candidates within ward representation are directly elected in terms of majority within a ward while proportional representation is in terms of votes acquired to be determined in terms of a quota of the election results allocated to a political party. The involvement of political parties in forwarding ward councillors creates complexities of accountability and responsibility. Pursuing political aspirations tend to cloud the actual representative nature of developmental local government. Various categories of municipalities inform the basic types of municipalities to be established within different areas. Those municipalities are expected to perform

powers and functions as provided for in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. The Constitution provide for the powers and functions without conceptualisation or contextualisation. Those powers and function take different form within the various spheres of government. However in local government those powers and functions can be presented within various perspectives, being powers perspective, functions perspective, and services perspective. Developmental local government is also taking place within the space of traditional leadership. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 protects the existence of traditional leadership institutions. Powers and functions of traditional leaders are exercised within local government sphere. Local government municipal systems are interdependent. The notion of interdependency refer to the fact that each of the identified local government municipal systems depend on each other for its being. The interdependence is characterised by double feedback loops at the same time responding to the external environment. Constitutionally municipalities in South Africa must perform developmental duties those developmental duties are in the form of integrated developmental planning, performance management and ensuring community participation. Each of these developmental duties comprised of a range of activities that are interacting at a close range. Each developmental duty is realised through achieving the other. That makes it difficult to realise each without the realisation of other. For example the municipality's IDP is not complete if the municipal council's performance management system is not fully realised. It has also been observed that to realise each developmental duty involves engagement of various interpretation informed by a variety of theoretical basis with diverse contextualisation. The contextualisation is also complexities by the multiplicity of sectors involved in developmental government. For example it stills a debated issue as to what constitute a community in terms of community participation. It is also an issue as to which level such participation takes the form of public participation, citizen participation or stakeholder participation. Participation also takes various forms ranging from giving of information to evolved participation. Each of the forms takes context of the subject of participation. There is no single rational form of participation that can on its own suit the context. Those create a complex scenario that cannot be address through a straight forward rational discourse. For a single municipality to realise its IDP ideal various sectors acting on their own right have an impact. For example the municipality may put in IDP as a project a supply of water which is a functionary of the National Department of Water Affairs. The municipality does not have a direct influence on realisation of the project. The same project may reflect as a key performance target in terms of the municipality's performance management system. Performance Management is at times confused with performance measurement. Performance

management entails more than performance measurement. The application of various models in dealing with performance management also possesses a challenge in developmental local government. The models themselves require various theoretical interpretations which is not readily available in local government. The nature of local government functions and services cannot fit well to rational models of performance management as applicable in rational business organisations in private sector. Having covered the debates on developmental local government in the form of theoretical establishment, the structure and form, as well as the functions and duties in the previous chapters, it is of essence to present empirical realities as they prevail in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area. The following chapter will provide for the methodology and design as adopted to establish such empirical realities.

## CHAPTER 5

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters developmental local government has been presented in terms of its form, structure, function, state and development through contextualisation of its character and establishment. These were related to the state of discourse in public administration through exposing the limitations of modern rational thinking. Complexity science as a proposed complementary model informed by ontology of postmodern conception was presented. Developmental local government through its nature, form and structure, as well as duties and function is regarded as a complex system that takes a form of multiplicity and pluralism, context, persona, and accountability and responsibility. In its policy conception in South Africa developmental local government have specific characteristics which are presumed to qualify it to be in the position of fulfilling developmental duties. Those defining characteristics and duties have to be realised through the ongoing discourse of public administration theory. It is in this way that developmental local government found itself in a theoretical conundrum due to various theoretical bases that inform the basis of its character, formation and duties. These are exuberated by the ontological base of positivist conception of the dominant scientific discourse which strives for a unified theoretical base for addressing developmental local government. Local governments also tend to be in a state of *isomorphism* by aspiring to reflect on the ideal of its intended creation. The dominant scientific discourse informs the development of the mainstream public administration that dominates the state of developmental local government in South Africa. It is argued in this study that as a conceptual analytical tool, complexity theory has provided for methodological framework in understanding complexities inherent to *morphogenesis* in form, structure, function, state and development such as those of the developmental local government in South Africa. Besides the popular application of business-driven principles to the administration and management of the public sector systems has itself caused *morphogenesis* in form, structure, function, state and development to an even more complex level of equilibrium and “multifinality”. The model is founded on the principles drawn from the theory of complexity with an ontological base of postmodernism. Developmental local government comprises of aspects which are intricately interwoven with each other and at times one cannot be conceptualised outside the other nor realised in a positivist rational analysis. For instance, the

concept of systems as an analytical tool provides for a methodological framework in the investigation of activities that are complex interrelated wholes, wherein *morphogenesis* incrementally raises the form, structure and state of the system to newer and deeper levels of complexity (Goodall, 1987). The dominant scientific discourse or mainstream public administration strives to develop a unified single theory that can be a solution to the spate of problems within developmental local government. The chapter operationalizes the research questions presented per the research objectives of this study. In operationalizing the study, the research methodology as adopted for the study is put in operation. The research methodology is presented together with the research design that served as a roadmap for the study. The research methodology highlights on the theoretical framework or conceptualisation adopted throughout the study. The theoretical framework adopted had a major influence on the nature of the study. The study is predominantly qualitative in nature. Due to major criticisms of complexity theory in that it lacks empirical grounding (Haynes, 2007), a complement of quantitative side of the study is inclusive. The population of the study is presented in the form of outlining briefly the nature of each local government involved in the study. It is out of those municipalities that a sample is drawn representing various categories of stakeholders involved in implementation of developmental local government within those municipalities. Various methods and techniques preferred for the collection of data in the study are presented.

## **5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

It is virtually impossible to design perfect analytical tools for the real, messy, complex world (Bak, 2004: 19), especially for South Africa's intricate developmental local government system and its subsystems of integrated development planning, performance management and community participation. For this reason, the study has combined aspects of several research designs and methodological frameworks appropriate for systems analysis.

### **5.2.1 Research design**

The study's primary research design is normative systems analysis, within which it draws on aspects of three theoretical traditions of complexity, reflexivity and systems theory, as well as correlation research. Normative systems analysis is appropriate for investigation of complexity because it consists of three basic theoretical analytical tools conceived as complex-reflexive-systems, for the evaluation of the "structure, function and development" of complex systems. Complexities attendant to the operations of

all systems, their subsystems and environment take “form and state of existence” through *morphogenesis* of their “structure, function and development”. Thus, the complex-reflexive-systems conception is of fundamental significance in understanding the operations of complex systems. Whilst “the structure is the sum of the components and the connections between them; function concerns the flows (exchange relationships) which form the connections; and development considers the changes in both structure and function which take place over time” (Goodall, 1987: 463). That is, the study have used normative systems analysis in order to investigate the developmental local government system and its three subsystems being Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System (PMS) and Community Participation in three fundamental ways: (a) evaluation of the basic forms of connections described through forms of relationships in the structure of the developmental local government system, which entail analyses of a series or single causal relationship, parallel relationships, feedback relationships and any combination of the three basic forms; (b) assessment of internal flows and functions of the system (subsystems) influenced primarily by the environment and reflexivity of components; and (c), examination of the internal stability and/or instability in the development of the system to determine whether its *morphogenesis* involves “multifinality” or equifinality”, as it accommodates adjustments to random effects that cause increased dissimilarity with the previous existence. Unavoidably, the study had to use a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, with a self-explanatory bias towards the former. Whereas the “structure, function and development” of the developmental local government system involves quantification, a significant part thereof had required qualitative evaluation of events, form, state and tactics. The combination of the two complementary approaches allowed for triangulation through multiple-operationism approach for increased validity and reliability (Mouton, 1996: 156; Brynard and Hanekom, 1997: 29; Bak, 2004: 25; Punch, 2005: 240, 241; Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee, 2007: 184). Thus, the empirical aspects of the study have also entailed surveys of the municipality “structures” and ethnographic research of the “functions and development” of the system of developmental local government.

### **5.2.2 Kinds of Data Required**

The study had adopted theoretical discourses on complex, reflexive systems as well as the empirical data on the complexities attendant to a democratic South Africa’s “structures, functions and development” of the developmental local government system primarily through the three subsystems of Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System and Community Participation. The

data on the “form and state” of the “structures, functions and development” of the systems and subsystems included factual, opinion and observational information drawn from the documents of the District and Local Municipalities as well as public servants and communities. These data included the “form and state” of malaise between policy and practice as well as realization of developmental local government. More importantly, the study sought to elicit information on the relationships within the systems, subsystems and their environment as well as their association with the malaise between policy and practice, and the state of realising developmental local government objectives.

### **5.2.3 Target Population**

Based on normative systems analysis design, the target population was all practitioners involved in the “structures, functions and development” of the developmental local government systems and its three subsystems within the District Municipality as well as the four Local Municipalities. These categories consisted of elected Mayors and councillors serving in the Mayoral Committee or Municipality’s Executive Committee as well as officials appointed to municipalities as managers accountable to the municipal manager in terms of section 57 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. This target population included officials in the IDP, Performance Management System and Community Participation within those identified municipalities. Also, the study included officials in the systems that provides environmental context within which the municipal systems operates. This category embraced provincial and national systems such as the officials in the Provincial and National Departments responsible for Local Government, respectively. Finally, the target population included the community’s resident in the District Municipality in the form of stakeholders and community structures involved in the realization of developmental local government. Inclusive of all targeted municipalities the total population is about 300 municipal officials, elected councillors, and representatives of other stakeholders involved in developmental local government.

### **5.2.4 Sampling Design**

Purposive sampling design was applied at different scales, based on the identification of systems and subsystems that were the main focus of the study. The nature of the investigation entailed sampling of respondents who hold specific knowledge of the developmental local government systems, which was the subject of evaluation. Purposive or judgmental sampling was the most appropriate design to serve the purpose of the study (Black, 1999: 3; Hagan, 2006 in Berg, 2007: 44), because it required the special

knowledge, experience and expertise about the subject of investigation (Berg, 2007: 44). The study selected local government officials charged with the implementation and management of the systems and subsystems of the developmental local government, Integrated Development Planning IDP, Performance Management System (PMS) and Community Participation in the Vhembe District Municipality as well as the four Local Municipalities. This category of the sample consisted of a total of 200 respondents, consisting of 40 from the District Municipality as well as 40 from Makhado, 40 from Musina, 40 from Mutale and 40 from Thulamela Local Municipalities.

**Table 5.1:** Distribution of number of sample accessed per municipality

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Mutale Local Municipality</b>	<b>Thulamela Local Municipality</b>	<b>Musina Local Municipality</b>	<b>Makhado Local Municipality</b>	<b>Vhembe District Municipality</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Female</b>	18	16	21	21	10	86
<b>Male</b>	22	25	17	22	16	102
<b>Did not specify</b>			2		14	16
<b>Totals</b>	40	41	40	43	40	204

The sample further consisted of one District Executive Major, four Local Municipality Mayors, and twenty Members of the Council Executive Committee, one District Municipal Manager, four Local Municipal Managers and twenty Managers accountable to the District Municipal Manager. Additionally, the sample included each from the IDP, PMS and Community Participation. In regard to Community Participation subsystem, the study used purposive sampling design to select community stakeholder representation through the IDP Representative Forum of the District and those of the four Local Municipalities. There was no specific number of members of the IDP Forum that was legislated across municipalities; as a result, it was only estimated that a total of 50 IDP Forum members would be involved. Additionally, purposive sampling was used to select one self-organised structures which were not part of the IDP Representative Forum, but were involved with the implementation of the developmental local government system in the District and Local Municipalities. These self-organised structures included among others, the Hlanganani Concerned Group and the Chairperson's Association in Makhado Local Municipality Area, Malamulele Boarder Committee in Thulamela Municipality, and The Greater Musina Unemployment Forum in Musina Municipality. These structures were appropriate for matters related to Community Participation. Additionally, purposive sampling was used to select Traditional Authorities Forum in the Local Municipalities, except for the Musina Local Municipality where there was no legitimate traditional authority. These Forums consisted of a total of approximately

50 members. This category of the sample consisted of a total of 12 participants. Overall, the total sample size for the study consisted of the sum of the two categories, which computes to 250. For a study that was planned on qualitative bias for the evaluation of the form and state of the “structure, function and development” of the developmental local government system as well as the subsystems of integrated development planning, performance management and community participation, this sample have allowed for adequate data and reliable conclusions.

### **5.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA**

The study was conducted within the Vhembe District Municipality which consists of the Makhado, Musina, Mutale and Thulamela Local Municipalities. The four Local Municipalities as developmental local governments in terms of their establishment, just like those for the District Municipality, consisted of systems and subsystems at different levels of analyses, as entailed in the complex-reflexive-systems conception. A brief overview of each municipality that constitutes the research population is presented in the ensuing paragraphs. The purpose of this overview of each municipality is to reflect its state of establishment background and structural arrangement that have laid a foundation for the justification of the selected sample to be presented later in the ensuing sections of this report.

#### **5.3.1 Vhembe District Municipality**

Limpopo Province comprises of five District Municipalities and Vhembe district municipality is one of them. Vhembe District Municipality was established in 2000 in terms of Municipal Structures Act of 1998. The establishment was effected by the proclamation of Provincial Gazette Extraordinary No. 615 of 1st October 2000. The Vhembe District Municipal Area is approximately 21 407 km<sup>2</sup> in extent which comprises of 17.62% of the total area of Limpopo Province (Vhembe District Municipality, IDP: 2001). The estimated population of 1 097 972 people reside within the district municipality area comprising of an estimated 20.09% of the total population of Limpopo Province. The district municipal area is predominantly rural with the distribution of population between rural and urban. The district municipality comprises of four local municipalities; namely, Thulamela Local Municipality, Makhado Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality, and Mutale Local Municipality. The district does not have wards but the wards that are established at local municipality level are functional since they were trained on the Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System (PMS), and

relevant municipal legislations by Vhembe District Municipality PIMS Centre. In terms of the Vhembe District Municipality IDP of 2001, the district municipality has powers and functions assigned to it in terms of the provisions of Section 84 (1) of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. Those powers and functions are Integrated Development Planning (IDP) for the district municipality as whole, including a framework for Integrated Development Plans of all municipalities in the area of the district municipality; bulk supply of water that affects a significant promotion of municipalities in the district and also as a Water Service Authority & Sanitation; fire and rescue services serving the area of the district municipality as a whole; municipal airports serving the area of the district municipality as a whole; municipal health services serving the area of the district municipality as a whole; the establishment, conduct and control of fresh produce markets and abattoirs serving the area of a major proportion of the municipalities in the district; regulation of passengers transport services; municipal roads which form an integral part of road transport system for area of the district municipality as a whole; solid waste disposal sites serving the area of the district municipality as a whole; domestic waste water and sewage disposal system; the establishment conduct and control of cemeteries and crematoria serving the area of a major proportion of the municipalities in the district; Local Economic Development (LED); Integrated Development Planning & Spatial Development Planning; Waste Management; coordination of electricity and housing provision; bulk supply of electricity which is currently being taken care of by ESKOM; promotion of local tourism for the area of the district municipality; and municipal public works relating to any of the above functions or any other functions assigned to the district municipality.

**Figure 5.1:** Map of Vhembe District Municipality



**Source:** Vhembe District Municipality IDP Review (2008-2009)

The structural arrangement of the Vhembe District Municipality is categorised into three components, being Political, Administration and Community. The political component comprises of the executive mayor, mayoral committee, council, portfolio councillors/Committees. The administration comprises of the municipal manager, departmental heads and general administrative staff. Vhembe District Municipality was also classified among the most highly vulnerable areas in the country in terms of those with highly rural and apartheid-based legacies (COGTA, 2009: 27). The population distribution within the Vhembe District Municipality in terms of 2001 census is presented in Table 7.1 below. The population is classified per language groups to reflect on representation of each group.

**Table 5.2:** Vhembe District Municipality Population per language and race group

	African/Black	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Afrikaans	981	1023	17	11678
English	792	239	1814	1701
IsiNdebele	1758	0	0	0
IsiXhosa	634	0	0	23
IsiZulu	867	3	0	0
Sepedi	27872	38	7	3
Sesotho	7698	6	0	9
Setswana	826	6	0	0
SiSwati	324	0	0	7
Tshivenda	818519	240	40	97
Xitsonga	314746	97	12	38
Other	4827	7	1038	69

**Source:** 2001 Census Statistic South Africa

### 5.3.2 Makhado Local Municipality

Makhado Local Municipality was first established as the Louis Trichardt Town Council on the 31st October 1934 (Makhado Municipality IDP Review, 2006/2007). With the new municipal demarcations in terms of the South African democratic dispensation after 1994, a number of transitional municipalities were established in 1995. However, following the introduction of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, transitional local municipalities which were within the area were merged in terms of the demarcation of municipalities into NP 344 Municipality that is now known as the Makhado Local Municipality. The Makhado Local Municipality includes the areas of Louis Trichardt, Nzhelele, Tshipise, Elim, Tshitale, Hlanganani, Levubu, Vuwani, Alldays, Buysdorp and Bandelierkop. It is recorded in the Municipality's IDP of 2002 that the local municipality was named after the 19th century Vha-Venda king; King Makhado who led the Venda people in withstanding attacks by encroaching Boers until he died in 1897. The Boers established the town of Louis Trichardt after defeating the

Venda, but the Anglo-Boer War, which took place between 1899 and 1902, prevented full-scale Boer occupation as troops were withdrawn to fight the British. The town's name was changed from Louis Trichardt to Makhado in 2003 and later be reversed back to Louis Trichardt after High Court ruling in favor of the Chairperson's Association who challenged the decision of the Local Municipal Council for effecting the name change without proper community consultation as required per the notion of developmental local government. The case on circumstances of the reversal of change of name from Makhado back to Louis Trichardt is dealt with under the presentations of data in the study to follow in the next chapter. Makhado Local Municipality has a jurisdiction of 16 000km<sup>2</sup> which consists of 279 informal settlements and formal towns being Louis Trichardt Town, Waterval Township, Vleyfontein Township, Vuwani Township, Dzanani Township and Tshikota Township (Makhado Municipality IDP, 2001). The informal settlements are basically villages under traditional leadership which comprise of vast rural areas in between with commercial farms of Levubu and Witpoort. The municipality is located on the N1 main route between South Africa and other African states being Zimbabwe, Botswana and Mozambique with Musina Local Municipality bordering Zimbabwe on the northern part. As of 2010 the municipality was demarcated into 37 wards and the municipal council consisting of 73 elected councillors; who comprised of 37 ward councillors and 36 proportional councilors (Makhado Municipality, 2008/2009 IDP). There are 14 traditional leaders who serve as ex-officio members of the municipal council and 10 councillors who are elected to be members of the executive committee with the mayor serving as the chairperson of the executive committee. Each of the traditional leaders serving as ex-officio members of the elected municipal council have among their territories further "*indunas*" that serve through a traditional institution bureaucratic scalar. So each traditional leader has a constituency to serve. Most traditional constituencies transcends beyond a single demarcated municipal ward. For example Chief Bungeni within Makhado Local Municipality has a territory that transcend beyond more than 10 wards that is inclusive of areas that are not within the jurisdiction of his traditional leadership. For example ward 8 within the municipality comprise of 5 villages. Out of these five villages, two are under the traditional leadership of Bungeni who observe the Shangaan Traditional leadership with Njakanjaka village and NwaMhanzi village under *indunas* or headmen. The other villages within the same ward are under headman Nkuzani who is an induna of Chief Majosi with a separate traditional jurisdiction of Khomanani Tribal Authority. The area of Matsila village is also within the same ward. The Matsila area is under the Vha-Venda traditional leadership under the Kingship of Ramabulana Mphephu who has a status of being a King of the Vha-Vhenda. This traditional

dynamic is within the same ward which is statutory to be manned by one ward councilor with a ward committee of 10 members. The municipal wards are demarcated in terms of the Local Government Delimitation legislation and such wards stretch across different traditional leadership territories as well as magisterial districts.

According to the Makhado Local Municipality Annual Report for 2004/2005, the Municipality has in January 2001 set itself up to operate in through four (4) respective administrative regions or service districts which comprises of Dzanani Region to service the northern part of the municipality jurisdiction; Vuwani Region was setup to service the eastern part of the municipality; Waterval Region was set up to service the southern part of the municipality with Makhado Region put in place to service the western part of the municipality. Each regional office operates as satellite for service delivery to ensure that local communities are served through the unit closer to them. The Civic Centre situated in the Louis Trichardt Town serve as the main core or head office for municipal business operations and also serves as one of the four urban nodes in the municipality's geographical area. Each region has active business centres located in the formal town of the region. As on 2010 the municipality has a staff establishment of 1200 posts with 880 posts filled with permanent staff. In terms of land management and zoning the municipality is only operating within proclaimed areas. The geographical area beyond the proclaimed *Town-planning Scheme Area* is managed by the provincial department of Local Government and Housing in regard to land use rights. The municipality only comments on applications which the said Department refers to it for comments. In essence that reflects that municipality is only servicing areas that are proclaimed. Areas that are under traditional leadership are not proclaimed and are the bigger areas in terms of population habitation.

### **5.3.3 Musina Local Municipality**

In 1994/1995 the Local Authority Committee for Nancefield and the Town Council of Messina were amalgamated and became the Greater Messina Transitional Local Council, and after the election in December 2000 the municipality was established as the Messina Local Municipality (Musina Local Municipality IDP, 2002). In 2002 the name of the town was changed to Musina and the Municipality is known as the Musina Local Municipality. The name "Musina" is derived from the tribe Chieftainship of Dopokobotha who discovered and mined the copper deposits within the area long time ago. The area forms part of the Golden Horseshoe tourism area declared by the Limpopo Provincial Government. The Musina Local Municipality is located in the very north of the Limpopo Province, bordering Botswana

and Zimbabwe (Musina Municipality IDP, 2002). The Municipality covers an area of approximately 757 829 ha that extends from the confluence of the Mogalakwena and Limpopo River in the west to the confluence of the Nwanedi and Limpopo River in the east and from Tshipise and Mopane in the south to Botswana/Zimbabwe borders (Limpopo River) in the north. The municipal area consists mainly of commercial farms and only 0.08% of the total area is urban in nature. The municipality falls within the Vhembe District municipality area, which is made up of four local municipalities, namely Musina, Makhado, Thulamela and Mutale, of which Musina is bounded by Makhado to the south and Mutale to the east. Musina is also bounded in the south west by the local municipality of Blouberg which falls within the Capricorn District Municipality area. The Musina Local Municipality is made up of five municipal wards, of which three falls within the urban centre of Musina. Ward one stretches from the western boundary of Musina municipality to Tshepise in the east. Wards 1 and 2 are the largest wards and are of a rural nature. Wards 3, 4 and 5 make up the peri-urban and urban settlement of Musina.

The population of Musina Local Municipality is concentrated in the town of Musina. According to the Spatial Development Plan of Musina Local Municipality of 2009/2010, the sub-places outside of the town tend to be large making it difficult to determine population distribution. While the information was examined at a voter district breakdown, the information is restricted for public use and could not be mapped in this report. There are four service delivery/functional boundaries affecting the municipality of Musina with four magisterial areas falling either wholly or partially within the municipal boundary. The health and education jurisdictional boundary is the same but covers the area of the Vhembe District Municipality area. The police jurisdictional boundary extends slightly beyond the health and education boundary. According to Musina Municipality IDP document (2002), the non-alignment of boundaries with either district or municipal boundaries complicates the delivery of certain social facilities and services within the municipality area. The demographic data for the Spatial Development Framework was based on the 2001 census sourced from the Demarcation Board. As such the demographic data utilised by the municipality to update on its IDP was based on projections of the 1996 census. There are no traditional authority areas within the Musina Local Municipality area. However, the settlement cluster of Madimbo/Malale and Domboni lies just across the municipal boundary of traditional authority areas.

### **5.3.4 Mutale Local Municipality**

The Mutale Local Municipality (MLM) was established in terms of the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, which provides for the establishment of municipalities, their categories, competencies powers and functions (Mutale Local Municipality IDP, 2002). Mutale Local Municipality population is spread over former homeland areas, commercial farms, towns and semi-urban centres. The settlement pattern is dispersed in terms of size, function, services and population. The area largely consists of communally occupied land and includes a large number of rural settlements in the form of 150 villages administered by tribal authorities. Towns and rural service centres do exist in the Mutale local municipality. The specific order of settlements can however be derived. Mutale Local Municipality consist of proclaimed area and un-proclaimed area, the municipality own only two (2) areas which are Masisi and Tshilamba on other part of Tshandama. Most of the land is owned by the tribal authority. The settlement pattern of an area indicates the spatial distribution of settlements, which represents the concentration of people in specific geographical areas because of certain activities. These activities could be social, economic or natural, and can differ from one to another in terms of type, extent and rate of change. The settlement pattern is closely linked to the economic activities, population concentration and the physical environment, which can include natural and man-made activities i.e. transport corridors. The natural growth of the population and migration patterns alters the settlement patterns over time and subsequently changes the size and order of settlements. The order or size of a settlement relates to the type of activity and the concentration of people and is supported by the linkages within the region and sub-region. It should be realised that each of these activities can result in a unique spatial pattern where no two-settlement areas are identical. The municipality comprises of eleven (11) wards in terms of Municipal Demarcation. The Organisational structure of Mutale Local Municipality consists of the Council as a political structure and five main Departments namely: Technical Services, Corporate Services, Finance, Community Services and the Municipal Manager's Office. The Local Municipal Council consists of 22 Councillors including the Mayor and the Speaker. There are three portfolio committees established by the Executive Committee namely Technical Services, Finance, Social and Community Services. The Organisational Structure was reviewed and adopted by the Council on 31 May 2006 and was linked with the reviewed budget and IDP. The total staff complement for the year under-reviewed as per Organisational Structure was 173 with 24% of the total number staff complement being women. In line with the provisions of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 all section 57 Managers had signed performance agreement with the municipality. Performance

Management Policy was also adopted by the Council on 24 February 2005. This policy provides a frame-work within which the performance of staff can be measured in line with the overall objectives of the municipality. The following transformation desks were established and were located in the Mayor's Office: Disabled desk, Old age forum and Aids Council. The main aim of these forums is to ensure that their interests are taken on board.

### **5.3.5 Thulamela Local Municipality**

The Thulamela Local Municipality is one of the four local municipalities comprising the Vhembe District Municipality established in 2000 in terms of Section 12 of the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. It is the eastern- most local municipality in the District (Thulamela Municipality IDP, 2005). The local municipality is situated in the eastern part of Vhembe District Municipality. The Kruger National Park forms the boundary in the east, while sharing the borders with Mutale Local Municipality in the north east and Makhado Local Municipality in the south and south west. The municipality covers an area of 2966 km<sup>2</sup>. It is a category "B" municipality named Thulamela which is a Karanga word meaning the "The Place of Giving Birth". It is reported in the municipality's IDP that the name is derived from an ancient Thulamela settlement which was situated in the northern part of the Kruger National Park, which has now been declared a national heritage site by the South African government. The Karanga is currently one of the main ethnic groups of the Shona speaking people found in the neighbouring Zimbabwe. The Shona speaking group are categorised into five main ethnic groups or tribes being the Zezuru, Manyika, Karanga, Korekore, and Ndaou ([wikipedia.org/wiki/Shona\\_people](http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Shona_people)). It is believed the Vha-Venda and Shangaans were the original inhabitants of the area. It was here that they developed strong trade links with traders from the Middle East. The latter two geographic areas are divided by the east – west Road 524 that connects the N1 Road from Makhado to Punda Maria Gate in the Kruger National Park. The present day Thulamela Local Municipality area covers the vast tract of land which is mainly tribal with Thohoyandou town as its political, administrative and commercial centre. The municipal area has approximately 584 257 population being the largest of the four local municipalities in Vhembe district municipality area. The municipality is demarcated into 38 wards determined in terms of the Local Government Municipal Demarcation Act 27 of 1998. The municipality is predominantly rural and almost all its settlements are within the territory of traditional leadership except the proclaimed townships of Thohoyandou and Malamulele. The traditional leadership represent both the Vha-Venda and Shangaans. In terms of the

2007/2008 Thulamela IDP Review document the municipality had a staff complement of 543 with 477 posts permanently filled.

### **5.3.6 Data Collection Methods**

To establish the theoretical basis of the study, secondary data relating to the discourses on the complexities of the “structures, functions and development” of the developmental local government system was elicited from the existing literature. Additional background literature on a democratic South Africa’s practice of developmental local government, Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System and Community Participation were reviewed, both at the national, provincial, district and local scales. Collection of these data involved literature surveys of books, journal articles, conference proceedings, and legislation in the form of acts of parliament, regulations, working papers, and other relevant policy documents. Additionally, fieldwork data was compiled through observation and notes recording out of the ethnographic research process. In addition to fitting into and trying to experience the daily routes of the relevant structures of the implementation of the developmental local government, the observation and recording techniques were used also during focus group discussions that were held with the IDP Forum, the Self-organised Groups and the Traditional Authorities Forum. Interviews too were used to elicit information about complexities from the participants who were charged with leadership for each of the Forums sampled. The plan was to conduct interviews with a total of 40 participants. However, over 50 interviews were conducted as more people were interested in talking about challenges facing local government in general. The purpose of the interview, just like that of observation and focus group discussions, was to elicit information on the complexities attendant to the “structures, functions and development” of the developmental local in the District and Local Municipalities. Questionnaire survey was limited to the collection of data on the “form and state” of the delivery of public goods and services in relation to the sub-thematic areas within the study objectives and research questions. The questionnaire was based on Likert rating scales that are widely used for measuring attitudes, for example opinions, mental dispositions and preferences (Gob, McCollin, and Ramalhoto, 2007:601) and it is a popular attitudinal rating scale used in research (Aiken, 1996:231). The questionnaire survey involved distribution of the questionnaires to all participants as defined through the total sample presented per table 5.1 above in order to ensure that facts can be verified for their validity and reliability.

### **5.3.7 Data Analysis Procedures**

Systems analysis entails a complex cognitive interrogation of the interactions and relationships in the systems and subsystems of structure, function and development. At the same time measurement is one of the keys to social research and the other is interpretation which is also referred to as data analysis (Babbie, 1995:3). The study therefore analysed the complexities as well as the *morphogenesis* that occurs through reflexivity of components and systems involved in the realisation of developmental local government. Due to the combination of literature engagement and empirical work in this study (Bak, 2005:25), data was interpreted and analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. To this extent, data analysis was largely qualitative, meaning that the “form and state” of the “structures, functions and development” of the developmental local government system as well as the three subsystems thoroughly described within their multiple environmental contexts. These descriptions had identified and interpreted the complexities established in terms of the underlying intentions of the institutions and actors involved. Based on clearly described complexities, the study constructed classifications in order to group together what belong together and to explain the underlying intra-class similarities and inter-class differences. This form of analysis assisted in making connections for the identification of causal and/or parallel relationships as they exist in the structure, function and development of the developmental local government and its subsystems. Some of the qualitative data about specific complexities was further analysed through descriptive statistics to determine the currency, frequency and strength of particular events, occurrences and opinions about developmental local government (Aiken, 1996; Gob, McCollin, and Ramalhoto, 2007). Statistical tools such as graphs, proportions and frequencies were used to analyse the form and state of developmental local government. Additionally, cognitive arguments were established in regard to the relationships of the complexities in the implementation of developmental local government. Finally, a comparative analysis was made of fieldwork data results with the theoretical formulations to determine whether or not the results from Vhembe District Municipality conform or depart from the well-established theoretical principles of developmental local government system.

## **5.4 CONCLUSION**

The research methodology and design form the basis of validity of any scientific research which can make meaningful input within research under general. Such methodology need to be informed by the kind or type of research being undertaken. Most researches take either the form of qualitative or

quantitative in kind. Qualitative methodology refers to research which produces descriptive data in the form of generally people's own written or spoken words while quantitative methodology refers to where data is measured through numerical structure. Research methodology must reflect on a theoretical framework or conceptualisation of the study. The conceptual framework or theoretical framework adopted is from a complex reflexive science with an ontological base of postmodernism. The methodology adopted for the study need to be articulated in the form of a research design that serves as a blue print or a roadmap for the study. It is through the research design that the population of study has been identified. The population of the study comprised of municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area being the Makhado Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality, Mutale Local Municipality, and Thulamela Local Municipality. An overview of each municipality in terms of its establishment and form became necessary to reflect on the state of the population. A sample has to be drawn from the identified municipalities. In drawing a sample from each municipality, a purposive categorization was made to classify the sample that will represent the elected political component of each municipality, administration and management component, traditional leaders, community structures and other spheres of government operating with the area under research. The sampling was followed by reflection on the actual methods and techniques adopted to collect data. The adopted methods and techniques were those suitable for both qualitative and quantitative data collection. The methodology and design as reflected need to be operationalised through presentation of data, analysis, interpretations and findings. Such presentation, interpretation and findings will form the basis of the ensuing chapter.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF THE IDPs, PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SURVEY RESULTS FROM THE LOCAL MUNICIPALITIES OF THE VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter discussed the research design and methodology adopted for the study. It is imperative for any research to present data as collected in terms of the methodology and design adopted for the study. This chapter seeks to test the theoretical principles drawn from the literature using empirical data collected from the four local municipalities in the Vhembe District Municipality in relation to the research objectives and questions. Chapter 2 presented the praxis and the ideal character of developmental local government as envisaged in the South African dispensation. It has through that chapter been established that developmental local government become a subject of complexity through its establishment as a sphere of government right to its contextualisation of being developmental. The characterisation of developmental local government draws its theoretical strands from several theoretical prepositions. In as much as the practice of public administration is based on the eclectically nature of the discipline, the chapter established that the characterisation of developmental local government for pragmatic purpose become ideal due to a diverse and multiplicity of theoretical strands that inform its characteristics. State what needs to be tested, in this regard.

Chapter 3 reflected on the state of public administration discourse within developmental local government in South Africa. The chapter had established that the state of public administration discourse in South Africa did not keep pace with local government transformation. The modern dominant theoretical framework or mainstream public administration that is also referred to as an orthodox informs the implementation of developmental local government. The former draws its evolutionary base from rational scientific management that has been modified over time through systems thinking that is based solely on the cause-effect linear conception. It was established through the same chapter that the society in which developmental local government is implemented is postmodern in nature; as such, the rational conceptions of modern science need to be complemented through complexity that is based on postmodern ontology. Chapter 3 presented the theory on complex reflexive

systems that served as the framework in dealing with the gaps identified in chapter 2. The primary aim of the chapter was to establish gaps in South Africa's policy and theorization of developmental local government. It was found through that chapter that the characteristics of complex systems with its principles fit in the phenomenon of developmental government with various forms of complexity manifesting themselves. Reducing chapters 2 to practice as purported in legislative framework of developmental local government necessitated a need to present the framework and structural arrangement of developmental local government and its functioning in chapter 4 as well as reflecting on the constitutional developmental duties of local government. The primary aim was to interrogate the mechanisms for putting into pragmatic effect policy and theory. It was found in chapter 4 that the framework for developmental local government and its functioning do not conform to a rational framework that can be replicated within differing contexts in practice. This has a bearing on the functioning of municipalities as different categories with differing types that are established throughout the country with different scope of functions and powers. The powers and functions become complex the moment they are presented in a service delivery perspective in that interactions are a backdrop of local government as the sphere of government. Chapter 4 further presented the developmental duties designed for the realization of developmental local government as envisaged. Those developmental duties are the integrated development planning, design of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), Performance Management, and Community Participation. It was found in that chapter that these systems have rich interactions in that each one of them is informed by the other. The ideal conditions required for the realization of each system in practice involve complex engagements that conform to various forms of complexity as presented in chapter 3. In general, the findings drawn from the literature engagement confirm that there exist complexities in developmental local government which is in line with the realisation of the first objective of this study being that of the determination of complexities within developmental local government. Such findings however, had to be tested through the empirical data collected through the methods identified in chapter 5.

The data collected is presented in this chapter together with analysis and interpretations in relation to the research objectives as stated in chapter 1. This chapter begins with the review of main policy documents of the municipalities in the study area. Such main policy documents are Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) of each municipality within the study area that ideally had to embrace performance management system and community participation strategies. The IDP reviews present the state of implementation of

developmental local government within each of the four local municipalities within Vhembe District Municipality. The reviews partially address the second objective of the study regarding the extent of implementation of developmental local government. Quantitative analysis is used in order to allow for interpretation that was proposed in chapter 5 and it is at the same time responding to all research questions as posed in chapter 1. Throughout the presentation and analysis, interpretations are made in line with the research objectives that are already partially addressed through literature. In presenting data and analysis, reference is made to the relevant provisions of literature as discussed in the previous chapters.

In short the chapter reviews the IDPs, analyses Performance Management and assesses Community Participation of the four local municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality. The discussion seeks to determine the extent of complexity and implementation of developmental local government, the degree to which complexities affect the realization of government objectives and to draw insights usable for the development of a model.

## **6.2 IDP REVIEWS**

In reviewing the IDP's for the purposes of the study it was necessary to present on aspects that represent the ideal IDP as per the Ministerial Regulations on Municipal Planning and Performance of 2001 issued in terms of the Local government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. The aspects are based on relevant legislation on IDP's and to determine an extent to which each municipality have progressed fulfilling local government developmental duties as discussed in Chapter 4, it is necessary to focus on those aspects for review purposes. The aspects are municipal planning, cooperative governance, and core components of the IDP, the framework for planning, processes involved and annual reports. Chapter 4 of this study provided for the framework and theoretical foundations for such nature of IDP's (see paragraph 4.6). The municipal planning is expected to reflect on developmentally oriented planning, municipal objectives, developmental duties, and fundamental rights to be addressed. Cooperate governance is required to reflect on the role of other spheres and sectors of governance and alignment with other spheres. Such alignments bring to surface the notion of interactions that characterises complexity (see chapter 3). The core components of the IDP as also discussed in Chapter six 4 are the municipal council's vision and mission, existing level of development, development priorities, development strategies in relation to sectoral plans, spatial development framework, and operational

plans, Disaster Management Plans, Key Performance Indicators and Key Performance Targets. The framework of the planning consists of identification of planning requirements; identify matters to be included, principles and procedures for consultation during drafting and amendments. The processes followed covers the adopted time frames, community participation, alignment with other spheres and sectors. Implementation includes Performance Management System (PMS) with its core components, and the extent to which performance measures audits are done (see chapter 4, paragraph 4.6.3). Annual reporting includes financial statements and Audit Reports. Other than the statutory framework of ideal IDP, the content analysis of the IDPs themselves formed part of the review to determine the extent to which such IDPs are addressing what they are purported to address being developmental local government.

### **6.2.1 IDP Review for Vhembe District Municipality**

Like any other municipality in the Republic, Vhembe District Municipality produced its first IDP way back in 2002 immediately after the second Local Government Elections that took place in 2000. The IDP which was compiled for the elected term of the previous council was reviewed annually in order to ensure that the available resources to the municipality are directed at the delivery of projects and programmes that meet agreed development priorities. It was reported in the Vhembe District Municipality's IDP Review document of 2008/2009 that the second round of five year IDP that started from 2007/08 to 2011/12 should reflect on the current development trends since the year 2000 up to date and the new challenges that are facing municipalities. Amongst the challenges the document was intended to expose services back logs and responses thereof given the available resources and institutional preparedness. It however needs to be confirmed that in terms of the local government municipal systems the district municipality is responsible for developing the framework for Integrated Development Plan for all municipalities within the district. That in essence means that the Integrated Development framework for the Makhado Local Municipality, Thulamela Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality as well as Mutale Local Municipality must be done by the Vhembe District Municipality.

### **6.2.2 IDP Review for Makhado Local Municipality**

The first Makhado Local Municipality's Integrated Development Plan (IDP) came about as a process of amalgamating the interim IDPs of amalgamated transitional local municipalities of Mulima/Hlanganani Transitional Local Council, Greater Louis Trichardt Transitional Local Council, and Dzhelele/Tshipise Transitional Local Municipality. The IDP compilation process was outsourced to consultants Urban Econ (Ramavhoya, 2011; Rambado, 2009). Based on the 2008/2009 and 2009/2010 Makhado Local Municipality IDP Review the Makhado Local Municipality IDP comprises of seven sections. The first section is an executive summary which comprises of introduction and organisational arrangements for the preparation of the IDP. The second section is titled situational analysis which addresses demographic information of the municipality as well as current reality with basic facts and figures. The section is inclusive of Spatial Development Framework which addresses the spatial location and description, activity centres, hierarchy of settlements, as well as growth points. On providing the aspects related to Spatial Development Framework, the section provide further for Social Cluster Analysis that deals with Water and Sanitation; Electricity; Roads and Storm water drainage infrastructure; Housing; Waste Management; Safety and Security; Telecommunication and Postal Services; Culture, Sports and Recreation; Health and Social Welfare; and Education and Training. The social cluster analysis is followed by Environmental Analysis which addresses floods, pollution, and soil and vegetation resources. This is followed by the Disaster Management Plan and an Economic Cluster Analysis and conclusion. Good governance and Administration follows which comprises of Municipal Transformation and Organisation Development, Performance Management, Financial Viability Capacity and Management. The Intergovernmental Relations, Communication and Governance are presented followed by the IDP review process overview. The IDP Review process overview addresses municipal threats and challenges which are developed in terms of SWOT analysis. Consolidated Prioritised Community Issues followed by the summary. The third section being section "C" comprises of the vision of the Municipality while the forth section "D" comprises of the mission with the fifth section "E" comprises of strategic objectives. The strategic objectives are classified in various clusters which are Social Cluster, Economic Cluster, Governance and Administration cluster. Each cluster provide for Strategic Objectives. The sixth section titled Developmental Strategies comprise of social cluster and governance and administrative cluster. The social cluster and governance and administration cluster are each providing for developmental strategies. The seventh section titled section "G" provide for projects that comprises of IDP Projects Integrated Multi-Year Infrastructure Plans: Makhado Municipality 2009/

2012; Infrastructure Cluster- Water and Sanitation; Infrastructure Cluster- Roads and Bridges and Storm Water; Electrical Capital and Operational Projects – 3 Year Cycle; and Planning. Economic Cluster: Projects; Governance and Administration Cluster: Projects; Social cluster: Projects; Electrification Projects: 2009/2010; Regional priority needs; Integrated Multi-Year Infrastructure Plans: Sector Departments. Further projects as to be realised by Roads Agency Limpopo; Premier’s Office; Health; and Education were indicated. Based on the ideal framework of IDP as presented in Chapter 4 of this study, the IDP reflects little in terms of planning as compared to the provision of literature Chapter 2 of this study. In overall the IDP reflect aspects that are not feasible for operationalisation. For example the vision is addressed in section “C” of the document instead of being the guiding element for the whole planning.

### **6.2.3 IDP Review for Musina Local Municipality**

The first Integrated Development Plan (IDP) for the Musina Local Municipality was prepared in 2002 for implementation in the 2002/2003 financial year. Subsequently the IDP has been reviewed twice in 2003 and 2004. Each of these IDP’s, contain a Spatial Development Framework (SDF) section, which despite representing the whole of the municipal area, focus extensively on the town of Musina. Based on the framework of the 2005/2006 Reviewed IDP of Musina Local Municipality, the Musina Local Government IDP comprises of components that include background of the planning; the vision and mission of Musina Local Municipality; the review of planning meetings; public participation process; working objectives; strategic guidelines; resource frames and financial strategies; and designing strategies and identifying projects. The IDP further includes the IDP Projects Template, Environmental Management Plan, Operational Strategies, Spatial Development Framework Plan, Integrated Waste Management Plan, as well as the Disaster Management Plan. According to the Musina Local Municipality IDP Report of 2005/2006, in November 2004 Hluli Environmental and Engineering Consultants were appointed by the Musina Local Municipality to prepare a series of sector plans on behalf of the municipality. The Spatial Development Framework for the Musina Local Municipality was one of the sector plans as part of the 2005/2006 IDP review. The Musina Local Municipality IDP fairly representing the ideal integrated planning. Most of required sector plans that are required to be included in the final document were attached properly. For example the Environmental Management Plan, Integrated Waste Management Plan as well as the comprehensive Spatial Development Framework. Public participation is provided as part of the report than a separate comprehensive plan. As it has been

debated in Chapter 4 in the literature of this study, public participation and community participation are conceptualised interchangeably. It was not clear as to whether the municipality engaged in public participation or community participation as reference was made to the “*Imbizos*”. In essence the IDPs could reflect clearly whether it engaged in a meaningful community parties and as to whether inputs from the community have informed the planning. The dates reflecting the meetings held with the communities however are reflected in the IDP reports. In relation to “*imbizos*” it appears public participation conducted in the auspices of the Provincial Government and not necessarily for IDP process was regarded as the municipality’s community participation. The Performance Management Plan was referred to in the IDP, but there was no comprehensive policy for performance management included. The presentation of the IDP and its attached plans reflect an amount of academic research in compilation. Most content was derived from secondary data from other researches that took place within the area. For example documents that informed the planning were that of researches conducted for different purposes than IDP. The compilers of the documents however did well in acknowledging the sources and gave credibility of the data as well as reflecting on the bias of adopting the 1996 census data and 2001.

#### **6.2.4 IDP Review for Mutale Local Municipality**

In 2001 Mutale Local Municipality produced its first Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as required by the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 (Mutale Municipality IDP Review Document for 2008/2009). According to the Mutale Local Municipality IDP Review document of 2008/2009, the 2001 IDP document was aimed at guiding the municipality as a tool for speeding up service delivery and serves as a five year strategic plan of the Council in addressing the service backlogs. It was reported that the municipality has reviewed its five-year plan annually with the last time of the 2006-2011 term of council being 2010. The Mutale Local Municipality planning processes were developed through the assistance of an external service provider being Hannes Lerm and Associates Town Planners in a joint venture with Glen Steyn and Associates Development Economists. So basically the IDP process was outsourced to outside consultants. Based on the 2008/2009 IDP Review Document of Mutale Local Municipality, the framework of the Mutale Local Municipality comprise of four (4) phases. The first phase provide for analysis which covers background and analysis of priority issues. The second phase is classified as strategies while the third phase is classified as projects. The fourth phase provide for integration which comprises of sector plans. The sector plans compiled and approved by the council are

Waste Management Plan, Disaster Management Plan, Communication Strategy, Spatial Development Framework, Performance Management System, Water Service Plan, Organisational Structure, Local Economic Development (LED) Strategy, Five Year Financial Plan, and Indigent Policy. In as much as the phases were not cumbersome as compared to that of Makhado Local Municipality, it is not clear as to whether the IDP address its purposes. Given the rural nature of the municipality, contents of the IDPs do not reflect the state of the municipality in reality. Integrated Development Planning (IDP) concepts are contextualised fictitiously for the sake of reporting or fulfilling the statutory obligations.

#### **6.2.5 IDP Review for Thulamela Local Municipality**

According to the Thulamela Local Municipality IDP Review document of 2008/2009, a new system of local government was inaugurated on 05 December 2000. Government by then commissioned service providers to develop Interim Integrated Development Planning (IDP) for municipalities while preparing the IDP's Five year Plan (Thulamela Municipality IDP Review 2008/2009). The initial Integrated Development Planning (IDP) for the municipality was adopted by the municipal Council in 2001. The newly elected Council from March 2006 has continued operating in terms of the IDP adopted by the previous Council. That in essence refers to the 2001 IDP. The municipality based its analysis for the reviewing of IDP within the context of legislations that governs local government. Mention was made of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa with specific reference to section 152; the Local Government Municipal System Act 32 of 2000 with specific reference to sections 25 (1), 26, 34, and 41; and the Project Consolidate Framework. Based on the 2008/2009 IDP review document of the Thulamela Local Municipality, the contents of the municipality's IDP comprised of Situation analysis; Vision for long term development of the municipality with emphasis on development and internal transformation needs; Development level; Council's development priorities, objectives and local economic development aims; Council developmental strategies; an operational strategy; a financial plan, and key performance indicators and performance targets. The aspects addressed mainly addresses matters required to compile the IDP without operationalisation as how they are done in real planning for the municipality. The municipality's IDP did not have a comprehensive performance management system and a disaster management plan as required. The lack of a disaster management plan is in contradiction with the reported project of the construction of a Disaster Management Centre in Thohoyandou Town Block J by the District Municipality. In the same document it is further articulated that there is a need for study to be conducted to identify areas that need Disaster Management satellite

points because of the vastness of the area. The report further acknowledged that while Disaster Management remains the responsibility of the Vhembe District Municipality, there is a need for the municipality to continuously train Disaster Management Committees in all the municipal areas so that they can be able to develop responsive strategies to deal with all forms of disaster whenever it strikes. In a Social Cluster Key Performance Area (KPA) there is a Key Performance Indicator (KPI) on Disaster Management with a deliverable project of Disaster Management Centre Tents x 2 and vehicles x2. This statement is reflected in the same document that statutory it has to provide for the Disaster Management Plan in terms of the Disaster Management Act 57 of 2000. The provision of Spatial Development Framework is referred to the undertaking by the provincial department of Local Government and Housing that have promised to assist the municipality. The IDP document reflects very little on the municipality in terms of ideal planning itself. It lacks basics emanating from even conceptualisation on concepts used throughout the planning. It appears the compilers were not clear on basic planning ideal as well as the purpose of the IDP. For example it is not reflected on how the actual project plans of the municipality are integrated with that of other sectors given the fact that the municipality is predominantly rural with the bigger area that is not proclaimed. Basically the whole area of the municipality comprises of traditional land. It can be concluded therefore that the IDP of Thulamela Local Municipality is not reflecting the reality. On scrutinising the copy of the IDP submitted to the Member of the Executive Council (MEC) of the Province responsible for local government in Limpopo as required by law, it was established that the face value of the document was poorly compiled in terms of formatting and grammatical errors in relation to informing genuine local government planning. Its contents were pasted from relevant legislation governing development of IDP's without contextualisation and operationalisation as to the extent to which such prescripts have informed real planning.

Through the review of IDPs as presented in the paragraphs above, it has been observed that each municipality within the district have its own way of dealing with the IDP. In as much as the regulations provide on how municipalities should go about in compilation of IDPs, still there are differences ranging from the structuring of the whole plan to contextualisation of phases of planning. For example the Makhado Local Municipality have a number of phases within its planning process that are different from those of either Mutale Local Municipality as well as Thulamela Local Municipality. Yet the planning

framework of those municipalities is done by the same district municipality, being Vhembe District Municipality.

The other observation is that the level of comprehension of the phases in planning differs from municipality to municipality. It is derived from the IDPs of Thulamela Local Municipality that there is minimal comprehension of the actual implementation of planning as there are contrasting issues. For example the municipality reported that it does not have a Disaster Management Plan in place yet it has budgeted for vehicles for disaster management office. These are contrasting issues within the plan of the same municipality. It further reflects that the IDPs themselves are not addressing realistic issues on the ground. The IDPs are just academic documents that are created to fulfil the statutory obligations as required by law.

### **6.3 State of Performance Management**

The state of performance management in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area is presented collectively in this paragraph. Based on the reviewed IDP's of all municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area, there is no single municipality which had a comprehensive performance management system developed for the municipality despite the statutory requirements as provided for in paragraph 4.6.3, paragraph 4, except reports in the IDP documents. The framework and development a comprehensive performance management system per municipality could therefore not be established in relation to the theoretical basis provide for in chapter 4 of this study. Some of the municipalities had however referred to key performance areas and key performance targets in the IDP's, but it is not clear how this key performance areas and key performance targets have been established or are related to the overall performance management system as there is none in place. According to the 2007/2012 IDP document of Vhembe District Municipality it is reported that the municipal manager and all managers directly accountable to the municipal manager have signed performance agreements for 2006/2007 financial year with the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP), Key Performance Areas and targets for 2006/2007 having been set and approved. The SDBIP is however not reflected in the IDP despite the requirement by the provisions of section 53 of the Local Government Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003. These have been noted to be a trend in all other municipalities under review. It was further reported that the first quarterly performance assessment was conducted in October 2006. The same document further reported that there were still challenges with

regards to Information Technology (IT) system and human resource to administer the Performance Management System (PMS) in the institution. The PMS's electronic system cannot run concurrently with other programmes due to poor network capacity and it was thus still being run manually. The study could not establish the existence of such an IT performance management system. It was however established that what was referred to as the IT Performance Management system was actually an electronic version of the Balanced Score Card performance measurement toolkit instead of comprehensive Performance Management Systems as articulated in paragraph 4.6.3, chapter 4 of this study. There was no designated Performance Management System (PMS) and transformation staff to manage the programme at the time but the reviewed Performance Management System (PMS) framework for that year was still to be tabled in Council during March 2007 and performance bonuses were not budgeted for. The report itself was contradictory and reflects very little in the purposeful nature of Performance Management System (PMS). That implies that performance bonuses were not going to be paid for that year even if there happen to be such a requirement in terms of performance assessment informed by the reported about Performance Management System (PMS). The 2009/2010 IDP review document however report that the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) are reviewed annually in line with the IDP review process and organisational performance review meetings are held quarterly. Reports on organisational performance of Management and Department of Local Government and Housing (DLGH) are submitted quarterly in terms of section 46 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. It was also reported in the annual report that was compiled and tabled to Council for approval on an annual basis which emphasises the need to comply with the Auditor General's report requirement that was to give percentages on quarterly and annual organisational performance. Individual performance management was said to have been established and was implemented by means of compilation and signing of performance agreements by employees. Individual Performance Review (Assessments) is done quarterly. The district *Batho Pele* forum is in place which deals with *Batho Pele* principles, service standard, name tags and signage. There is a need to establish customer service desk which will deal with issues raised by client through suggestion box and personal visit. On overall of the review of the state of Performance Management System (PMS) within the Vhembe as a District Municipality, very little reflect the comprehensiveness of the system itself, unless it is just a challenge of reporting. But the variable in the empirical analysis to be presented in the ensuing paragraph give another picture to this aspect.

In the introduction of the IDP review for 2008/2009, the Thulamela Local Municipality has referred to a framework for Key Performance Areas (KPA) and Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) that needed to be the benchmark for the municipality to function properly during the period 2006 to 2012. The document went further mentioning Financial Viability and Financial Management; Service Delivery and Infrastructure Development; Local Economic Development; Municipal Transformation and Institutional Development; Good Governance and Community Participation as Key Performance Areas (KPA's) for the ensuing five years as from 2006. In terms of the IDP review document the Thulamela Local Municipality it was recorded that one of the benefits derived from its participation in the Project Consolidate Program was the Performance Management System Framework whereby all managers accountable to the municipal manager in terms of section 57 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 have signed the performance agreements. Issues of performance are further raised on the aspect of Review Process within the IDP review document in the form of monitoring and evaluation of the IDP implementation. In that part monitoring and evaluation are conceptualised to be in context in relation to their applicability in Thulamela Local Municipality IDP Review processes. The concepts are clarified as follows:

*“This is how the implementation of IDP measured (successor lack thereof) in relation to the implementation of the IDP. Monitoring and evaluation are seen as two separate processes. Monitoring will focus on measuring the quantities aspects of the implementation of the IDP, whereas evaluation will measure the level of client satisfaction with the implementation of the IDP”* (Thulamela Municipality IDP Review: 2007/2008-2011/2012).

Basically the Thulamela Local Municipality, like other review municipalities has through the whole IDP reporting; just reflect about Performance Management System (PMS), without an indication on the actual operationalisation of the system. The mere fact that all managers appointed in terms of section 57 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 have signed performance agreements is not reducible to a performance management system. The signing of performance agreement by section 57 employees is a legal requirement. But however such requirement must be informed or based on the availability of a comprehensive Performance Management System (see chapter 4, paragraph 4.6.3).

In its annual report for 2004/2005 the Makhado Local Municipality reported that the municipality has a Performance Management System (PMS) in place, but the Auditor General's audit report for the same year reflect that there is no Performance Management System (PMS) in place. It can however be

mentioned through direct involvement of the researcher that the Makhado Local Municipality's municipal manager for the term of 2001 to 2004 with two out of six of the managers accountable to the municipal manager appointed in terms of section 57 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 did sign their employment contracts based on performance. The other managers accountable to the municipal manager could not sign their employment contracts as they were involved on what was referred to as political problems between them and the mayor of the municipality at the time. The municipal manager needed those problems to be sorted out "politically" as they were involving the ruling party. These incidents took place as those managers were presenting the argument to both the Mayor and the Council's Executive Committee that they are "deployed" by the ruling party as such the wanted the ruling party to determine terms of their conditions of performance based on the political mandate. That in it included the determination of salary scales and packages. The arrangement at the time was that after all managers appointed in terms of Section 57 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, the Performance Management System (PMS) will be cascaded down to within the whole municipality based on the 2001 Municipal Planning and Performance Regulations. All the IDP documents review for Makhado Local Municipality had however never reflected such performance management system implemented. Analysis of the empirical data to be presented in the ensuing paragraphs also shed more light on this. However, ironically performance bonuses were however paid to all managers accountable to the municipal manager including the municipal manager in 2003. The performance bonuses were based on the individual employment contracts of managers accountable to the municipal manager as there was no comprehensive performance management system in place at the time. The situation was still the same on 2011 as affirmed through the interviews conducted with the Municipal Manager. Case 2 as presented below reflect on the scenario as narrated by the researcher. In essence the payment of performance bonuses proceeded the fully development of the Performance Management System (PMS) in Makhado Local Municipality. The trend went on to an extent that even when the Municipal Manager who served the period of 2001 – 2004 had left the council's employ, his successor also continues accessing a performance bonus without the system in place. These are a reflection of the existence of the internal structure in human agents within the notion of complexity theory as discussed in chapter 3. Managers employed in terms of section 57 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 as well as the Municipal Manager made all efforts that they convinced the Council's Executive Committee to approve the payment of such bonuses despite the nonexistence of a comprehensive performance management system. The incumbent municipal manager

and managers accountable to the municipal manager were driven by what literature referred to as emotional inspiration, honesty and deception. Reports that were tabled before the Municipal Council was motivated to benefit individual managers as agents (see paragraph 4.6.3).

### **Case 1: The payment of performance bonuses in Makhado Local Municipality**

The Makhado Local Municipality use to have its council meetings bimonthly until the MEC of Local Government and Housing gave a directive that council meetings must be held on quarterly basis. All matters to be considered by Council are tabled before the municipality's executive committee for recommendation. Matters are categorised in terms of A items and B items. "A" items consist of issues that are not delegated to the council's executive committee and require only recommendations for final decision by council. "B" items are matters delegated to the council's executive committee and they can be finalised at that level. Since the finalisation of the municipal manager's appointment, the processes that followed was that of the establishment of new structures and systems as required by the Local Government Systems Act 32 of 2000. The municipal manager was appointed on contractual performance basis that required that payment of the annual bonus be based on performance assessment. The municipality operated for the whole year with only the municipal manager appointed in terms of the provisions of the newly established system of local government. The other staff members were serving on acting capacity as the Task Team appointed by the municipal council was still at the time negotiating the new structural establishment with the local Trade Unions. The municipal manager as appointed in terms of the provisions of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 could not receive his annual bonus for that year like other general workforce as his appointment contract was not within the general conditions of service that was inclusive of other personnel. The municipal manager therefore approached the sitting mayor as the chairperson of the council's executive committee about his outstanding bonus payment. The mayor then unilaterally gave directive to the acting head of the department of finance to pay the performance bonus of the municipal manager. The performance bonus was paid by the acting chief of finance and the mayor make an announcement about the process in the Council meeting. There was no performance management system in place considered by neither council nor a performance assessment report considered at that time. It was a decision to pay the performance bonus emanated from the discussions that took place between the mayor and the municipal manager. There was no official report served before council on the matter as such there were no administrative advisory inputs from various functionaries of the municipality.

## **6.4 State of Community Participation**

In terms of the 2007/2012 IDP document of the Vhembe District Municipality the District has launched the Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) forum in August 2006. It was however reported that IGR meetings are not regularly convened. The only forum that meets regularly was the District Communicator's forum. The District Inter-Sectoral steering committee was reported to be under review at the stage with the Language policy and Communication strategy ready for submission to Council for approval. The communications unit was resident in the Office of the Executive Mayor following a restructuring process and the unit was at that stage not well capacitated in terms of staff. It was reported that capacitation of such communication units would receive attention in the new financial year. IDP meetings with local municipalities' IDP officials were reported to be held regularly. In Makhado Local Municipality it was found that the municipality has developed a community participation strategy in the form of a comprehensive policy document included in the municipality's 2006/2007 annual report. The comprehensive communication plan developed covers the years 2006/2007/2008. The developed

Communication Plan was reported to be informed by the Communication Plan 2006/2007/2008 developed around May to June 2005 by the Limpopo Department of Local Government and Housing, Limpopo Province, Vhembe District Communication Forum Plan and also the programme of the National Government championed through GCIS, Local Communication Forum also the material conditions of our communities and also the programme Consolidation Plan by the Local Department of Local Government, Limpopo and it was guided by 2006/7, 2007/8 or 2008/9 financial year budgeted IDP Process Plan (Makhado Municipality Communication Plan, 2006/2007/2008).

The Thulamela Local Municipality was found not to have any comprehensive community participation strategy except the provision of the IDP consultative process outlined in the IDP (Thulamela Municipality IDP Review of 2007/2008). It was stated that the Thulamela IDP Representative Forum was established that comprises of representatives of geographical areas also referred to as wards in terms of the report, stakeholder organisations and disadvantaged groups. Members of the Thulamela IDP Representative Forum were informed on the intended participation process and procedure through various Ward Committee workshops. Questionnaires were said to have been distributed to all villages to assess service delivery backlogs and challenges and the outcomes are compiled and consolidated in the Draft IDP document that is considered by both IDP Representative Forum and Council. This study had however not been provided with a copy nor specimen of such questionnaire during research as such it could not be factually established that indeed such questionnaires were circulated. The exact number of IDP Representative Forum members was not available except that according to organisations or stakeholders listed in the IDP Review document, 45 organisations or stakeholders were listed. Although some of the listed organisations or stakeholders reflect a category instead of an identifiable stakeholder or organisation. For example the list includes organised church formations, non-governmental organisations, organised business formations, and apolitical youth and woman formations. The difficulty was to establish the manner in which among church formations, non-governmental organisations or business formations as well as other structures are represented given the generalisation as reflected. Each comprises of sub-structures depending on its way of organising.

The Musina Local Municipality have provided for public participation as part of IDP reporting. There was no separate comprehensive policy providing for community participation. It has been mentioned in chapter 4, paragraph 4.6.2 of the study that the conceptualisation of public participation as distinct from

community participation provide a complexity in terms of context. It appears in Musina Local Municipality the concept public participation feature much instead of community participation. Yet literature has shown that community participation is distinct from public participation, citizen participation as well as stakeholder participation. Mutale Local Municipality provide for community participation as the Community Strategy provided for in the IDP Review of 2008/2009. For example, there was no accurate information as to the number of church denominations within the municipality. Such numbers of church denominations are diverse in nature to form a well-defined church formation structure. That was the same with business community. That reflects that the municipality have no accurate number or idea of the number of stakeholders within its area for community participation. This brings the notion that in complexity rubric the system comprises of a number of agents and subsystems that are interacting. At times the system cannot define itself due its dynamic nature that in most cases is local in terms of postmodern ontology (see chapter 3). Eventually the municipality could hardly define nor identify what constitute an IDP Representative Forum for community participation purposes (see paragraph 4.6.2.1, chapter 4). Case 2 as narrated below confirm such challenges as throughout the renaming of Louis Trichardt Town to Makhado Town, the municipality was convinced that proper community participation was properly done. Only to find out that the matter is set aside by the High Court.

On community participation, just like other developmental duties like IDP as a whole and Performance Management System (PMS), very little is reflected that relate to the statutory ideal of community participation as outlined in the literature provided in Chapter 4. There is no mention of ward committees as tools for community participation. This is despite the background of the rural nature of some of the local municipalities with villages under traditional leadership that predominately use the traditional “Khoró” as a means of reaching out to communities. It is however reflected on the variable of community participation as to the empirical state within municipalities. In general community participation is presented as a means of fulfilling statutory obligation provided for by relevant legislation without regard for its purpose of effectively ensuring developmental local government.

## **Case 2: The renaming of the Louis Trichardt Town to Makhado**

Establishment of Makhado Local Municipality was done in terms of the proclamation of the Member of the Executive Council of the Limpopo Province responsible for local government in terms of section 12 of Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. The establishment was done in a short space of the run-up to the 2000 local government that was to mark the final phase of local government transformation in South Africa. The Makhado Local Municipality was at the time known as the Greater Louis Trichardt Transitional Local Council. Upon proclamation it was named Makhado Local Municipality. Through interrogation in various meetings within the municipal council structures it was confirmed that the name came about as the position of the ruling party when it was naming all municipalities within the region. The matter was not pursued further as it was a new name for a newly established municipality and other names like that of Louis Trichardt Town were not affected. The matter became an issue when suggestions start that the town's name has to be changed to be aligned with that of a municipality as the main economic harbour of the municipality. This was triggered also by the recurrence of major activities which were hosted by the municipality which were still based on the name Louis Trichardt. For example one of the major annual events in the municipal area was the Louis Trichardt Annual Show. The show attracts audience from all over the countries. For it to remain Louis Trichardt Show was misrepresentation of the municipality as it appears that it is meant for those staying in town that happen to be predominantly white people? The re-naming process had to be based on a principle that the name must be able to bring unity. Suggestions were that the proper way is to bring about a name which will not create hegemony by advantaging other groups' history and disadvantaging others. For example the name of Louis Trichardt was seen as advantaging the whites and disadvantage black people within the area that happen to the majority of Venda and Shangaan ethnic group. Throughout the process it was proposed that the Shangaans will be recognised by naming one street in town to be Hlanganani. That will allow good space for bargaining the name Makhado. The other challenge was that the name Makhado was already registered with the National Geographic Council as the name of a proclaimed township in Nzhelele area within the Makhado Local Municipality. The municipal council has to take an urgent resolution to change the name of the proclaimed Makhado Township to Dzanani to give allowance for the renaming of Louis Trichardt Town. The process has been welcome by protest of self-organised structures like the Hlanganani Concerned Group and the Chairpersons Association. It was felt that changing the name to Makhado who is the 17<sup>th</sup> century king of Vha-Venda is meant to affirm the ethnic hegemony of the Venda speaking group which appeared to be simmering within the administration of the local municipality. Various meetings and presentations to the mayor and the council's executive committee were made by various structures including the local business forums. The municipal council eventually took decision to change the name of Louis Trichardt Town to Makhado Town. Various groups protested and submit memoranda. The impression of on the side of councillors it was that there is an opposition party spearheading the protests. One was even having a difficulty to comment as part of management because it was also labelled as the Venda Shangaan issue. The Chairpersons Association challenged the matter to the High Court and judgement was handed in their favour. The name of Louis Trichardt had to be reinstated.

### **6.5 Respondents' Assessments of Complexity, Implementation of Developmental Local Government, and Complexities Effects on the Realization of Government Objectives**

As it was reflected during the introduction of the study as well as in Chapter 5 that stated in detail the research methodology adopted in the study, qualitative data that has been collected and presented through various forms in the previous chapters, quantitative data has also been collected through the methodology described in paragraph 5.3.6, chapter 5. Such quantitative data is presented in the ensuing paragraphs through tables and graphical presentations. The data for all municipalities surveyed is presented in the form of tables and graphs alternatively immediately after the statement that was probed through a questionnaire. Analysis of each statement probing study objective area and interpretation are provided immediately below each table. Presentation and analysis of each statement within the sub-theme that is in relation to the research objective identified is followed by the summative presentation, which will be in either the form of a table or graph, of all responses within such objective probed.

### 6.5.1. Demographics of the Respondents

A total of 204 respondents were sampled from the Local and District Municipalities (table 6.1). The District level demographics show a domination of males, which could as well be regarded as an anomaly because the municipalities in question are largely rural. In South Africa, rurality has historically been associated with the domination of females due to the imperatives of apartheid capitalism. In this study, the domination of males could be a significant indicator that women continue to be discriminated and left in the private sphere of households whilst males are taking up jobs in municipalities. This observation highlights the inherent perpetuation of gender disparities in terms of access to employment, even by municipalities. That is, government agencies too appear to have not assisted the gender redress in terms of access to employment. Only Musina Local Municipality is an exception because its sample is dominated by females.

**Table 6.1:** Gender of the respondents sampled from the local and district municipalities by percentage of subtotal

		Makhado	Musina	Mutale	Thulamela	Vhembe
Gender	<b>Male (%)</b>	51.2	42.5	55.0	62.5	40.0
	<b>Female (%)</b>	48.8	52.5	45.0	35.0	25.0
	<b>Unspecified (%)</b>	-	5.0	-	2.5	35.0
Total per Local Municipality & District (Frequency)		43	40	40	41	40
Cumulative Frequency Total		43	83	123	164	204
Percentage of the Grand Total		21.1	19.6	19.6	20.1	19.6
Cumulative Percentage		21.1	40.7	60.3	80.4	100

Importantly, though, the embeddedness of the historical gender discrimination and inequalities in the sample demonstrates that local development within the democratic dispensation was destined to involve serious complexities. That is, the local developmental state cannot just deliver development goods because males would inherently continue to have the ability to take advantage of the productive opportunities whilst females remain vulnerable to poverty and inequality. Local developmental government system is therefore required to be complex by design in order to tackle the legacies of colonialism and apartheid without necessarily reinventing reversed discrimination against males.

Inevitably, the South Africa’s developmental local government system entails sophisticated expertise to be operationalized with a measure of success. The following section of this chapter seeks to establish the nature and implications of the complexities of the developmental local government system in regard to the public functionaries’ daily operations. Hereunder, the respondents’ views are solicited among public functionaries in the four local municipalities and the district on a variety of questions designed to determine the nature and implications of complexities as they apply to their daily operations.

### 6.5.2 Nature and Implications of Complexities of Developmental Local Government System: Respondents’ Views

The statistical presentation as presented below in the form of both tables and graphs reflects high frequencies in terms of presentation. For example those who agree in Makhado Local Municipality are above 70% of the sample that is comprised of 20% strongly agreed and 50% agree. The same trend is also reflected in Mutale Local Municipality with 70% in terms of frequencies. Musina Local Municipality and Thulamela Local Municipality tops the graph with 80%. These cumulative percentages also are informed by the average mean in each municipality. The overall mean for Makhado Local Municipality on the same variable was 2, 38 while the mean for Mutale Local Municipality was 2, 2. The probing statement number five (5) and eleven (11) on the same variable in both municipalities reflected a significantly high frequency, but the attitudinal factor is different. Both Makhado Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality are in agreement on statement 5, but they differ in statement 11.

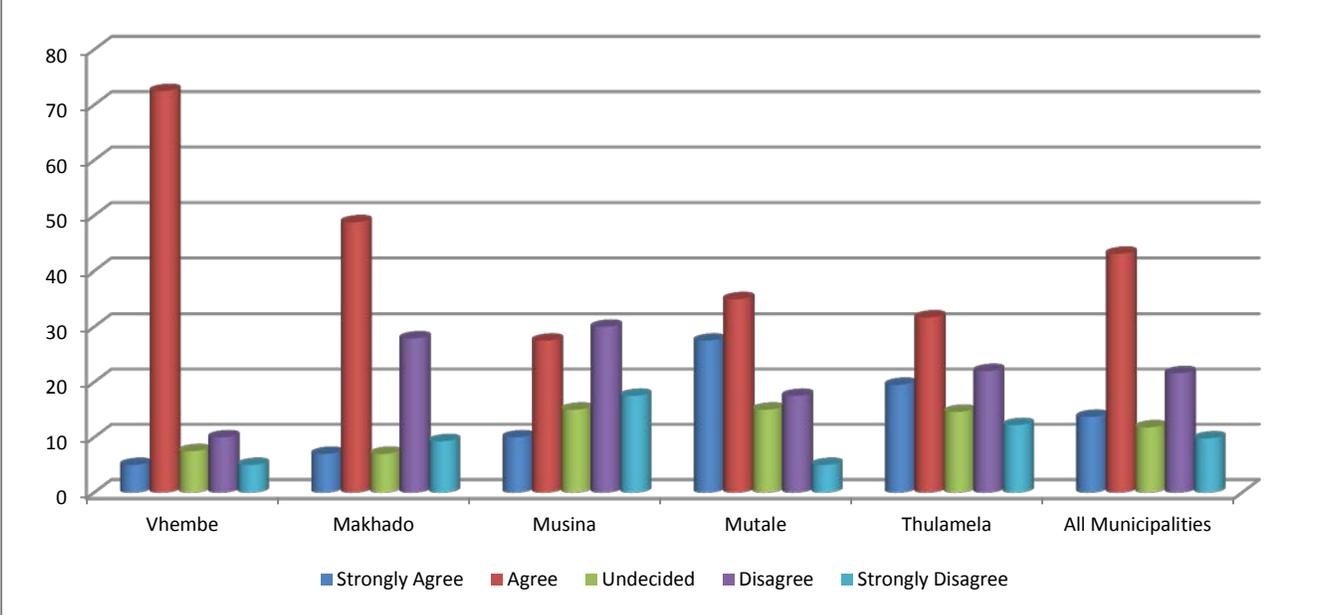
**Table 6.2:** Views on stakeholder interaction with municipality for developmental local government

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	7	17.5	15	34.9	24	60.0	24	60.0	16	39.0	86	42.2
<b>Agree</b>	31	77.5	26	60.5	10	25.0	15	37.5	22	53.7	104	50.9
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	-	-	3	7.5	-	-	1	2.4	6	2.9
<b>Disagree</b>	-	-	1	2.3	1	2.5	1	2.5	-	-	3	1.5
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	1	2.3	2	5.0	-	-	2	4.9	5	2.5
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The views on stakeholder interactions within the municipality was probed through a statement that it is necessary for a number of stakeholders to interact with the municipality to realise development local

government. Respondents on this statement indicate that there is agreement with the notion of the necessity of a number of stakeholders to interact with the municipality to realised developmental local government, 95% was on strongly agree/agree with only 5% undecided. The responses confirm that it is necessary for a number of stakeholders to interact with the municipality to realise development local government.

**Figure 6.1:** Diversity of community stakeholder involved developmental local government



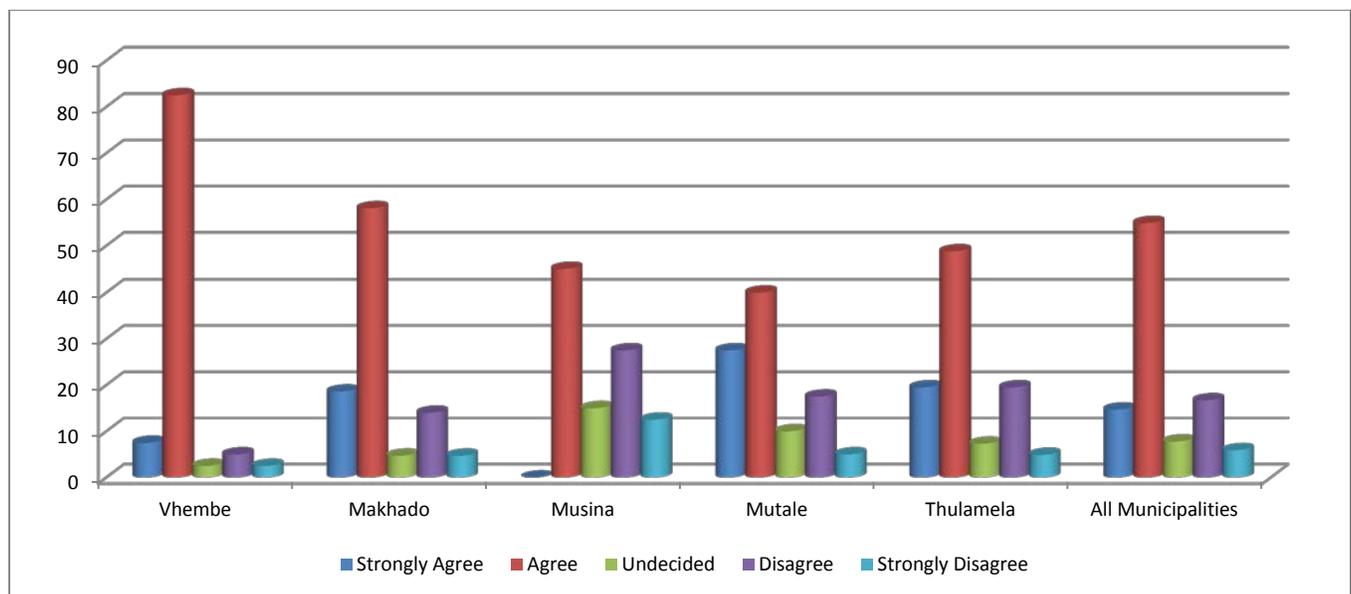
To establish whether the involvement of diverse community stakeholders make it difficult for the implementation of developmental local government mandate, differing responses were solicited. In all surveyed municipalities brought together, a total of 56, 8% were in both agreed and strongly agree with the statement. However the frequencies varied from municipality to municipality. For example in Vhembe District Municipality those in agreement and strongly agree they summed up to 77, 5% while those of Musina Local Municipality recorded 37, 5%. This variation is attributed to embedded complexities in that these municipalities are within the same District and apply the same developmental framework but there appear to be extremes in the views of involvement of community stakeholders in developmental local government.

**Table 6.3:** Methods that the municipality can mobilise energy, capacity and resources outside the municipality for the development of the area.

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	6	15.0	10	23.3	14	35.0	19	47.5	12	29.3	61	29.9
<b>Agree</b>	29	72.5	28	65.1	19	47.5	16	40.0	24	58.5	116	56.9
<b>Undecided</b>	3	7.5	2	4.7	4	10.0	3	7.5	3	7.3	15	7.4
<b>Disagree</b>	2	5.0	2	4.7	1	2.5	2	5.0	2	4.9	9	4.4
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	1	2.3	2	5.0	-	-	-	-	3	1.5
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

In establishing whether there are a variety of methods that municipalities can use to mobilise energy, capacity and resources outside the municipality for the development of the area, a total of 56, 9% were in agreement and 29, 9% strongly agree with the statement. The trend on the agreement side showed a high percentage in all municipalities. In total of both agree and strongly agree each municipality recorded over 80% with a very low percentage of undecided and those not agreeing. The responses confirm that in dealing with complex systems like that of developmental local government, there is always a more than one method for mobilising energy, capacity and resources outside the municipality area. That in it is complexity in terms of character as provided for in terms of chapter 3 of this study.

**Figure 6.2:** Challenges of the involvement of a number of diverse communities in realising developmental local government



There is generally agreement in that the involvement of a number of diverse communities poses a challenge in realising developmental local government within four of the municipalities surveyed, namely; Makhado Local Municipality with 58, 1% agree and 18, 6% strongly agree; Mutale Local Municipality with 40% agree and 27, 5% strongly agree; Thulamela Local Municipality with 48, 8% agree and 19, 5% strongly agree; as well as Vhembe District Municipality with 82, 5% agree and 7, 5% strongly agree while Musina Local Municipality however recorded only 45% of agreement with the statement with 15% undecided. In as much as those in agreement are below 50% with regard to Musina Local Municipality, the percentage is still higher than those in disagreement with the statement. That makes those in agreement with the statement to be the majority. It is therefore deduced that the involvement of a number of diverse communities in a municipality poses a challenge in realising developmental local government. This result to complex interactions within the scope of developmental local government as envisaged.

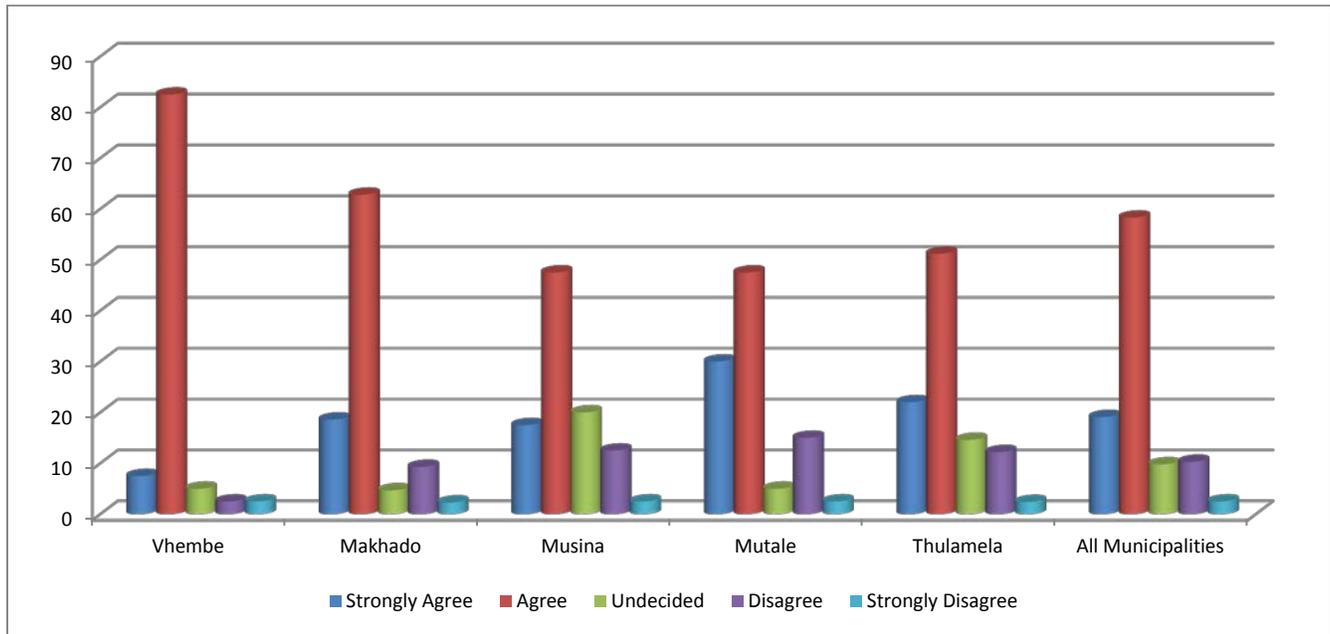
**Table 6.4:** Bringing diverse communities to a common vision and mission within a single municipality

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	4	10.0	-	-	2	5.0	8	20.0	5	12.2	19	9.3
<b>Agree</b>	27	67.5	24	55.8	21	52.5	15	37.5	25	61.0	112	54.9
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	2	4.7	4	10.0	2	5.0	2	4.9	12	5.9
<b>Disagree</b>	4	10.0	11	25.6	10	25.0	12	30.0	6	14.6	43	21.1
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	3	7.5	6	14.0	3	7.5	3	7.5	3	7.3	18	8.8
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The frequencies of responses on the statement of a difficulty in bringing diverse communities to a common vision and mission within a single municipality, majority agreed with the statement. There however also considerable number of those who did not agree with the statement although not consisting of the majority of the responses. For example Mutale Local Municipality have registered 30% of disagree and 7, 5% of strongly disagree. Mutale Local Municipality and Makhado Local municipality have each registered 30% of disagree. A notable difference is on the views on strongly disagree in that Makhado Local Municipality have recorded 25% while other municipalities have registered just above 7%. The responses generally affirm that it is indeed difficult to bring diverse communities to a common vision within a single municipality. This is in line with the provisions of literature in complexity theory as provided for in chapter 3 of this study. Those provisions relate to developmental local government as

envisaged in South Africa in that by its character, local government has to embrace diverse communities within a single municipality in a single vision.

**Figure 6.3:** The drive of stakeholders participating in developmental local government



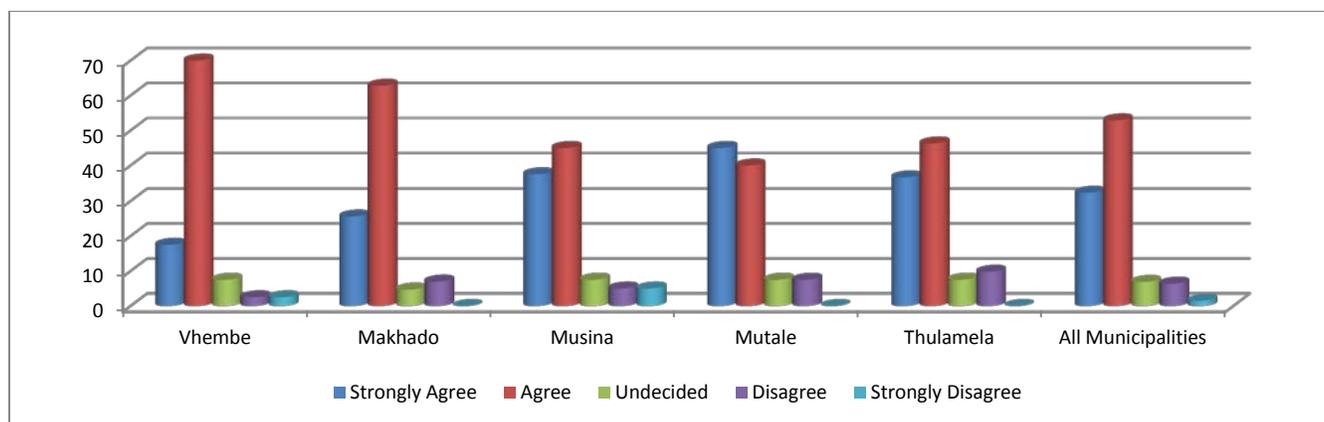
In establishing whether stakeholders participating in municipality governance are sometimes driven by emotions and aspirations, inspiration and anxiety, honesty and deception, imagination and curiosity that result to self-interest, a total of 58, 3% responded in agreement and 19, 1% strongly agrees. There is however a difference in the state responses from various municipalities. For example, there is a highest percentage on those agreeing in Vhembe District Municipality that registered 82, 5% while 7, 5% were in strong agreement. That in essence confirms that 90% of the respondents in Vhembe District Municipality only are in agreement that stakeholders in a municipality are sometimes driven by emotions and aspirations, inspiration and anxiety, honesty and deception, imagination and curiosity that result to self-interest. A notable high percentage of those undecided is however made on respondents' views in Musina Local Municipality that registered 20% with Thulamela Local Municipality registering 14, 6%. In general, there is agreement with the statement. That confirms the existence of internal structure within systems that are involved in local government as expounded in chapter 3. It is the existence of this internal structure that defines complexity of human systems within local government. It is such complexities that limit rational analysis of systems within developmental local government as stakeholders bring with them their complex internal structures.

**Table 6.5:** The development of own individual mental purposes by stakeholders leads to tension between conformity and individualism

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	1	2.5	3	7.0	5	12.5	11	27.5	4	9.8	24	11.8
<b>Agree</b>	29	72.5	23	53.5	19	47.5	18	45.0	23	56.1	112	54.9
<b>Undecided</b>	4	10.0	9	20.9	12	30.0	5	12.5	8	19.5	38	18.6
<b>Disagree</b>	2	5.0	7	16.3	4	10.0	4	10.0	5	12.2	22	10.8
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	4	10.0	1	2.3	-	-	2	5.0	1	2.4	8	3.9
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents on the statement of stakeholders develop their own individual mental purposes leading to tension between conformity and individualism, a total of 54, 9% agreed while 11, 8% strongly agree. A noticeable rise in those undecided in Musina Local Municipality recorded with 30% is observed. Only a total of 14, 7% respondents were on the disagreement side with Makhado Local Municipality having recorded 18, 6% while Vhembe District Municipality, Mutale Local Municipality, and Thulamela Local Municipality have each recorded 15%. Respondents' views confirm that stakeholders do develop own individual mental purposes and lead to tension between conformity and individualism. These confirm the existence of complexities within local government as the statement defines the character of complex systems. This is in line with the provisions of literature as provided for in chapter 3. The fact that there is still a notable percentage of those undecided reflects the impossibility of a rational agreement within activities of a complex system like that of developmental local government. Due to this complexity even if the exercise can be repeated there will still be that small percentage of those undecided or in disagreement.

**Figure 6.4:** Contribution of many different agencies to development within a municipality



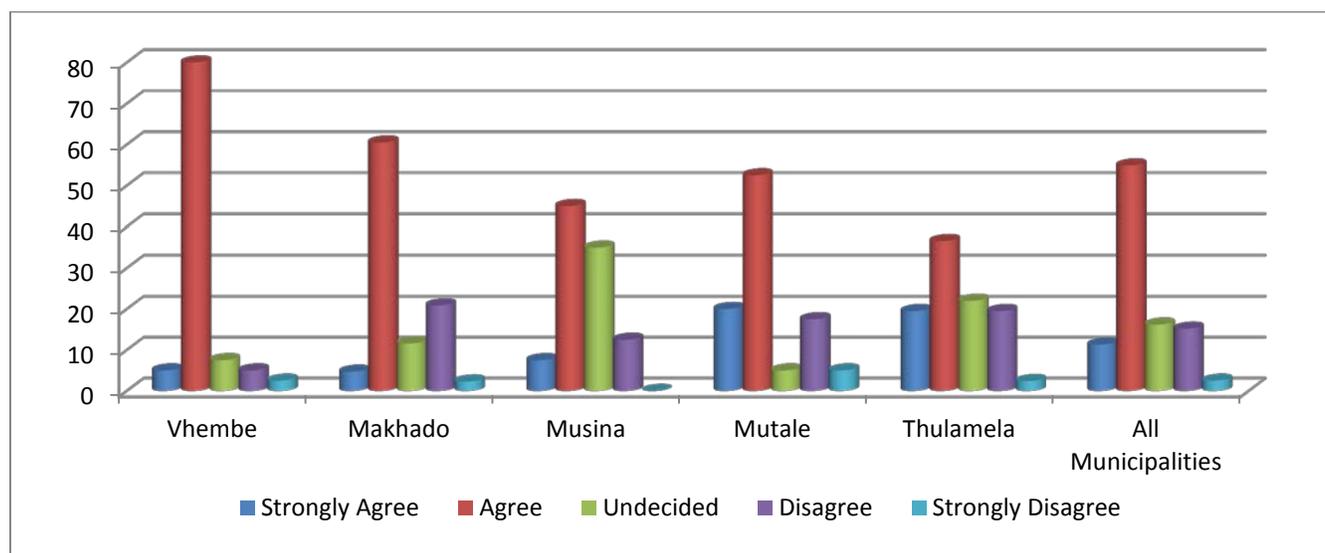
There is generally agreement in that within a municipality, many different agencies contribute to development, including national and provincial departments, parastatals, trade unions, community groups and private sector institutions. Responses recorded a total of 85, 3% in agreement strongly agree. Those undecided recorded a low percentage per municipality that have total average of 6, 9%. The existences of many different agencies that contribute to development with a municipality confirm the character of complexity as provided for by literature in chapter 3.

**Table 6.6:** The awareness of the municipality on divisions within local communities

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	4	10.0	6	14	11	27.5	12	30.0	13	31.7	46	22.6
<b>Agree</b>	25	62.5	24	55.8	21	52.5	16	40.0	16	39.0	102	50.0
<b>Undecided</b>	4	10.0	3	7.0	5	12.5	3	7.5	6	14.6	21	10.3
<b>Disagree</b>	6	15.0	9	20.9	3	7.5	6	15.0	5	12.2	29	14.2
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	1	2.3	-	-	3	7.5	1	2.4	6	2.9
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The respondents' views do confirm that the municipality is aware of the divisions within local communities, and seeks to promote the participation of marginalised and excluded groups in the community process. This is derived from trend of responses from all municipalities that have recorded 50% agreed and 22, 6% strongly agree. It is however observed that Makhado Local Municipality has recorded over 20% of disagree and 2, 3% of strongly disagree. The margin is below the majority within a municipality and that makes it not to be a decisive factor in relation to the intentions of the statement. For the municipality to be aware of divisions within local communities is in line with the character of complex systems as provided for in chapter 3. The divisions make the municipality to have various components that are each independent of the other. The interactions among those components becomes complex as each component is having its own behaviour that is ignorant of the other.

**Figure 6.5:** Capturing of the participatory process by interest groups, community organisations and political parties to achieve narrow interests



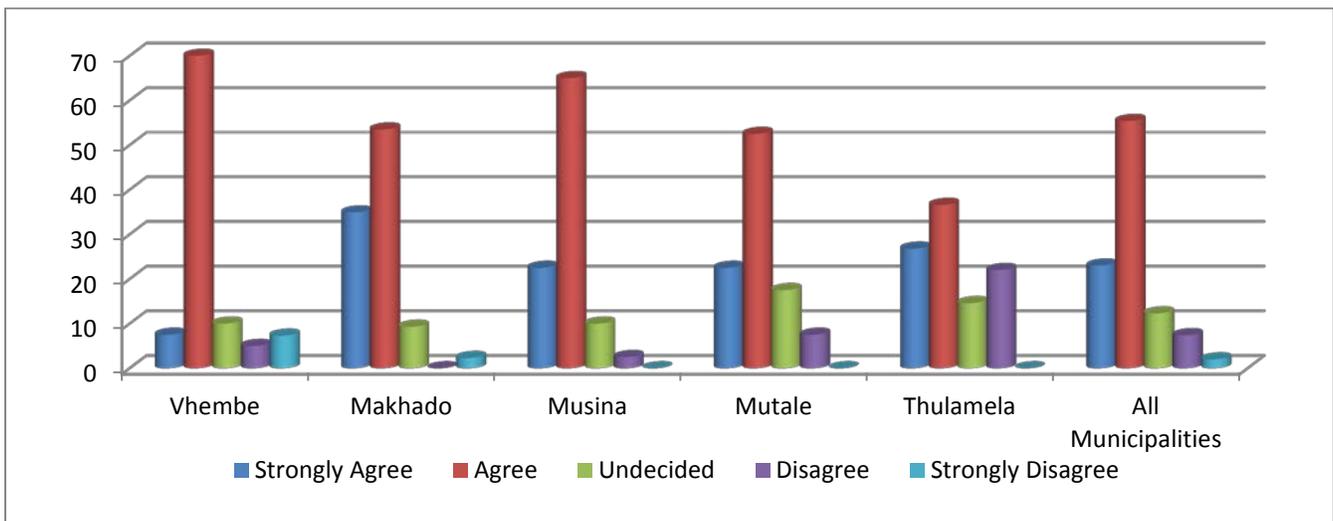
Respondents' views on a statement of interest groups, community organisations and political parties capture the participatory process to achieve narrow interests and become an obstacle to empowerment, in total of all municipalities; 54, 9% agreed and 11, 3% strongly agree. Vhembe District Municipality had the highest recording 80% in agreeing and 5% of strongly agree. Musina Local Municipality recorded the lowest in frequencies of agree being 45% and strongly agree being 7, 5%. Responses in Musina Local Municipality however, were also characterised by high number of undecided standing at 35% followed by Thulamela Local Municipality 22%. It is also observed that Makhado Local Municipality and Thulamela Local Municipality was high on disagreement views that were 20, 9% and 19, 5% respectively. These imbalances however did not affect the range as the majority in all municipalities did comprise of agree and strongly agree.

**Table 6.7:** Ways of achieving local government goals

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	1	2.5	1	2.3	7	17.5	6	15.0	8	19.5	23	11.3
<b>Agree</b>	28	70.0	14	32.6	18	45.0	17	42.5	19	46.3	96	47.1
<b>Undecided</b>	1	2.5	-	-	3	7.5	2	5.0	2	4.9	8	3.9
<b>Disagree</b>	7	17.5	19	44.2	10	25.0	10	25.0	7	17.1	53	26.0
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	3	7.5	9	20.9	2	5.0	5	12.5	5	12.2	24	11.8
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

There is generally agreement in that there is no single correct way to achieve local government goals in that of the total responses, 47, 1% agree with the statement with 11, 3% in strong agreement. Makhado Local Municipality views of respondents however registered the majority being 44, 2% disagree and 20, 9% strongly disagree with the statement. In essence views of majority of respondents of Makhado Local Municipality are that there is a single correct way to achieve local government goals. In as much as those views did not have a majority in other municipalities, a trend is observed in both Musina Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality have recorded 25% of disagree with each recording 5% and 12, 5% strongly agree respectively. Such indicate a considerable percentage as compared to views expressed in other statements. These views are in line with provisions of modern scientific way as provided for by literature in chapter 2. Those views are that of seeking a best way to address problems like that of developmental local government in South Africa.

**Figure 6.6:** Personalities of leaders in local government towards handling aspects of developmental local government



The respondents' views on a statement of personalities of leaders in local government tend to influence the manner they handle aspects of developmental local government; the total of 55, 4% were in agreement and 23% in strongly agree. Thulamela Local Municipality had a high percentage of disagree at 22% with 14, 6% undecided. In general the reflection in terms of responses confirms that personalities of leaders in local tend to influence the manner they handle aspects of developmental local government. Personality constitutes an internal structure in a human complex system found in local government. Interactions that emanate from individual personalities in developmental local government influence the

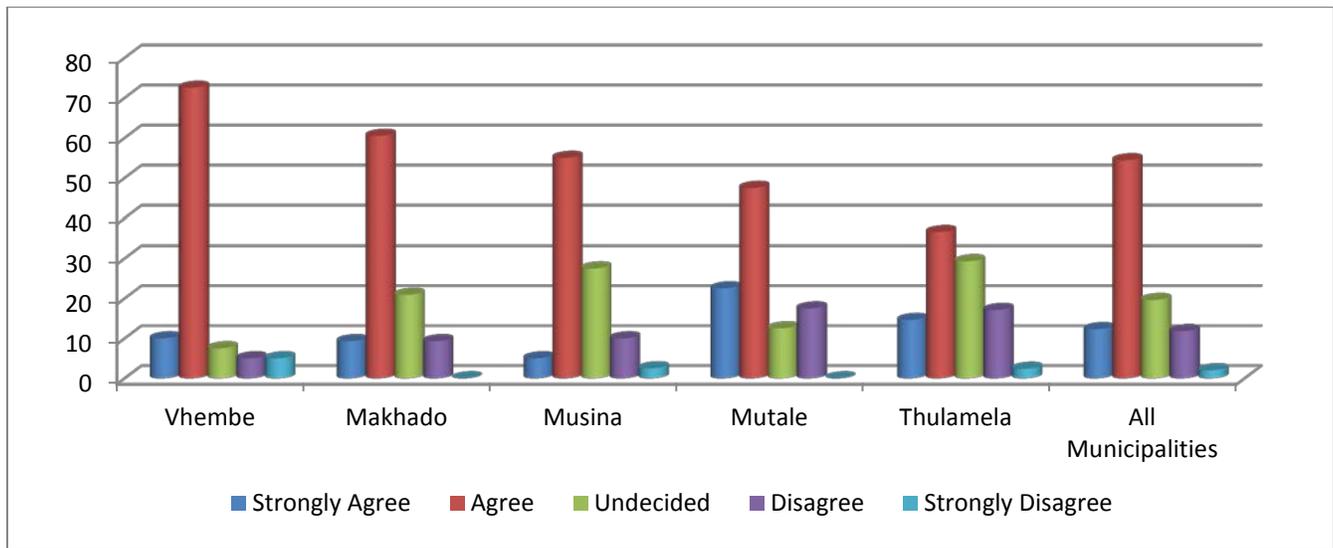
manner such individual deals with issues. That creates complexities in developmental local government as human beings bring with them different personalities.

**Table 6.8:** Conception of cultural values and traditions in the municipality

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	3	7.5	1	2.3	4	10.0	9	22.5	6	14.6	23	11.3
<b>Agree</b>	32	80.0	27	62.8	14	35.0	15	37.5	13	31.7	101	49.5
<b>Undecided</b>	-	-	4	9.3	5	12.5	4	10.0	4	9.8	17	8.3
<b>Disagree</b>	3	7.5	9	20.9	13	32.5	10	25.0	12	29.3	47	23.0
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	2	5.0	2	4.7	4	10.0	2	5.0	6	14.6	16	7.8
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Responses reflect that there is in general, no unitary conception of cultural values and traditions in the municipality. In total of all surveyed municipalities, 49, 5% have recorded agreement with 11, 3% in strong agreement. There are still variations in responses from individual municipalities. For example Musina Local Municipality have recoded 32, 5% in disagreement with the statement and 10% of strongly disagree. Thulamela Local Municipality have recorded has recorded 29, 3% of disagree with 14, 6% of strongly disagree. Despite the high percentage of disagreement with the statement the average is still high on agreement. This affirms that in developmental local government, there can be hardly a unitary conception of cultural values and traditions within a single municipality. Cultures remain a value loaded aspect within communities to an extent that it nearly impossible to conceptualise it within a single rational conception within a single municipality. Those values are interpreted and applied in various ways by various communities. These create complexities within developmental local government especially when systems that are put in place to enhance its implementation are operationalized.

**Figure 6.7:** The conceptual challenge of public administration



Respondents' views on the statement of public administration variables, concepts, categories pose a conceptual challenge during their application in local government as stakeholders always bring their own interpretations; in total of all responses from all municipalities surveyed, 54, 4% agree and 12, 3% strongly agree. There is however a considerable percentage of those undecided especially in Thulamela Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality and Makhado Local Municipality with recording 29, 3%; 27, 5% and 20, 9% respectively. The study attributes such state of undecidedness contextual complexities within developmental local government as also probed in other statements.

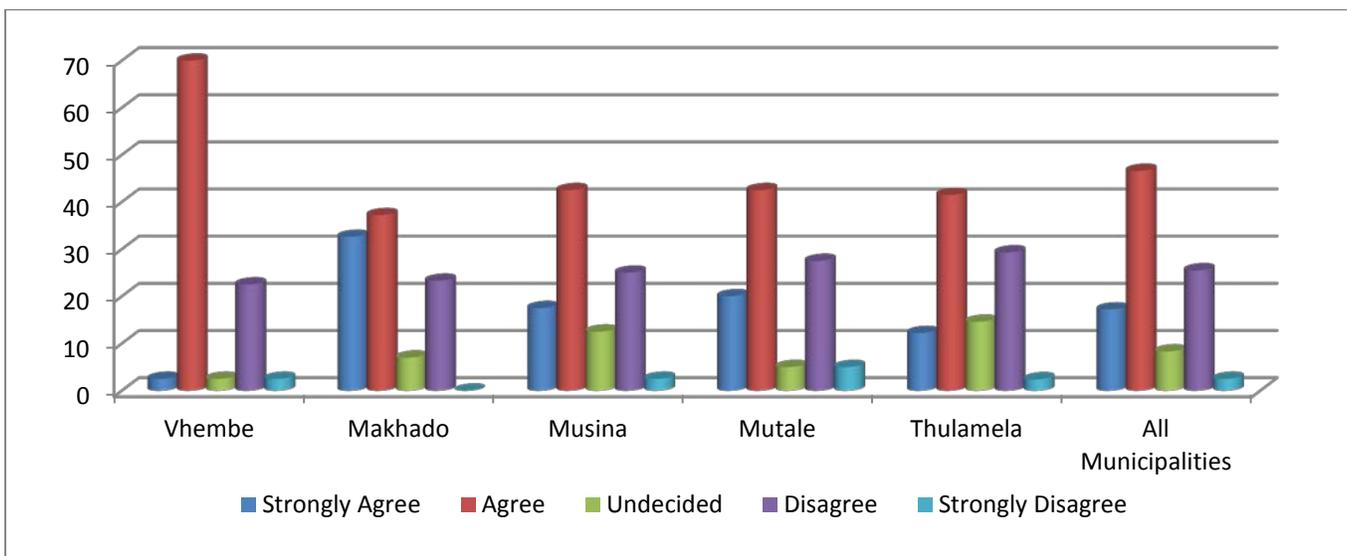
In general, the responses confirm that public administration variables, concepts, categories pose a conceptual challenge during their application in local government as stakeholders always bring their own interpretations.

**Table 6.9:** Views on the meaning of statements used in developmental local government

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	3	7.5	1	2.3	1	2.5	8	20.0	7	17.1	20	9.8
<b>Agree</b>	33	82.5	23	53.5	24	60.0	19	47.5	12	29.3	111	54.4
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	12	27.9	10	25.0	4	10.0	10	24.4	38	18.6
<b>Disagree</b>	2	5.0	5	11.6	5	12.5	6	15.0	11	26.8	28	13.7
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	2	4.7	-	-	3	7.5	1	2.4	7	3.4
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents' views on the statement that statements used in developmental local government have more than one meaning, often vague, inconsistent and are subject to change recorded a total of 54, 4% agreeing and 9, 8% strongly agree. The percentage of those undecided however showed an average trend of above 20% in municipalities like Makhado Local Municipality with 27, 9%; Musina Local Municipality with 25%; and Thulamela Local Municipality with 26, 8%. Thulamela Local Municipality recorded the highest in those disagreeing at 26, 8%. That did not dominate as the trend on the majority was that of agreement side. In general the views confirm that statements used in developmental local government have more than one meaning, often vague, inconsistent and are subject to change. This relate to complexity in context within local government as expounded in chapter 3 of this study.

**Figure 6.8:** The difficulty of municipal councils in taking decisions on the state of its performance and that of its managers



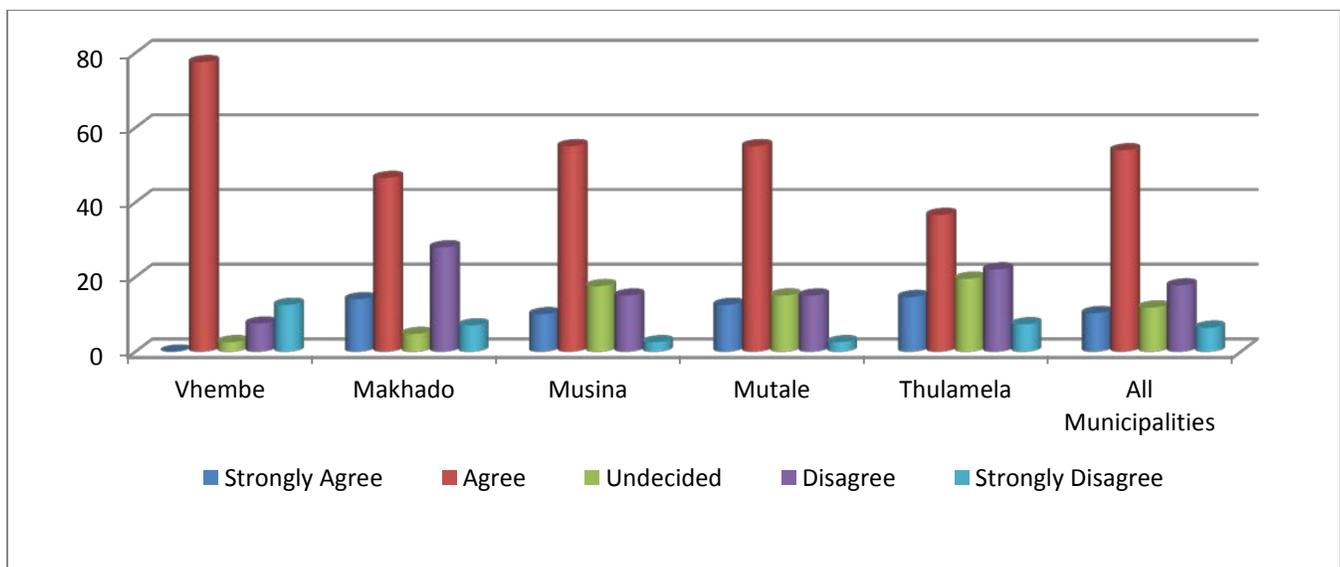
Respondents' views on a statement that the municipal council always has a difficulty in taking decisions on the state of its performance and that of its managers; the total of 46, 6% agreed and 17, 2% strongly agree. There is however a noticeable percentage of disagreeing views for almost all municipalities that have a total of 25, 5%. This indicates a variation on the level of agreement on what constitute performance as provided for in literature in chapter 4. The majority agree that it is often difficult for the municipal council to take decisions on the state of performance of its managers. The 25, 5% in disagreement affirm the provisions in literature within the modern discourse as provided for in chapter 2 in that rationality can be established in dealing with performance.

**Table 6.10:** The number of interest groups in developmental local government

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	3	7.5	13	30.2	4	10.0	6	15.0	8	19.5	34	16.7
<b>Agree</b>	29	72.5	16	37.2	18	45.0	19	47.5	16	39.0	98	48.0
<b>Undecided</b>	-	-	2	4.7	4	10.0	8	20.0	5	12.2	19	9.3
<b>Disagree</b>	4	10.0	8	18.6	11	27.5	4	10.0	12	29.3	39	19.1
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	4	10.0	4	9.3	3	7.5	3	7.5	-	-	14	6.9
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The views of respondents on the statement of due to a number of interest groups involved in developmental local government, officials tend to have a difficulty on who are they accountable and responsible to; the total of 48% agree and 16, 7% strongly agree. Mutale Local Municipality had 20% of undecided while Vhembe District Municipality had zero percent of undecided. Musina Local Municipality and Thulamela Local Municipality had high disagreed at 27, 5% and 29, 3% respectively. The responses confirm that due to a number of interest groups involved in developmental local government, officials tend to have a difficulty on who are they accountable and responsible to. The involvements of a number of interest groups in developmental local embrace the character of complex system and thereby create complexity in accountability and responsibility. In providing for various forms of complexity, literature provide for complexity in accountability and responsibility.

**Figure 6.9:** The competencies required for senior officials in local government



Respondents' views on a statement that at times it is not clear as to what are the actual competencies required for senior officials in local government, in total for all municipalities 53, 9% agreed and 10, 3% strongly agree. There is generally a notable increase on disagree that has a total of 17, 7% and 6, 4% strongly disagree. Makhado Local Municipality has recorded the highest in disagree at 27, 9% and 7% strongly disagree followed by Thulamela Local Municipality that have recorded 22% disagree and 7, 3% strongly disagree. Musina Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality has each recorded 15% disagree and 2, 5% strongly disagree respectively. The majority of respondents confirm that it indeed at times not clear as to what are the actual competencies required for senior officials in local government. The minority at the total of 17, 7% however do not agree. This is attributed to that competencies in developmental local government are within the form of complexity in persona as provided for in literature per paragraph 3.7 chapter 3. As part of competences cultures, emotions, personal preferences, skills and abilities becomes complex in determining the requirements for senior management positions in local government. The minority still believe that it is possible to determine competencies expected for senior officials in developmental local government. This is in line with the modern scientific discourse in that there is a single solution for problems in a phenomenon like that of developmental local government.

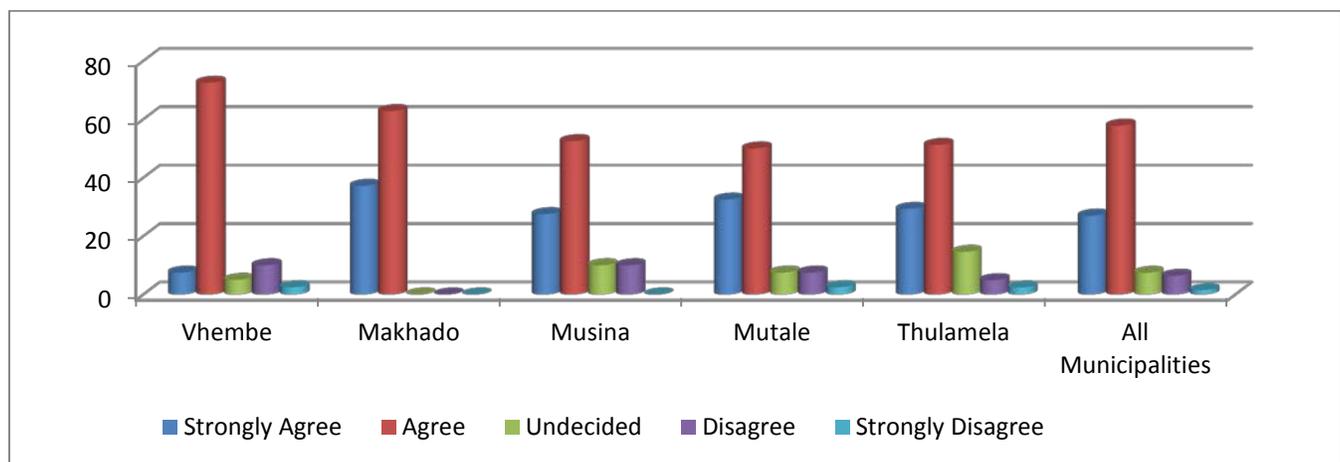
**Table 6.11:** The interdependency and interconnectedness of processes in developmental local government

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	2	5.0	4	9.3	2	5.0	8	20.0	8	19.5	24	11.8
<b>Agree</b>	30	75.0	27	62.8	20	50.0	20	50.0	19	46.3	116	56.9
<b>Undecided</b>	4	10.0	7	16.3	11	27.5	7	17.5	9	22.0	38	18.6
<b>Disagree</b>	3	7.5	5	11.6	7	17.5	5	12.5	4	9.8	24	11.8
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2.4	2	1.0
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents' views on a statement of processes in developmental local government are interdependent, interconnected in that a change in either of them will impact on the activities of the other, in total of all municipalities 56, 9% recorded agree and 11, 8% strongly agree. Vhembe District Municipality recorded the highest in agreement at 75% while Thulamela Local Municipality recorded 46, 3% agree. That is however complemented by 19, 5% Of strongly agree that makes it to be the majority on affirming the

statement. Those undecided stand at 18, 6% in total with Musina Local Municipality being the highest at 27, 5% while Thulamela Local Municipality recorded 22%. The majority however affirm the statement that processes in developmental local government are interdependent, interconnected in that a change in either of them will impact on the activities of the other. As provided for in literature in chapter 4 that process in the municipality's Integrated Development Planning are interdependent and inter-connected in that change in either of them impact the activities of the other.

**Figure 6.10:** Catering for different traditional histories of communities within a municipality while developing the municipality's spatial framework



In general there is agreement in that communities within the municipality have different traditional histories that need to be catered for while developing the municipality's spatial framework. This is attested by the total of 57, 8% of respondents in agreement and 27% strongly agree. That affirms that communities within a municipality remain a complex system. As a complex system it takes form of context in that it can hardly be defined in a unified way.

### 6.5.3 The extent of the implementation of developmental local government in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality

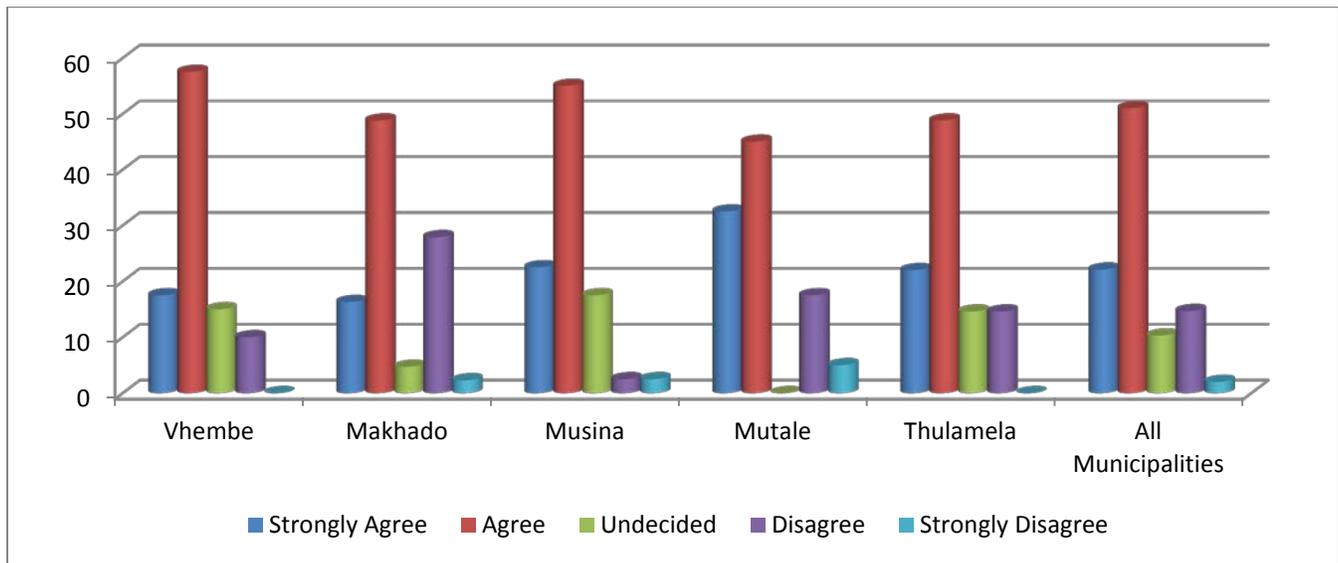
Tables and graphs that follow are presenting the views of respondents on the extent of the implementation of developmental local government in municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area. Analysis and interpretation of each table and graph is done immediately below each table and graph respectively.

**Table 6.12:** Implementation of developmental local government systems as envisaged

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	6	15.0	3	7.0	3	7.5	12	30.0	5	12.2	29	14.2
<b>Agree</b>	27	67.5	18	41.9	14	35.0	18	45.0	25	61.0	102	50.0
<b>Undecided</b>	3	7.5	3	7.0	12	30.0	3	7.5	4	9.8	25	12.3
<b>Disagree</b>	4	10.0	18	41.9	9	22.5	5	12.5	6	14.6	42	20.6
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	1	2.3	2	5.0	2	5.0	1	2.4	6	2.9
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents' views on the statement of the municipality have implemented all developmental local government systems as envisaged in the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, in total of all municipalities 50% agree and 14, 2% strongly agree. Vhembe District Municipality has the highest in agreement recorded 67, 5% and 15% strongly agree and Thulamela Local Municipality at 61% agrees and 12, 2% strongly agree. There is however a noticeable decline on percentage of agreeing as comparable to responses in the previous variable with an increase in disagreeing. For example in Makhado Local Municipality those recorded agree are 41, 9% and 7% of strongly agreed with a noticeable 41, 9% disagree. Musina Local Municipality recorded 35% agree and 7, 5% strongly agree with the highest of undecided standing at 30%. The views reflect a varying way of contending whether the individual municipalities are indeed implementing developmental local government as envisaged in the Local Government Municipal Systems Act. The differing view reflects that there is no consensus among the respondents as to what constitute the implementation of developmental local government. This study attributes this to complexities that manifests within the system of developmental local government. The extent to which developmental local government is implemented within a municipality will be determined by the way interactions in moving towards a consensus in dealing with those systems will prevail. Literature in complexity however indicates that as long as those systems are complex and interact with the environment, it is impossible to have such situation. It affirms that those systems have to remain like that by nature for positive feedback that is always far from equilibrium.

**Figure 6.11:** The processes of Integrated Development Planning (IDP)



There is generally agreement within all municipalities surveyed that through a process of Integrated Development Planning (IDP) the municipality has established a development plan for the short, medium and long term for the municipality. This is attested by a total of 51% agrees and 22, 1% strongly agrees of respondents. There is however a noticeable over 30% cumulative on the disagree side in Makhado Local Municipality. This reflect that there are still descending views in some municipalities that the process of Integrated Development Planning (IDP) has established development plan for short, medium and long term for the municipality. However this confirms the level of the extent of implementation of developmental local government as those descending views reflect contrary.

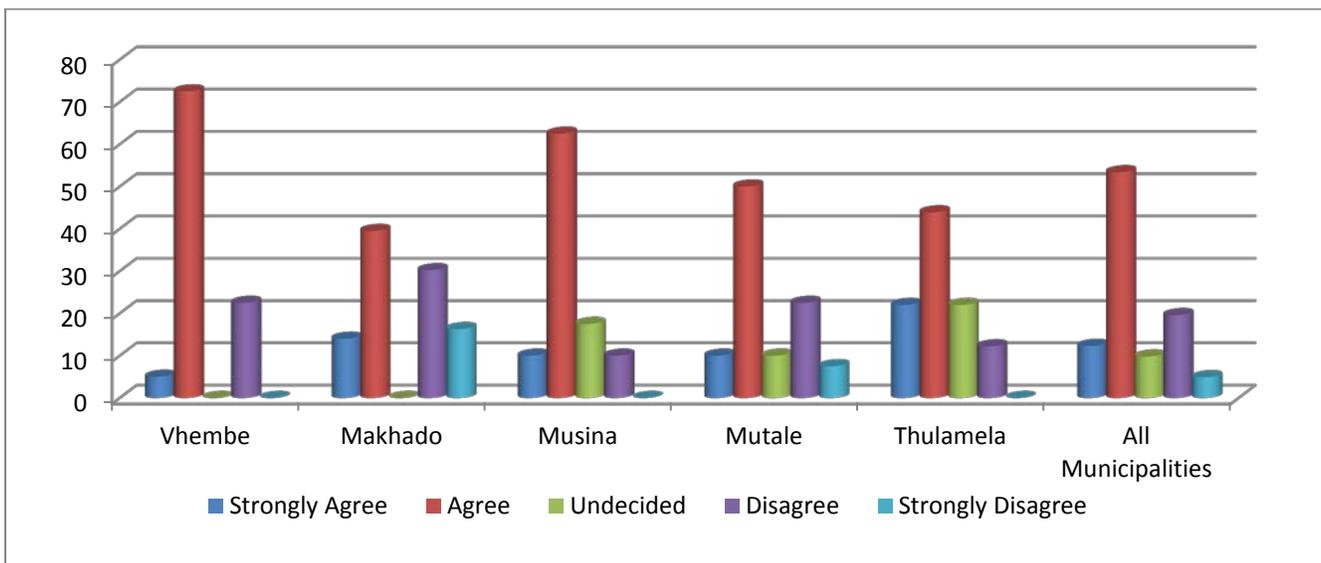
**Table 6.13:** Responsibility of the function of Integrated Development Planning (IDP)

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	3	7.5	12	27.9	10	25.0	6	15.0	6	14.6	37	18.1
<b>Agree</b>	30	75.0	21	48.8	18	45.0	23	57.5	25	61.0	117	57.4
<b>Undecided</b>	-	-	2	4.7	10	25.0	6	15.0	7	17.1	25	12.3
<b>Disagree</b>	6	15.0	6	14.0	2	5.0	5	12.5	2	4.9	21	10.3
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	2	4.7	-	-	-	-	1	2.4	4	2.0
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

There is general agreement that Integrated Development Planning (IDP) is a normal and required municipal function in other words IDP's are not "add-ons" and should not "farmed out" to consultants. In total of all municipalities 57, 4% has recorded agree and 18, 1% recorded strongly agree. Musina

Local Municipality has recorded 25% of undecided followed by Thulamela Local Municipality having recorded 17, 1% and Mutale Local Municipality 15%. The general affirmation of the statement indicates that in implementing developmental local government through IDP, a function need not farmed out to consultants. This is however contrary to findings during the review of IDPs of municipalities under survey in paragraph 6.2 above. It was found that Makhado Local Municipality, Musina Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality have sourced out compilation of their initial IDPs.

**Figure 6.12:** Development and implementation of comprehensive Community Participation strategy



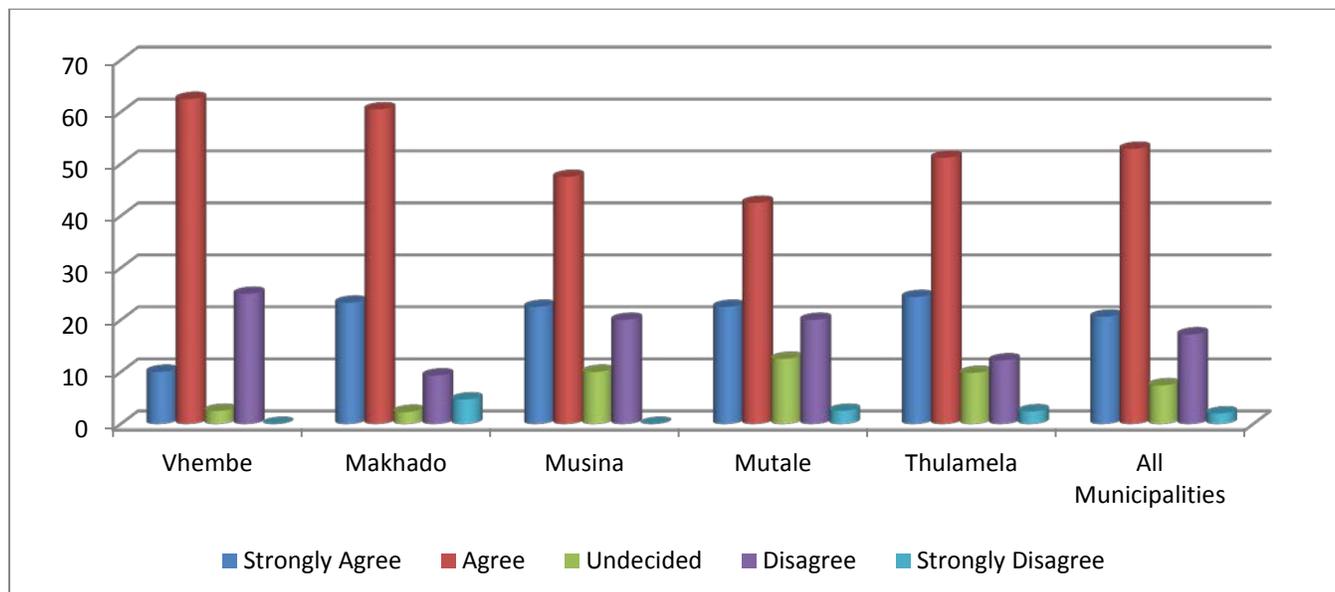
Respondents' views on a statement of the municipality have developed a comprehensive community participation strategy that is being implemented in the municipality, a total of 53, 4% agree and 12, 3% strongly agree. There is however a noticeable increase on disagree in three municipalities being Makhado Local Municipality having recorded 30, 2% disagree and 16, 2% strongly disagree, followed by Vhembe District Municipality and Thulamela Local Municipality at 22, 5% disagree each. The interesting observation is that each municipality has reflected in its IDP that it has a comprehensive community participation strategy in place. In as much as in total the majority affirm that statement the noticeable margin of disagree confirm contrary. There are those of a view that the municipality has developed a comprehensive community participation system yet some disagree within the same municipality. For example Vhembe District Municipality recorded the highest in agreement even though on perusal of the IDP there is no such system.

**Table 6.14:** Development of a comprehensive Performance Management System (PMS)

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	2	5.0	3	7.0	4	10.0	7	17.5	6	14.6	22	10.8
<b>Agree</b>	23	57.5	13	30.2	16	40.0	11	27.5	21	51.2	84	41.2
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	7	16.3	10	25.0	8	20.0	5	12.2	32	15.7
<b>Disagree</b>	13	32.5	8	18.6	10	25.0	10	25.0	9	22.0	50	24.5
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	12	27.9	-	-	4	10.0	-	-	16	7.8
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents' views on a statement of the municipality have developed a comprehensive performance management system which is being implemented throughout the municipality, a total of 41, 2% agrees and 10, 8% strongly agree with 15, 7% undecided. Makhado Local Municipality have the highest of disagree side in cumulative of both disagree (18, 6%) and strongly disagree (27, 9%) followed by Vhembe District Municipality that recorded 32, 5% disagree and Mutale Local Municipality at a cumulative of 30%. Musina Local Municipality has recorded the highest on undecided at 25% followed by Mutale Local Municipality at 20%. The scenario reflects that the development of comprehensive performance management system within all municipalities is not a subject in majority consensus. The total majority is just above 52% with a high percentage of undecided in the majority municipalities that is characterised by over 30% disagree. The views affirm the gaps that were observed during the review of IDPs as per paragraph 6.2 above. It is also in line with the provisions of literature in chapter 4 to the effect that performance management within developmental local government remain a contentious subject. It is characterised by complexities emanating from conceptualisation of performance to adopting a model that is reliable and valid. Performance management remains a contentious issue to deal with in developmental local government. That is observable by the narrowing margin within the responses' views in terms of percentages. The total cumulation on the agreement in the statement is 52%. That is low in relation to the majority support to effect that there is not much consensus whether the system is indeed in existence. The rising percentage of undecided in some municipalities also reflects the state of complexities within the system to an extent that some respondents opted to undecided. That in it reflect the extent to which performance management as a tool for ensuring developmental local government is being implemented within the surveyed municipalities.

**Figure 6.13:** Implementation of plans for desired impact efficient utilisation of resources



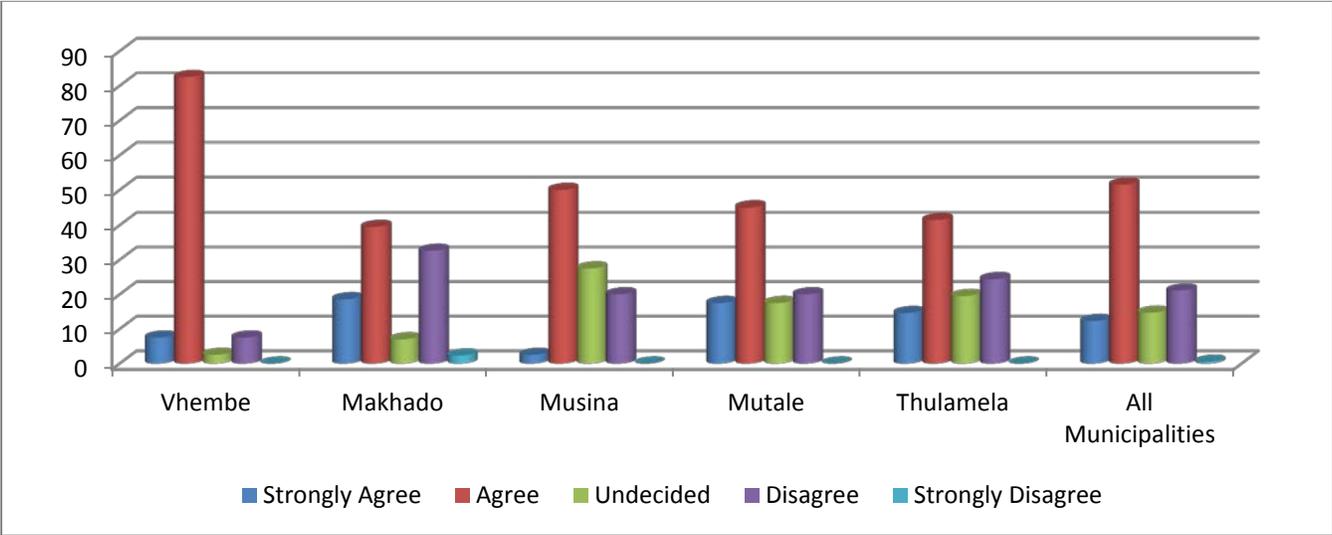
There is generally agreement that performance management is critical to ensure that plans are being implemented, that they have a desired development impact, and resources are being used efficiently. The views of respondents recorded a total of 52, 9% agree and 20, 6% strongly agree. There is however a notable percentage of those in disagreement. For example Vhembe District Municipality recorded 25% disagree, with Musina Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality each recorded 20%. This anomaly is attributed to complexities embedded in performance management system within developmental local government. The fact that there is diverge views from respondents in various municipalities is a sign that performance management is still at a stage where those responsible are not in consensus on its critical role in ensuring that plans are being implemented. That reflects the extent of the implementation of performance in developmental local government.

**Table 6.15:** Building local democracy is a central role of local government

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	2	5.0	10	23.3	10	25.0	6	15.0	6	14.6	34	16.7
<b>Agree</b>	29	72.5	30	69.8	25	62.5	25	62.5	22	53.7	131	64.2
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	2	4.7	4	10.0	3	7.5	4	9.8	15	7.4
<b>Disagree</b>	7	17.5	1	2.3	1	2.5	6	15.0	5	12.2	20	9.8
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	9.8	4	2.0
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents' views on the statement of building local democracy is a central role of local government, and municipalities should develop strategies and mechanisms to continuously engage with citizens, a total of 64, 2% agree and 16, 7% strongly agree. The trend shows the majority in affirmation with the statement with the exception of 17, 5% disagreement recorded for Vhembe District Municipality followed by Mutale Local Municipality with 15% and Thulamela Local Municipality recorded 12, 2%. The responses generally confirm that building local democracy is a central role of local government, and municipalities should develop strategies and mechanisms to continuously engage with citizens.

**Figure 6.14:** Realisation of Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management and Community Participation



The views of respondents on a statement of Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management, and Community participation remain an ideal which cannot be realised in full within developmental local government, a total of 51, 5% agree and 12, 3% strongly agree. Although the majority affirm the statement, there is a notable trends of disagreement with a statement especially in Makhado Local Municipality that recorded 32, 6% disagree followed by Thulamela Local Municipality with 24, 4% while Musina Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality each recorded 20%. Musina Local Municipality also recorded high on undecided standing at 27, 5%. The responses generally confirm that Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management, and Community participation remain an ideal which cannot be realised in full within developmental local government. There is however those that are of the view that it is not the case as noted with the

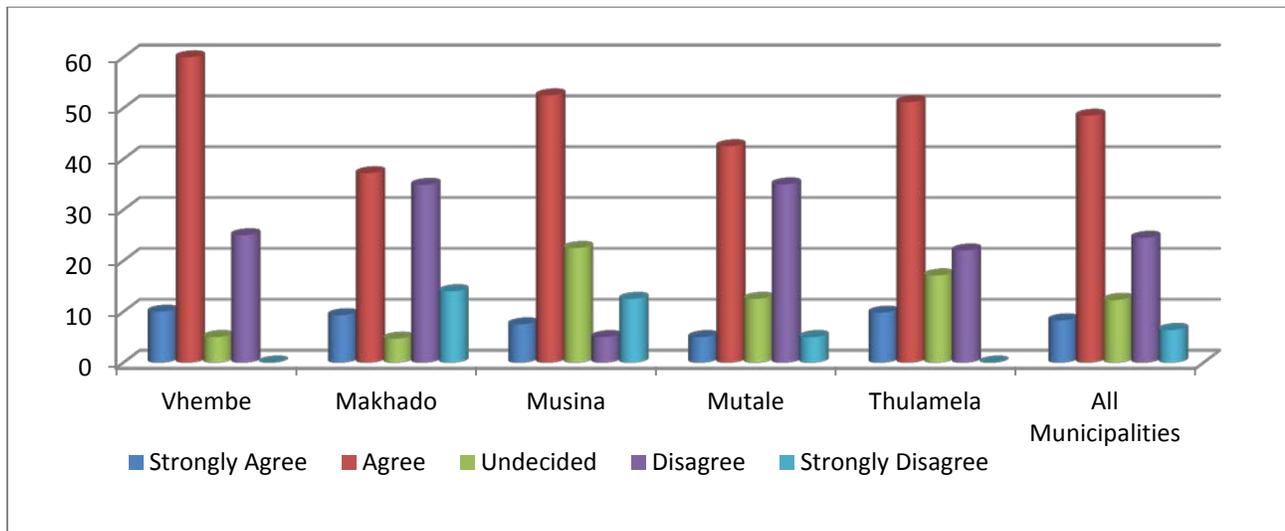
percentage of those disagreeing. This attests to the fact that in as much as it can be concluded that Integrated Development Planning, Performance Management and Community Participation are ideal, there are those viewing them as practical and realizable.

**Table 6.16:** Contact for local citizens with the municipality

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	5	12.5	10	23.3	11	27.5	10	25.0	7	17.1	43	21.1
<b>Agree</b>	22	55.0	18	41.9	19	47.5	16	40.0	23	56.1	98	48.0
<b>Undecided</b>	3	7.5	4	9.3	7	17.5	6	15.0	2	4.9	22	10.8
<b>Disagree</b>	10	25.0	11	25.6	3	7.5	7	17.5	5	12.2	36	17.7
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	-	-	-	-	1	2.5	3	7.3	5	2.5
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Views of respondents on a statement of for many local citizens, their main contact with the municipality are through the consumption of municipal services, a total of 48% agree and 21, 1% strongly agrees. There is however a noticeable percentage of those in disagreement especially in Makhado Local Municipality that recorded 25, 6% disagree and Vhembe District Municipality recording 25% disagree. The majority views confirm that for many local citizens, their main contact with the municipality is through the consumption of municipal services. That in essence means that citizens generally do not have much contact with the municipality other than through payment of services. That renders the need for other means of citizen participation on issues of local government to be more in need than what it is practice. Developmental local government is founded on the notion of citizen participation that in extent is not effective as the only way citizens are in contact with a municipality is through payment of services.

**Figure 6.15:** Municipality making maximum impact on social development of the community



Respondents' views on a statement of the municipality has achieved a maximum impact on social development of communities – in particular meeting the basic needs of the poor – and on the growth of the local economy, a total of 48, 5% agree and 8, 3% strongly agree. There is however a noticeable high percentage of disagree that reduces the majority. For example Makhado Local Municipality recorded 34, 9% disagree and 14% strongly disagree. That makes the disagreement side to be the majority. In essence the views in Makhado Local Municipality are that the municipality has not achieved a maximum impact on social development to communities. The trend is visible in Mutale Local Municipality where 35% recorded disagree and 5% strongly disagree. Although in total average the views confirm that the municipality has achieved a maximum impact on social development of communities – in particular meeting the basic needs of the poor – and on the growth of the local economy, a close analysis to individual municipalities reflect contrary. That generally reflects that the extent of implementation of developmental local government as intended is not at a level as expected.

**Table 6.17:** Finalization of the performance management assessment for previous financial year

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	4	10.0	1	2.3	1	2.5	-	-	3	7.3	9	4.4
<b>Agree</b>	21	52.5	11	25.6	18	45.0	6	15.0	17	41.5	73	35.8
<b>Undecided</b>	4	10.0	9	20.9	14	35.0	10	25.0	11	26.8	48	23.5
<b>Disagree</b>	11	27.5	8	18.6	4	10.0	16	40.0	8	19.5	47	23.0
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	14	32.6	3	7.5	8	20.0	2	4.9	27	13.2
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The views of responses on a statement of the municipality has finalised its performance management assessment for the previous financial year, in total 35, 8% agree and 4, 4% strongly agree. Those undecided recorded a total of 23, 5% that comprise of percentages as high as 35% per individual municipality, for example Musina Local Municipality. Makhado Local Municipality recorded 18, 6% disagree and 32, 6% strongly disagree with Mutale Local Municipality having recorded 40% disagree and 20% strongly disagree. That makes the majority in these two municipalities to be in disagreement with statement. By implication this means that such municipalities have not finalised their performance management systems. Other municipalities however have majority of agreement side but with high percentage of undecided. For example Thulamela Local Municipality recorded 26, 8% of undecided while those in agreement and strongly agree could not make up above 50% in accumulation. The interpretation here is that there is no general consensus that the municipality has finalised its performance management for the previous financial year. These also create complexity within the municipality as there is no general consensus on whether the municipality has finalised such.

#### 6.5.4 The effects of complexities on the implementation of developmental local government in municipalities within Vhembe District Municipality

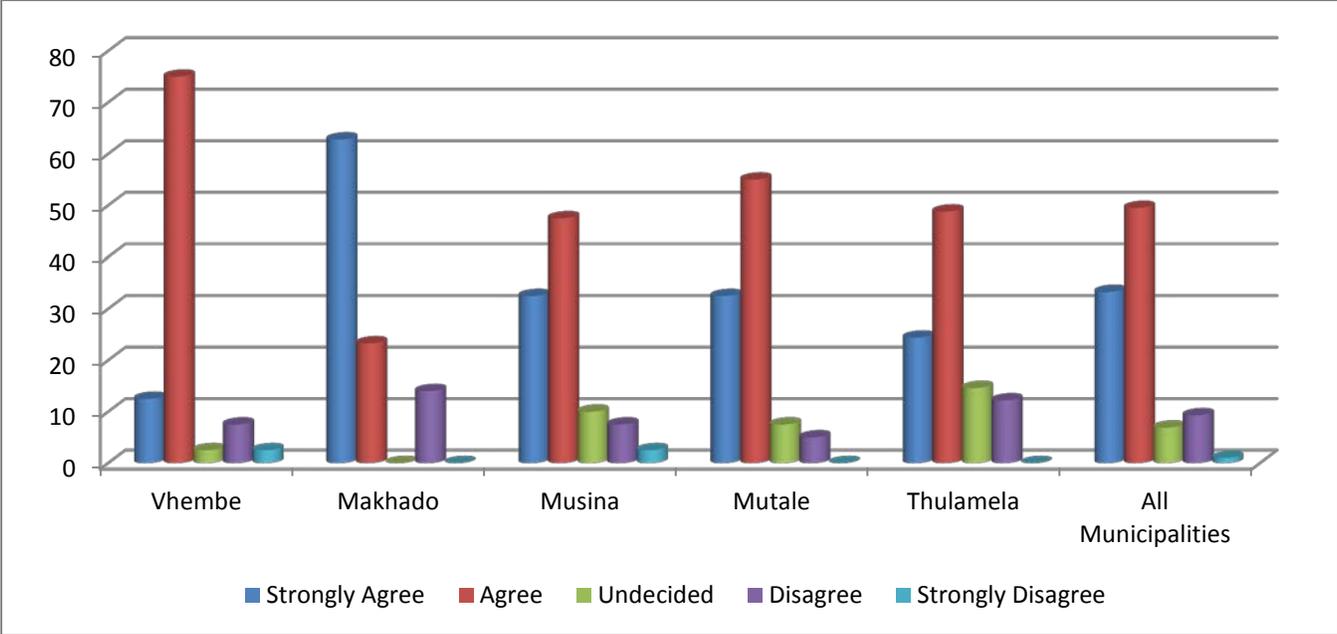
Tables and graphs that follow are presenting responses of the views on the effects of complexities on the implementation of developmental local in municipalities within Vhembe District Municipality. The tables and graphs are presented alternatively to reflect on the distribution of trends within municipalities.

**Table 6.18:** Difficulty of shared municipal vision and vision in the diversity of communities and stakeholders

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	2	5.0	2	4.7	2	5.0	4	10.0	8	19.5	18	8.8
<b>Agree</b>	31	77.5	23	53.5	15	37.5	20	50.0	15	36.6	104	51.0
<b>Undecided</b>	1	2.5	3	7.0	8	20.0	4	10.0	5	12.2	21	10.3
<b>Disagree</b>	6	15.0	12	27.9	14	35.0	12	30.0	13	31.7	57	27.9
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	-	-	3	7.0	1	2.5	-	-	-	-	4	2.0
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The views of respondents on the statement of due to diverse communities and stakeholders involved in developmental local government it is difficult to come out with a single common vision and mission for the municipality, a total of 51% and 8, 8% strongly disagree. There is however a notable percentage for those in disagreement with the statement throughout all municipalities. For example Musina Local Municipality recorded 35% disagree and 2, 5% strongly disagree while having 20% undecided. The variation confirms the difficulty that exists within municipalities in for diverse communities to share a common single vision. At the same the spread of tendencies of responses reflect that there is no dominant understanding on whether due to diverse communities and stakeholders involved in developmental local government it is difficult to come out with a single common vision and mission for the municipality as the case of responses for Musina Local Municipalities. It is however acknowledged that those agreeing with the statement are the majority despite the rise on those in disagreement. That imply that due to diverse communities and stakeholders involved in developmental local government it is difficult to come out with a single common vision and mission for the municipality.

**Figure 6.16:** The effect of political in-fighting on the progress of municipal service delivery



Views of respondents on statement of activities like political in-fights within political parties affect the progress of municipal service delivery, a total of 49, 5% agree and 33, 3% strongly agree. The side of disagreement with the statement recorded a cumulative of 10, 3%. Vhembe District Municipality has recorded the highest in agreement for over 70%. The highest percentage recorded for disagreement is

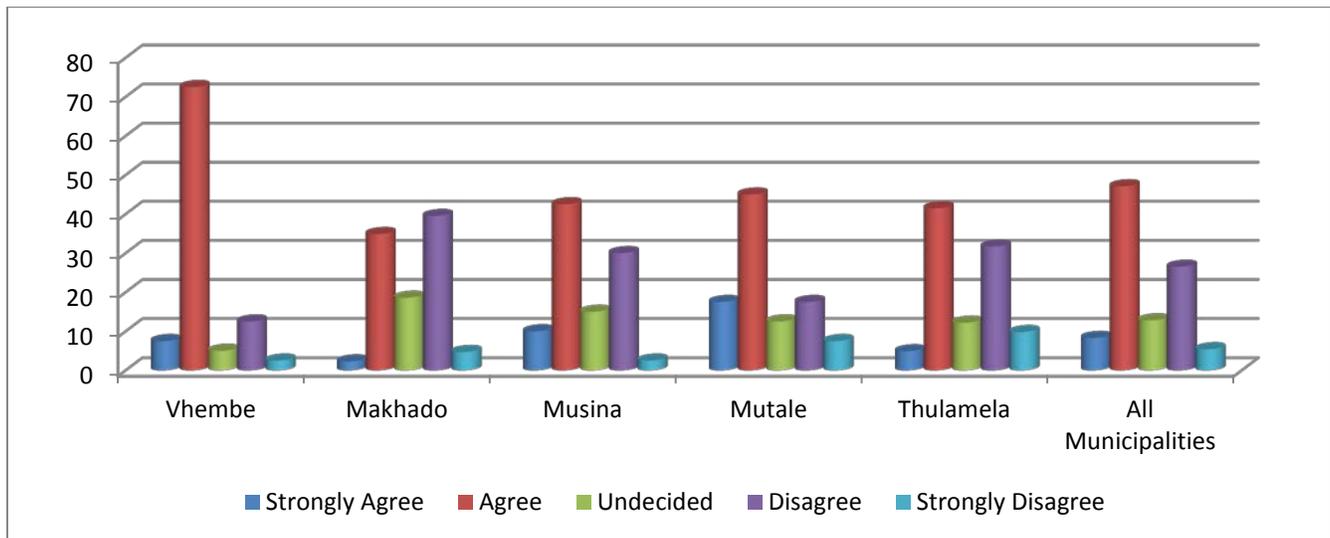
14% at Makhado Local Municipality. That makes it low in comparison with other responses in other statements. The responses confirm that activities like political in-fights within political parties affect the progress of municipal service delivery. This in it confirms the impact of complexities within developmental local government. That reflects the extent of implementation of developmental local government as those political in-fights create a complex environment for ideal implementation of developmental local government.

**Table 6.19:** History and the shaping of activities of the municipality

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	1	2.5	8	18.6	3	7.5	8	20.0	5	12.2	25	12.3
<b>Agree</b>	33	82.5	32	74.4	25	62.5	20	50.0	18	43.9	128	62.8
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	2	4.7	9	22.5	6	15.0	10	24.4	29	14.2
<b>Disagree</b>	3	7.5	-	-	2	5.0	5	12.5	8	19.5	18	8.8
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	1	2.3	1	2.5	1	2.5	-	-	4	2.0
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The views of respondents on a statement of most activities taking place in the municipality are shaped by its history, for example the amalgamation of transitional local municipalities and “apartheid” history, a total of 62, 8% agree and 8, 3 % disagree. The responses confirm that most activities taking place in the municipality are shaped by its history, for example the amalgamation of transitional local municipalities and “apartheid” history. In its character a complex system is shaped by its history. History in itself is a cultural interpretation of the past that helps to foster an understanding of present-day life and to enable projections into, and expectations of, the future. It molds the experiences of the human past into an empirically concrete idea of the flow of time where the past, the present and the future are interrelated in a way that allows people to place themselves within the experienced temporal changes of self and the world. Those histories create elements of complexities within the systems involved in developmental local government ranging from human systems to social and environmental systems. This is also worsened by the manner those histories had a bearing on how different systems respond to various phenomena like that of developmental local government.

**Figure 6.17:** Multiple stakeholder involvement for planning rationality and meeting objectives



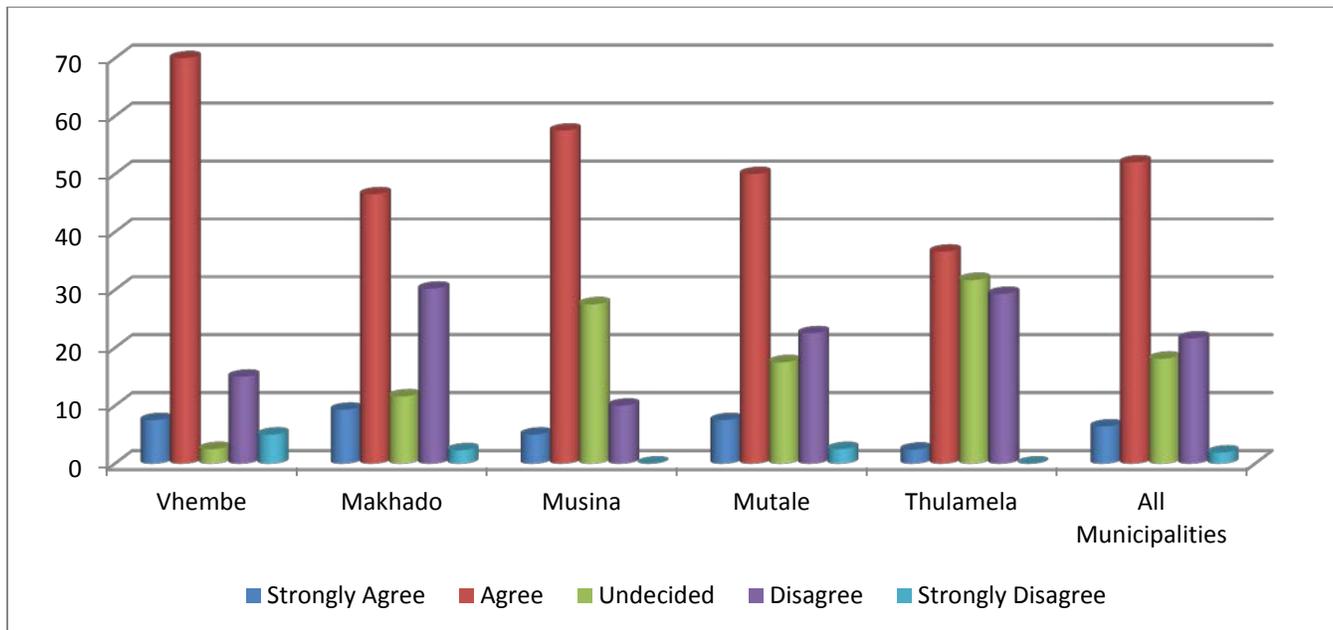
Views of respondents on a statement of the involvement of more than one stakeholder in developmental local government make it impossible for a municipality to plan rationally and able to meet objectives, a total of 47, 1% agrees and 8, 3% strongly agree. Vhembe District Municipality had recorded the highest in agreement being over 70%. However the Makhado Local Municipality recorded 34, 9% agree and 2, 3% strongly agree which in contrast is countered by 39, 5% disagree and 4, 7% strongly disagree. This is followed by Thulamela Local Municipality that recorded 31, 7% disagree and 9, 8% strongly disagree. Musina Local Municipality also recorded among the highest in disagreement of 30% disagrees and 2, 5% strongly disagree. All of these municipalities have recorded the highest in agreement with the statement except for Makhado Local Municipality. This implies that the views of respondents in Makhado Local Municipality do not agree with a statement. However in general, the respondents' views confirm that involvement of more than one stakeholder in developmental local government makes it impossible for a municipality to plan rationally and able to meet objectives. Complex systems are by nature comprising of a large number of elements. When the number is relatively small, the behaviour of elements can be given a formal description in conventional terms. When the number of elements becomes large, conventional means becomes impractical and cease to assist in understanding the system (see chapter 3).

**Table 6.20:** Effectiveness, coherence, grand design and random action and selfish agendas of stakeholders

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	1	2.5	2	4.7	–	-	6	15	5	12.2	14	6.9
<b>Agree</b>	30	75.0	15	34.9	20	50.0	18	45.0	15	36.6	98	48.0
<b>Undecided</b>	4	10.0	17	39.5	14	35.0	7	17.5	12	29.3	54	26.5
<b>Disagree</b>	4	10.0	9	20.9	5	12.5	8	20.0	8	19.5	34	16.7
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	-	-	1	2.5	1	2.5	1	2.4	4	1.9
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

The views of respondents on a statement of stakeholders acting at random or with their own agendas nevertheless can work effectively as a group or an entire organisation and may create coherence in the absence of grand design, a total of 48% agree and 6, 9% strongly disagree. Just like the views in other statements, Vhembe District Municipality recorded the highest in agreement. There is however a noticeable high percentage for those undecided. For example Makhado Local Municipality recorded 39, 5% undecided followed by Musina Local Municipality at 35%. The disagreement side ranged at 20% recorded by both Makhado Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality respectively. In as much as there is a notable rise in the percentage of undecided, the views confirm that stakeholders acting at random or with their own agendas nevertheless can work effectively as a group or an entire organisation and may create coherence in the absence of grand design. The rise in the percentage of those undecided is also partially attributed to remnant complexities in context that is also manifesting itself in application of concepts. In complex systems each element of the system is ignorant of the behaviour of the system as a whole. It responds only to information that is available locally. Interaction of the elements locally determines the whole system. Complexity emerges as a result of patterns of interaction between elements (see chapter 3).

**Figure 6.18:** Multiple meanings of statements used in developmental local government



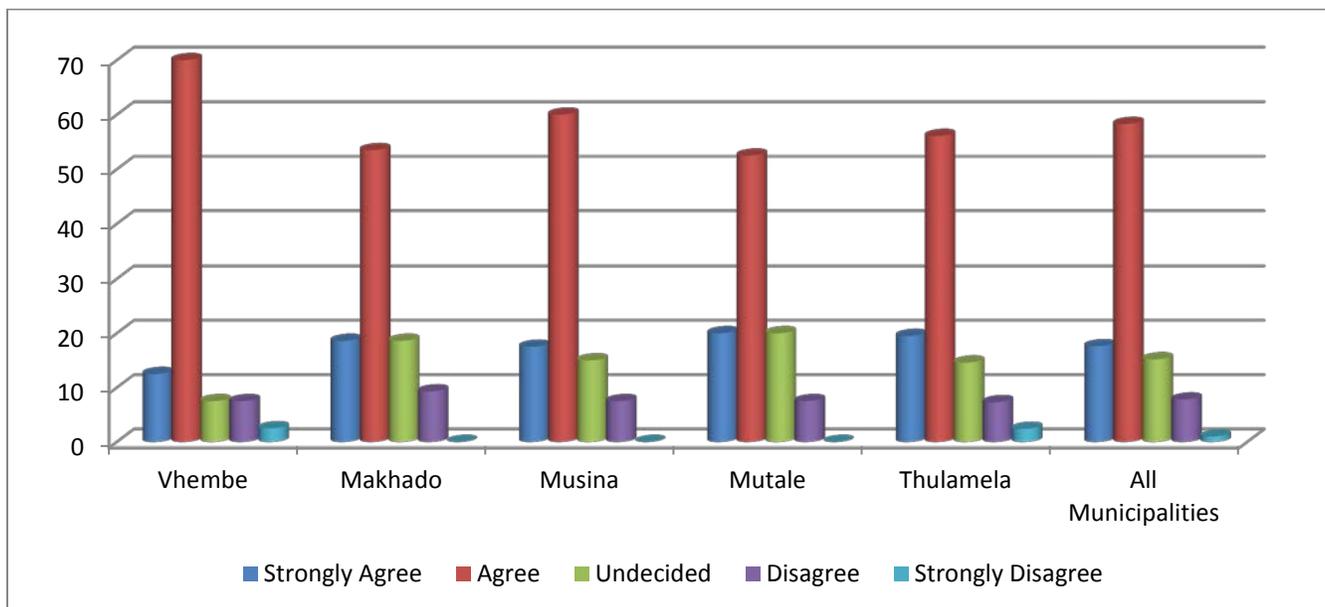
The views of respondents on a statement of statements used in developmental local government have more than one meaning, often vague, inconsistent and are subject to change, a total of 52% agree and 6, 4% strongly agree. Makhado Local Municipality have recorded 30% disagree followed by Thulamela Local Municipality at 29, 3%. There is a noticeable small margins of variations on agree, undecided and disagree in Thulamela Local Municipality. These reflect the state of uncertainty among the respondents due to complexities embedded in developmental local government. That however did not made the disagreement views to be the majority. However in general, the respondents' views confirm that statements used in developmental local government have more than one meaning, often vague, inconsistent and are subject to change. That in it confirms the manifestation of complexity in context as provided for in chapter 3. Among other things, social action takes place within the context of inter-subjectivity shared norms, values, rules, beliefs, histories, hopes, aspirations, and practices. Public administration variables, concepts, categories in South African local government public administration found themselves in complexity contexts (see paragraph 4.6, chapter 4). All management contexts offer different lookouts, which pave the way to different perceptions of what is going on (Gummesson, 2006:172). The more than one meaning of statements and their vagueness as well their subjectivity and inconsistency create complexities that make it impossible that even for respondents within the same municipality could not come closer to the same interpretation.

**Table 6.21:** Political instability and difficulty of implementing developmental local government systems

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	7	17.5	16	37.2	9	22.5	7	17.5	7	17.1	46	22.5
<b>Agree</b>	29	72.5	17	39.5	22	55.0	20	50.0	19	46.3	107	52.5
<b>Undecided</b>	1	2.5	2	4.7	3	7.5	2	5.0	8	19.5	16	7.8
<b>Disagree</b>	2	5.0	6	14.0	5	12.5	11	27.5	4	9.8	28	13.7
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	1	2.5	2	4.7	1	2.5	-	-	3	7.3	7	3.4
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Views of respondents’ on a statement of due to political instability within the municipal council, it is difficult for the municipality to implement developmental local government systems, a total of 52, 5% agree and 22, 5% strongly agree. The trend shows 27, 5% in Mutale Local Municipality and a generally low percentage of undecided throughout all municipalities. The views of respondents generally confirm that due to political instability within the municipal council, it is difficult for the municipality to implement developmental local government systems. That political instability emanate from complexities of the systems that interact within developmental local government.

**Figure 6.19:** Understanding of the differentness and appropriateness of situations



Views of respondents on the statement of public administrators need to understand that situations in local government vary and different responses are appropriate for these situations, a total of 58, 3% agree and 17, 6% strongly agree. Mutale Local Municipality recorded 20% undecided followed by

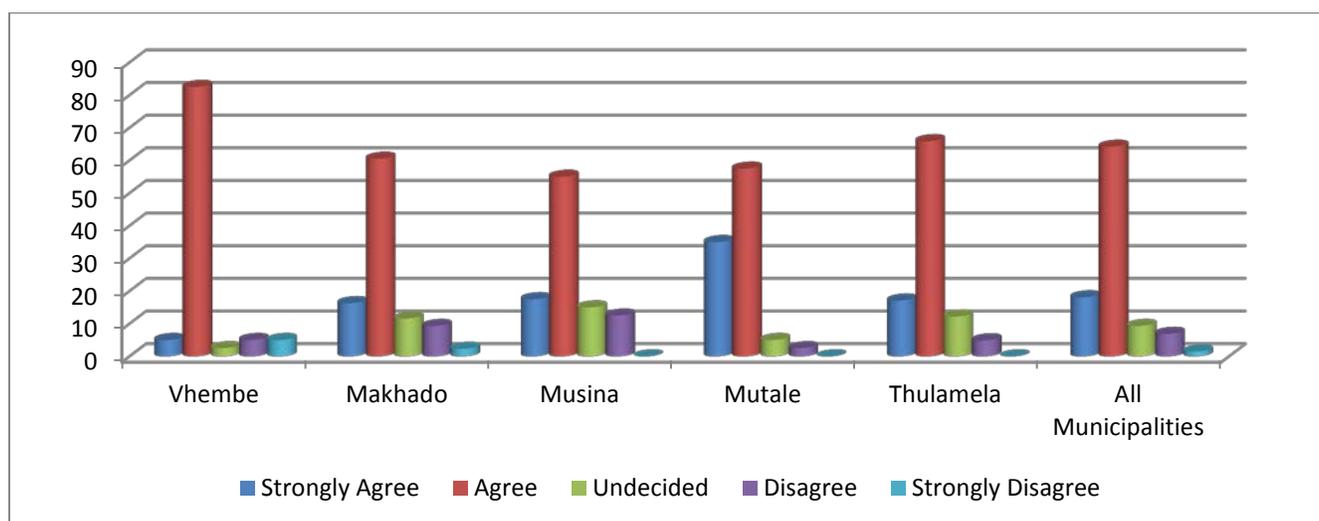
Makhado Local Municipality at 18, 6%. The responses confirm that public administrators need to understand that situations in local government vary and different responses are appropriate for these situations.

**Table 6.22:** Role of compliance with deadlines, regulations and prescriptions in success of developmental local government

	Vhembe		Makhado		Musina		Mutale		Thulamela		All	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
<b>Strongly Agree</b>	3	7.5	3	6.9	5	12.5	6	15.0	4	9.8	21	10.3
<b>Agree</b>	29	72.5	28	65.1	21	52.5	27	67.5	25	60.9	130	63.7
<b>Undecided</b>	2	5.0	8	18.6	11	27.5	4	10.0	9	21.9	34	16.7
<b>Disagree</b>	4	10.0	4	9.3	3	7.5	2	5.0	1	2.4	14	6.9
<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	2	5.0	-	-	-	-	1	2.5	2	4.9	5	2.5
<b>Total</b>	40	100	43	100	40	100	40	100	41	100	204	100

Respondents' views on a statement of the success of developmental local government is embedded on the expectations of compliance with deadlines, acquiesces to regulations and legislative prescriptions, a total of 63, 7% agree and 10, 3% strongly agree. Musina Local Municipality however recorded 27, 5% of undecided. That however did not influence the majority that affirmed the statement. The responses confirm that the success of developmental local government is embedded on the expectations of compliance with deadlines, acquiesces to regulations and legislative prescriptions.

**Figure 6.20:** Influence of complexities on local council's achievement of aims and goals



Views of respondents on a statement of complexities within local municipalities have influenced the manner in which local council achieves its aims and goals, a total of 64, 2% agree and 18, 1% strongly agrees. The highest recording of undecided was at 15% being that of Musina Local Municipality. In general, the respondents' views confirm that complexities within local municipalities have influenced the manner in which local council achieve its aims and goals. In as much as some of the responses in the previous statement were contrary in probing the variables as mentioned, the responses on this statement summed the whole notion of that in general there are complexities within developmental local government. Such complexities do indeed have an impact in realisation of the intentions of developmental local government within the Vhembe District Municipality area.

## **6.6 IMPLICATIONS OF COMPLEXITIES IN IMPLEMENTATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Having presented data and interpreted it in the previous paragraphs, it is at this stage that the study responds to the question of implications given the general trend in the respondents' perceptions and/or opinions on the complexities within developmental local government. This will be in a way exposing the main findings of the study in each objective spelt out in the first chapter. These are based on analysis and interpretations provided in dealing with the first three research questions as provided. That basis form part of measurement as one of the keys to social research and also referred to as data analysis (Babbie, 1995:3). On clarifying the implications, more emphasis are on the distinctions that necessarily reflect deviations from the ideal established modern prescripts as provided in literature as well as alignment to principles of complexity theory as debated.

### **6.6.1 Complexities within developmental local government**

In summing up the finding in relation to complexities within developmental local government, it is important to draw the link with literature engagement that has laid a framework for the study as well as operationalization. Drawing from the conundrum that emanated from reducing concepts applied in introducing the dispensation of developmental local government, complexities start to emanate from that level and it generally conform to various forms as debated in chapter 3. This becomes eminent if the model of interpretation is within the modern rational perspective that strives for a single best solution to a problem. In reviewing the IDPs of all municipalities within the study, it was observed that there are issues that were not interpreted uniformly as per the ideal of rational modern thinking. That makes the

reality to be in line with the ontology of postmodern thinking that has been espoused in the literature in that each municipality had a way of dealing with issues as they occur within its place. The rich diversity within municipalities made it impossible to have a single vision for all communities to be in line with that is espoused in the IDP. This is attested by the views of respondents as in the data presentation in the previous paragraph. Such rich diversity is also exacerbated by the varying theoretical strands which developmental local government notion derives its ideal from. Some of those theoretical strands are by nature within their various domains characterized by contextual engagements to an extent that it becomes near impossible to draw inferences that can assist in developmental local government while disregarding complexities accompanying such. For example as provided for in chapter 2, there is still debates ranging on within the notion of development as a concept, the moment it become developmental then is more complex as it assume a moving definition. Characterisation of developmental local government is also packaged in the form of subject areas that can hardly conform to a single throertical discourse by its own. Those characteristics draw its being from a variety of ontological positions that make it impossible to have a super grand theory that can address them. Fragmentation becomes an aspect not to be avoided. For those fragments to be jointed together for purpose of developmental local government creates a complex fusion that cannot conform to modern rational thinking. Structures for developmental local government are also systems that enhabit the charateristics of complex systems to an extent that their interactions are not confined to predicatability notion of rational science.

To affirm these findings, the views of a sample drawn from all municipalities under the study shown the distribution of responses frequencies that varies per municipality. For example in the Makhado Local Municipality frequencies varies from that of Musina Local Municipality as well as Musina Local Municipality frequencies varies to that of Thulamela Local Municipality. The trends as observed in terms of percentages have a narrow margin in all municipalities in relation to each variable probed with tendencies of majority views on the same side of the Likert scale. In general the views confirm that there are indeed complexities within developmental local government. The absences of a clear majority of frequencies that reflect a common view towards a variable confirm complexities as they emanate in developmental local government. Therefore this study conclude on the finding that there are complexities within developmental local government and the implication is that there is a need for a relook in a model on how developmental local government is implemented in South Africa.

### **6.6.2 Implementation of developmental local government**

The objective on the notion of implementation of developmental local government was tracked from the provisions of literature on the praxis of developmental local government as provided for in chapter 2. The conceptual hindereses that accompany the implementation thereof were viewed through the provisions of the mainstream or modern public administration. With due considerations of theoretical strands in the development of public administration over the time, the process themselves, ranging from establishment of structures to operationalization of approaches like, Integrated Development Planning, Performance Management are embedded by complexities that makes implementation of developmental local government not to be what it is suppose to be. Through the reviews of IDP of all municipalities under the study, it was revealed that what appears in the document do not tally to the realities on the ground. That affirm the concluding analysis that the implementation of developmental local government is not in line with its ideal intentions. Such analysis is also affirmed by the views of respondents that were solicited through the Likert rating scale questionnaire of which the results are presented in the previous paragraphs. The frequencies of responses were all in the positive of the statements as probed and that stand to support the statements. There was however notable differences on direct probing like on issues where it was put that the municipality have implemented the performance management system. The percentage variation tended to have a close margin on both sides with an increased number of those undecided on the issue. This was attributed to complexities within the processes to an extent that there is no agreement within the same organization whether the matter is being handled. Such disagreements reflected on the extent of the implementation of developmental local government and by implications dictate that the way in which developmental local government is being implemented need a relook. In as much as the processes are put forward through legislation and guidelines, there are still challenges in implementation thereof that suggests that the paradigm or models adopted need to be dealt with to be in allignment with the realities.

### **6.6.3 Complexities on the implementation of developmental local government**

Having dealt with the first two objectives of study, it is important to relate to the third objective as provided for in chapter 1. This objective is based on the literature framework as provided for in chapter 3 of this study. After having established complexities within developmental local government and the extent of implementation of developmental local government, it became necessary to establish the extent to which such complexities have a bearing on the implementation of developmental local government.

Through the underlying theoretical framework outlined in chapter 3 and continuous engagement in chapter 4, it was established that indeed there are tenets of complexity within developmental local government. It was through chapter 4 that became apparent through the exposing of structures, models, categories, duties and functions of developmental local government that the notions of rationality have limitations. The principle of *morphogenesis* come into play as those systems changes in form and structure as they evolve and develop. Linking such to the approaches put in place for realizing developmental local government being Integrated Development Planning, Performance Management and Community Participation, these become more complex as realization of each is through interactions that are nonlinear. These have been tested against the views of respondents of the sample drawn from all municipalities per the methodology and design in chapter 5. The percentage frequencies per municipality are on the agreement side to reflect that indeed there is impact of complexities within developmental local government. These tendencies confirm the findings in pursuance of the first objective and that of the second objective in that complexities as they manifest themselves in developmental local government limit the rational perspective of implementing developmental local government. On that basis the findings imply that implications as portrayed dictate the need in the South African local government discourse to reconsider the models being adopted in ensuring implementation of developmental local government.

#### **6.6.4 Other findings**

Other than research findings that were aligned to the research objectives of the study as presented above, there are other findings of the study that deserves attention. These additional findings are based on the analysis and the interpretation of data as presented in the study. Those findings are among others the blurring interface of politics and administration in local government, lack of authentic democratic engagement within municipal councils, and lack of adhering to the developmental conception through adopting the existing community structural arrangements into developmental local government. Those other findings as mentioned are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

##### **6.6.4.1 Politics and administration interface within municipalities in South Africa**

The study has found out that developmental local governments are replica of other traditional and political structures that are dominant within the society that host them. The study attributed this to coercive institutional isomorphism, either traditionally or politically. Political structures exert pressure

to legitimate structures of local government to an extent that what happens within a given municipality resembles what is happening in the dominant political structure within that area. For example the ruling party (ANC) in South Africa during the period of review has realigned its structures to be in line with the statutory government demarcation of municipalities in the whole country. That is to say each delimited municipal ward is equal to the area of the branch of the ruling party (ANC); each delimited local municipality area is equal to the sub-regional structure of the ruling party (ANC), while each delimited district municipality area is equal to a regional structure of the ruling party (ANC). This lead to micro-management of statutory government structures by political structures outside statutory governance. For example the chairperson of the branch of the ruling party (ANC) felt entitled to be a ward councillor; a chairperson of the sub-regional structure of the ruling party felt entitled to be the Mayor of a Local Municipality while the chairperson of the regional structure felt entitled to be the District Mayor. This is of course built up from the practice of the ruling party also in other spheres of government and the mode of cadre deployment (Cameron, 2010). For example, the chairperson of the provincial structure of the ruling party, in most cases became the premier elect of that province. The challenge is however amenable when the ruling party decide otherwise. In the case where the chairperson of either of the structures of the ruling party do not assume the related portfolio in government, the government structure become so unstable due to the rift of political and governance power interactions. For example in Makhado Local Municipality the sitting mayor for more than one occasion was not the political office bearer in the ruling party's structures. The municipality's administration became so unstable to an extent that the Member of the Executive Council of the Province (MEC) responsible for local government had to informally intervene through the municipal councillors' caucus as well as the Premeir of the Province (Gabara, 2007). In that case the dominant trade union that was at the time member of the federation aligned to the ruling party (ANC) was instrumental in causing such instabilities (Gabara, 2003). The Chairperson of the same trade union was also the secretary of the local branch of the ruling party at the time. Such trend went on even though the management of the municipality has changed to an extent that as late as 2008 the municipal manager in charge at the time had to sue the trade union and the local news paper for defamation (Zoutpansberger, 2008). The same was like that in the District Municipality of Vhembe until the Chairperson of the regional structure was elected as the executive mayor. Contrary to Musina Local Municipality where at the time of review, the municipal manager was also the chairperson of the subregional structure of the ruling party (ANC) at the time that was equivalent to the municipality in terms of government

demarcation. The municipality shows some element of stability throughout until at the stage where the trade unions sought that there be a probe of corruption during 2009 (Muthambi, 2009). Even politicians from the other spheres of government exert influence in local municipalities through the political seniority they have within the ruling party. This trend became eminent as per reports from other municipalities within other provinces within the country. The trend became phenomenal during the runup to 2011 local government elections where there were reports about the changing of candidates preferred by communities in the ruling party candidate lists throughout the country (Ndlangisa, Yende and Mboyisa, 2011; Mawande, 2011; Matavire, 2011). That also created divisions within the ruling party's provincial structures (Yende, 2011; Matavire, 2011). The rift within party structures directly influences the activities of a municipality. This also have different implications when a different political office bearer of the ruling party is holding position of influence within a municipality. For example the municipal manager in Musina Local Municipality was a sub-regional chairperson of the ruling party within the area; and the Assistant Manager for Human Resources in Thulamela Local Municipality was the Regional Secretary of the ruling party. The leverage of political authority within the party transcended to the municipal council. In the formal municipal council governance the municipal manager served as an administrative head that is subordinate to the municipal council in terms of public administration normative guideline, while in the political structures outside formal municipal council governance he becomes the authority. Same instance in Makhado Local Municipality where the mayor of the municipal council is not holding any political office within the structures of the political party while among the councillors he is presiding over the council's executive committee there is a chairperson of the regional structure of the ruling party. This finding reflects the complexities of interactions involved within the theoretical ideal of political interface. In reality it remain impossible to draw a line given this complex manifestations especially in cases where human agents are involved in that they have internal structure that has been discussed in chapter 3.

#### **6.6.4.2 Lack of authentic democratic engagement within municipal councils**

The other finding is that there is a lack of authentic democratic engagement within municipal councils during council meetings. It was observed that individual councillors could hardly debate issues in a council meeting to reach a policy decision. The ruling party had majority councillors in all local municipalities within the Vhembe District Municipality area. Council decisions were always deferred or postponed because the majority councillors, of were from the ruling party get disorganised during

council meeting proceedings and end up confusing the item being discussed in the agenda. The speaker of the council will in most cases end up adjourning the meeting for few minutes to allow councillors representing the ruling party to convene a caucus. The caucus was presided by the municipal council's chief whip. On resuming the meeting after caucus the speaker will acknowledge only councillors designated per caucus position to speak on the matter to put forward a caucus position and allow also another councillor also designated by the caucus to second the whatever proposal made by the first councillor and the matter will be closed if there were no further intercatations. The challenge arises where a councillor from the opposition party within the council meeting opposes the submission and substiate the position with valid facts that the ruling party might have overlooked during their caucus, which was always the case. The council meeting then becomes chaotic as the majority councillors from the ruling party in most cases do not have facts to debate on issues as they are programed during a caucus. This is also exharrated by the ability and political bias of the speaker of council in handling the council meeting. In most cases the municipal council had to postpone important matters without taking decisions due to lack of such authentic democtratic debate within council meetings. For example Makhado Local Municipal Council had to always defer items for discussion to the next meeting during its term of Office. Subjecting matters for decision to special municipal council meetings appeared to have become a better way of handling sensitive matters that required council decision. The study attributed this lack of authentic democratic debate in council meetings to the caucus of councillors of the ruling party that preceed council meetings. Councillors rehearsed the council meeting before it starts in the form of a caucus. They are given directives on handling issues on the agenda through a given way and take decisions programmed by the ruling party. In the Council chamber things turn differently as members of the opposition parties are available to challenge and officials are available to clarify some issues. The majority of Councillors found them not sure what inputs to make as they are programmed through the caucus position of the ruling party on the issue being discussed. In most cases the Speaker who is obviously from the ruling party will just refer the matter back to enable another caucus on the matter.

#### **6.6.4.3 Developmental local government operating parallel to established community governance structures**

The other finding is that other community structures that form part of the traditions of those communities are not fully integrated into the governance of municipalities. This results in the duplication of municipal services and renders the notion of developmental local government an

academic exercise. In terms of the IDP's of all the municipalities under review, ward committees are main structures of ensuring community participation. All the reviewed local municipalities have confirmed that the ward committees have been established. It was however not clear as to how those ward committees operate directly with the community at large. Most parts of Makhado Local Municipality, Thulamela Local Municipality and Mutale Local Municipality comprises of rural villages under traditional leadership. Those villages through their traditional leaders perform services that are reserved for municipalities like cemeteries and dealing with community disputes. The notion of community is contextualised beyond geographical location as traditional leadership is still entrenched to traditional culture. For example the community of Majosi in Makhado Local Municipality is under Chief Majosi who happens to be a Shangaan observing Shagaan/Tsonga traditions. Same to the community of Mukula in Thulamela Local Municipality that is under Chief Makumbani who happens to a Venda Chief observing the Vha-Vhenda traditions. Those communities have over the years of the survival of traditional leadership within villages, developed a way of interaction and modes of community participation. Introducing ward committees to them is a matter of fulfilling the requirements of the relevant legislation that give effect to them. The traditional gatherings in the headman's kraal remain a viable way of interaction within villages despite the existence of ward committees. This finding confirm similar finding by Smith and De Visser (2009) in their study of the functioning and value of ward committees.

#### **6.6.4.4 Tribal hegemony**

Throughout the interviews conducted with selected stakeholders, it was found that those belonging to the other tribal groups felt being dominated by the other tribal group in governance structures within the municipality area. The trends were however not severe in Musina and Mutale local municipalities. In Thulamela Local Municipality and Makhado Local Municipality the trends were severe. This has however manifested itself in informal engagements that encroach to formal governance and create developmental strain. For example the renaming of Louis Trichardt Town to Makhado Town regarded as tribalistic by those was not supporting it. It was reported that the name is meant to honor the Venda King (Makhado Local Municipality IDP Document, 2006/2007). The Venda King was for a specific tribal or ethnic group within the district area and the status of the kingship was being challenged among the Vha-Venda group at the time. For example reports were that Shibase Kingdom and the Mphaphuli Kingdom among the Vha-Venda are not subjects to the Ramabulana Kingdom. At the time of

concluding this study the Shibase Kingdom was in the process of submitting a high court challenge of the Vha-Vhenda Kingship.

The same sentiments of tribal hegemony were raised by those who were not supporting the incorporation of Malamulele Township to Thulamela Local Municipality. It is alleged that the Vha-Venda tribe intended to dominate the Shangaans through those demarcation pronouncements. Those allegations were also strengthened by the fact that the chairperson of the Demarcation Board was the tribal leader within the Vha-Venda within the district municipality area. Other than the establishment of facts of the whole process with the chairperson of the Malamulele Boarder committee, an extract of a case report of Musetha (2001) as it appeared in the City Press of 11 March 2001 presented as Case 3 in this study. The case on the Malamulele border demarcation became eminent even during the runup to local government elections of 2011. That indicates that the matter will always surface throughout the implementation of developmental local government if not handled differently.

#### **Case 5: Malamulele community seeks high court reversal**

##### **By Ndivhuwo Musetha (City Press of Sunday 11 March 2001)**

Community members of Malamulele in Northern Province, next to Giyani, are still continuing with the process of taking the demarcation board to court following the decision by the board to reincorporate the area into Thohoyandou. The secretary of the border committee, Dr Jan Nkuna, told City Press this week they would seek an application in the high court to reverse the decision of the demarcation board, which incorporated Malamulele into the Thohoyandou municipality. Nkuna said they were busy conducting research into the issue. The research includes opinion polls, service delivery and the historical background of the area. He said their lawyers were busy with the report and they would decide on a date on which they will bring the matter to court. The community of Malamulele first opposed reincorporation late last year before the local elections. The community claimed the demarcation board was biased as it was headed by a traditional leader from Venda who wanted the demarcation to favour his constituency. As part of their protest, the Malamulele community led by Chief Shilungwa Cedrick Mhinga, boycotted the municipal elections. They also collected funds to defend the case in court. They said their area was big enough to remain a municipality. The community said they were concerned as to why Mutale/Masisi municipality was allowed to be on its own although it had only registered 27 000 voters in last year's local elections. They said Malamulele had registered 57 000 voters. The community also felt they had the correct infrastructure to be on their own. Dr Nkuna said stakeholders and community members from different parties were against the decision taken by the demarcation board. Even the chiefs were not ready to participate in local government structures unless the issue was resolved. "We do not have chiefs who are participating in local government in the Malamulele area. They never attended any of the meetings and they never took part in the election process," said Nkuna. MEC for local government and housing Joe Maswanganyi said Malamulele could not stand on its own. He said Malamulele did not have the revenue base to sustain itself. He added that there was no way a court would reverse the demarcation board's decision.

## **6.7 CONCLUSION**

Presentation of data in any study depends on the methodology and design adopted. The methodology and design on the other hand depend on the theoretical framework of the study. In presentation of data for this study has been necessary to review of IDP's of all municipalities under review to reflect the state of implementation of developmental local government. The review of IDP's was complemented by case

narrations of the state of performance management and community participation. Other forms of qualitative data presentation supplemented the literature engagement of IDP reviews and case narrations. To complement presentation of qualitative data it was imperative to present the quantitative data. Quantitative data was presented through graphical exposition that is suitable for qualitative data interpretation and analysis. The analysis of data, just like the presentation of data, took the form of qualitative and quantitative. The analysis of data and interpretation resulted in findings of the study. The main findings of the study were presented in relation to the main study objectives and research questions as posed in chapter introducing the study. The findings confirmed the main objectives and answer the main questions of the study. Other than the main findings as related to the main objectives of the study, other findings that emanated from the analysis and interpretation of data has been stated. Based on the findings as stated in this chapter, it is imperative for the study to be concluded and recommendations in relation to inputs the study has made in the policy discourse and development of theory in developmental local government has made. Such conclusions and recommendations are the main focus of the ensuing chapter.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

After findings of the study have been presented, any scientific research study has to be concluded by reflecting on the main conclusions of the study and stating recommendations in view of the findings. In concluding this study, salient main points and a summary of main findings obtained from previous chapters is made. The conclusions reflect on findings as presented per the interpretations and analysis in terms of presented theoretical framework. Deviations or gaps from the ideal theoretical base and practice of developmental local government as highlighted are summed up and the significance in relation to the theoretical stand adopted in the whole study is stated. These is intended to pave way for the proposed inputs to current policy dispensation in the implementation of South African developmental local government based on the findings of this study. The proposed policy inputs are related closely to areas that need further research within the field of developmental local government as well as consideration of other theoretical strands that are necessary to explore the avenue in relation to postmodern ontology that had formed the basis of the adopted theoretical framework of complexity thinking throughout the study.

#### **7.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY**

Throughout the engagement of literature survey, problem statement and methodology, empirical survey and data analysis, as well as presentation of findings; the study draws up conclusions. Those conclusions are categorised in relation to the focus area of findings of the study that were related to the study objectives being the determination of the extent of complexity in developmental local government, the extent of the implementation of developmental local government, and the extent to which the existence of complexities are contributing to the extent of municipalities realising their developmental objectives. Those recommendations are presented in the ensuing paragraphs.

### **7.2.1 Developmental local government is a complex reflexive phenomenon**

The first conclusion drawn on this study is that developmental local government is by its form, nature and function a complex phenomenon that tend to be reflexive as it evolve together with other factors that form part of the systems that determine its establishment. That is what referred to as *morphogenesis* in this study is. The extent of those complexities that exists within developmental local government limits the application of modern rational theoretical analysis in realising the policy intentions of the dispensation. Modern theoretical analyses that are informed by positivist conception of developmental local government do however lay a foundation in understanding the notion of local government. In those circumstances it reduces theorisation of developmental local government to a recipe that misinterpreted as a solution for all municipalities. The recipe contention is based on what was referred as *isomorphism* in this study. It develops to what can be described as looking for best practices elsewhere instead of developing from local realities that can best describe it. Those modern theoretical conceptions however need to be complemented by postmodern conceptions that will eventually address the phenomena from complex theory perspective. Complex theory will enhance the contextualisation of developmental local government as a complex adaptive system that cannot not only be dealt with through uniform rational discourse. The application of multiple theoretical discourses that are informed by the actual realities on the ground will therefore enhance postmodern thinking that seeks to take advantage of various discourses in addressing a given phenomenon. Such will lay a foundation for multi-dimensional approaches in dealing with developmental local government.

### **7.2.2 Municipalities are not implementing the developmental local government mandate as envisaged in the policy framework**

As it is concluded in the previous paragraph that developmental local government is by its nature a complex system, those complexities makes it difficult for municipalities to realise the developmental local government mandates as envisaged in the relevant legislative prescripts. Implementantion of the developmental local government mandates stems from the very constitutional establishment of municipalities as provided for within various legislations to the actual form, structure and functioning of municipalities. The form and structure of developmental local government is not static right from the location of local government as the sphere of local government to contextualisation of development or developmental. This is exarbatated by the interactions involved in the operationalisation of the actual developmental duties of developmental local government. To realise Integrated Development Plan

(IDP), Performance Management System, and Community Participation in a municipality create rich interactions that are at a local level. Those interactions are complex and cannot be reduced to a predictable analysis. Implementation of developmental local government therefore remains an ideal that cannot be realised. Instead local realities should be the ones that precede informing the implementation of developmental local government. The whole system has been conceived from a centralism perspective as if everything is the same in South Africa. Empirically it has been established within a single district municipality that there is much variety that uniformity.

### **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The recommendation of the study is based on the primary theoretical input that a study sought to put forward from the conception. The study's major theoretical input in the field and discipline of Public Administration is to enhance the development of insight, model or approach on the policy framework of the implementation of the developmental local government in South Africa. This was based on the premise of the main theoretical research question theoretical models or Public Administration approaches that are necessary to be considered for the successful implementation of developmental local government mandate in South Africa. Those recommendations are as presented in the ensuing paragraphs.

#### **7.3.1 The need for local government autonomy**

The need for local government autonomy is indispensable for the success of the notion of developmental local government in South Africa. It needs to be put forward that autonomy was also found to be a critical aspect in developmental local government by other researchers. For example De Visser (2005) has also identified it as a critical aspect. Although autonomy in this regard is premised from the ontology of a complex system that needs to adapt in its environment and survives in terms of the dictate of its local circumstances. For example, to ensure the developmental notion within its scope, local government must be able to determine the space of possibilities by itself within its own turbulent environment. That autonomy is however provided for through the constitutional provision of the sphere of government as distinct to a tier or level of government. As reflected through the findings of this study the challenge arises during the operationalisation of the sphere as various legislative prescripts from

other spheres of government have to be put in place. The diversity within which developmental local government is implemented dictates the need for authentic consideration of those realities.

### **7.3.2 Creating the space of innovation in local government**

As a complex system, developmental local government adopts its form, structure and function through interaction of various components as well as the environment. Those interactions are nonlinear, unpredictable and are always in the state of unequilibrium. That necessitates continuous innovation in local government that will keep up with the continuous learning mode of the system. Modern rational processes become limited in application as the phenomenon of developmental local government is in constant change. This does not imply that rational positivist science is not necessary for developmental local government, but such rational science must be complemented by complex paradigms to enhance multiplicity and pluralism and cater for the variety of contexts and persona among the interacting agents. For example the Local Government Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 provide for the establishment of ward committees as an instrument of community participation throughout all municipalities in the whole country. It has been established in this study that some areas do not utilise ward committees as envisaged. Instead other forms of community participation suitable for those areas are effective, for example a village traditional “*khoro*”. Local government as a sphere of government must have an innovative space that must enable it to explore those processes suitable for its circumstances. That will require a paradigmatic shift to consider complementing the mainstream public administration discourse by postmodern discourse. It is argued that creating of space for creativity and innovation will enhance the fusion of local institutions which have survived centuries of apartheid legacy to filter in the notion of developmental local government properly.

### **7.3.3 Reconsideration of local government profesionalisation**

It has been confirmed in the study that the principle of “*trias politika*” is not clearly defined in South African local government. This also brings in other recommendations of the study. For example due to its complex nature, developmental local government has rich interaction with its environment and other components operating within its vicinity. Its autonomy will enhance the independent innovative behaviour that suits its circumstances. That autonomous, independent, innovative behaviour need some element of professionalisation to bring about expertise where it might needed. For example those assigned with the legislative role in local municipalities must be able to deliver their mandate in a

diligent professional manner that will give space to the assumption of executive roles by those assigned. Although the municipal council have both the legislative and executive roles as provided for in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, lack of professionalism contribute to poor manuvaring through the complex interactions among the roles. A professional municipal manager will be able to establish the stage of a political decision and an administrative decision and be able to guide the municipality through those chaotic exposures. This might go a long way of idealising complexities emanating from multiplicity and pluralism, context, persona, and accountability and responsibility. Managing within the phenomena characterised by multiplicity and pluralism do not require common sense. Various contexts that emanate through interactions that take place within local government require those knowledgeable and skilled to handle such complexities. That is where the persona aspect becomes necessary in terms of competences required. The range of complex responsibilities and accountabilities within developmental local government posses challenges that require professionals beyond political deployments.

#### **7.4 FURTHER RESEARCH OPTIONS**

The conclusions as drawn above necessitate the need to reflect on further research options for research that need to be considered within the arena of developmental local government in South Africa. Further research options proposed in this study are based on the salient aspects identified during the presentation of findings. Those salient aspects are as follows:

##### **7.4.1 The role of party politics in developmental local government**

The political transformation in South Africa has taken the form of top-down approach due to the prioritization of attempting to unify the state as a single entity. The establishment of the democratic dispensation provided for provinces with a federal character within a unitary state. The space of party politics within up to the level of the province exerts much pressure on the envisaged developmentgal local government that is demarcated wall to wall. Local governments in terms of the intergrated planning notion become the only sphere for community reach out. The space between municipalities and provinces is minimal for political interplay from national while at the sametime local governments are determining the local context. The party politics that were suppose to have enough space at national sphere find their way in through provinces and districts to municipalities. Those political contestations

defeat the purpose of developmental local government as a means of realising development in South Africa. The option can be of embracing authentic direct democracy at a local level without party politics especially at ward level. Party politics closes the space of authentic direct democratisation of developmental local government as it also encroaches into the ward structures. Of ideologies are determined through political affiliations, which can be left for individual candidates to articulate on those ideologies pronounced through national manifestos of political parties. The space will provide for complex interactions in persona to have competent agents that can balance complex accountabilities and responsibilities within developmental local government.

#### **7.4.2 The role of provincial sphere of government and district municipalities in developmental local government**

Throughout the study it has been found that the multiplicity of statutory role players through legislating for local government creates another form of complexity. As argued in chapter two of this study, for local government be constitutionally located as a sphere of government is unrealistic than ideal. The other spheres still legislate for local government and have sanctions either by with-holding funding where it is needed most for service delivery. There is a need for further rigorous research on whether South African dispensation still have a role for provinces if it has to realise developmental aspiration in the form of developmental local government. Few questions to be looked at are, do the provinces within the whole state dispensation serve purpose in realising developmental aspirations given the complex realities of developmental local government? What support, if any do provinces and districts provided for local governments to be developmental? This option is based on the findings that provincial government had become the form of institutionalization of political micromanagement of local governments. There is very little in terms of capacity that the provincial government provide for municipalities to realise its developmental aspirations.

#### **7.4.3 The state of theoretical discourse in public administration in relation to developmental local government**

South African public administration discourse appears to have taken a back seat in relation to developmental local government realisation. The opening introduction of developmental local government through the neoliberal character of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 with its emphasis on the New Public Management (NPM) prescripts opened up for private sector

consultants to storm local government. The arena became a money making space where envisaged developmental plans were reduced to cut and paste documents without meaningful content of real planning. This proposal is based on the state of planning in developmental local government that resembles paperwork without addressing real purposes. In as much as the state of Public Administration discourse towards the new South Africa through the New Public Administration Initiative and the Mount Grace Consultation to the State of Public and Development Management in South Africa: The Mount Grace 2, very little have been made to interrogate the complexity that has been brought about developmental local government notion. The speed of politics in introducing developmental local government, as the researcher had argued in his 2011 publication, had scared scholars to take refuge within academic building blocks as their space have been invaded by tendpreneures in developmental local government discourse.

## **7.5 CONCLUSION**

The conceptions of a study that is informed by the theoretical frameworks that do not subscribe to the mainstream modern positivist linear and rational discourse remain a challenge facing young researchers within the discourse of social sciences research. But through the conclusions and findings presented in the study, an input is hereby made within the theory subject field of Public Administration from the conception of complexity theory. In conclusion the study had posed more questions that provoke more research and it is up to fellow researchers and scholars to critique the study and develop more meaningful inputs in the theory and discourse of Public Administration especially through complex modeling that can address the postmodern society that the world is drifting into.

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Annexure A

Annexure B

Annexure C

Annexure D

Annexure E

## **ANNEXURE F: STRUCTURED RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

**To: Research Respondents**

### **Research Questionnaire**

#### **The Nature and Implications of complexity in developmental local government: A case of selected municipalities in the Vhembe District, Limpopo Province**

Dear Respondent

It will be appreciated if you can take some time to complete this questionnaire which is aimed at establishing the nature and implications of complexity in development local government within selected municipalities in the Vhembe District, Limpopo Province.

This questionnaire is for an academic study on the above-mentioned topic being conducted in municipalities within Vhembe District Municipality area. You have been identified as one of the respondents who can assist in acquiring data for interpreting the state of the implementation of developmental local government in the area. You are therefore kindly requested to respond to the items listed on the questionnaire along the scales as provided. Attached please find the questionnaire copy and clarifications of some concepts which might assist in understanding the questionnaire items.

***Please note!!!*** All information will be treated as confidential. This is an independent academic research project of the University of Limpopo. Any person who completes this questionnaire will remain anonymous and untraceable.

**MR. NGHAMULA NKUNA**

**RESEARCHER**

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To answer please, tick (✓), write in the appropriate space, or box

**SECTION A: Demographics**

1. Age	
2. Gender	
3. Highest qualifications	
4. Occupation or Department	
5. How long have you been employed in or serving with the municipality	

**SECTION B: Developmental Local Government**

**1. COMPLEXITIES IN DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

1.1 It is necessary for a number of stakeholders to interact with the municipality to realise development local government

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.2 Involvement of diverse community stakeholders make it difficult for the implementation of developmental local government mandate.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.3 There are a range of creative methods through which the municipality can mobilise energy, capacity and resources outside the municipality for the development of the area.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.4 Involvement of a number of diverse communities poses a challenge in realising developmental local government.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.5 It is difficult to bring diverse communities to a common vision and mission within a single municipality.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.6 Stakeholders participating in the municipality governance are sometimes driven by emotions and aspirations, inspiration and anxiety, honesty and deception, imagination and curiosity that result to self-interest.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.7 Stakeholders develop their own individual mental purposes leading to tension between conformity and individualism.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.8 Within the municipality, many different agencies contribute to development, including national and provincial departments, parastatals, trade unions, community groups and private sector institutions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.9 The municipality is aware of the divisions within local communities, and seeks to promote the participation of marginalised and excluded groups in the community process.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.10 Interest groups, community organisations and political parties capture the participatory process to achieve narrow interests and become an obstacle to empowerment.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.11 There is no single correct way to achieve local government goals.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.12 Personalities of leaders in local government tend to influence the manner they handle aspects of developmental local government.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.13 There is no unitary conception of cultural values and traditions in the municipality.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.14 Public administration variables, concepts, categories pose a conceptual challenge during their application in local government as stakeholders always bring their own interpretations.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.15 Statements used in developmental local government have more than one meaning, often vague, inconsistent and are subject to change.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.16 The municipal council always has a difficulty in taking decisions on the state of its performance and that of its managers.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.17 Due to a number of interest groups involved in developmental local government, officials tend to have a difficulty on who are they accountable and responsible to.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.18 At times it is not clear as to what are the actual competencies required for senior officials in local government

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.19 Processes in developmental local government are interdependent, interconnected in that a change in either of them will impact on the activities of the other.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

1.20 Communities within the municipality have different traditional histories that need to be catered for while developing the municipality's spatial framework

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

## 2. IMPLEMENTATION OF DEVELOPMENTAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT

2.1 The municipality has implemented all developmental local government systems as envisaged in the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.2 Through a process of Integrated Development Planning (IDP) the municipality has established a development plan for the short, medium and long term for the municipality.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.3 Integrated Development Planning (IDP) is a normal and required municipal function in other words IDP's are not "add-ons" and should not "farmed out" to consultants.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.4 The municipality has developed a comprehensive community participation strategy that is being implemented in the municipality.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.5 The municipality has developed a comprehensive performance management system which is being implemented throughout the municipality.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.6 Performance management is critical to ensure that plans are being implemented, that they have a desired development impact, and resources are being used efficiently.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.7 Building local democracy is a central role of local government, and municipalities should develop strategies and mechanisms to continuously engage with citizens.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.8 Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management, and Community participation remain an ideal which cannot be realised in full within developmental local government.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.9 For many local citizens, their main contact with the municipality is through the consumption of municipal services.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.10 The municipality has achieved a maximum impact on social development of communities – in particular meeting the basic needs of the poor – and on the growth of the local economy.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

2.11 The municipality has finalised its performance management assessment for the previous financial year.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

### 3. IMPACT OF COMPLEXITIES ON REALISATION OF OBJECTIVES

3.1 Due to diverse communities and stakeholders involved in developmental local government it is difficult to come out with a single common vision and mission for the municipality.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.2 Activities like political in-fights within political parties affect the progress of municipal service delivery.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.3 Most activities taking place in the municipality are shaped by its history, for example the amalgamation of transitional local municipalities and “apartheid” history.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.4 The involvement of more than one stakeholder in developmental local government makes it impossible for a municipality to plan rationally and able to meet objectives.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.5 Stakeholders acting at random or with their own agendas nevertheless can work effectively as a group or an entire organisation and may create coherence in the absence of grand design.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.6 Statements used in developmental local government have more than one meaning, often vague, inconsistent and are subject to change.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.7 Due to political instability within the municipal council, it is difficult for the municipality to implement developmental local government systems

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.8 Public administrators need to understand that situations in local government vary and different responses are appropriate for these situations.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.9 The success of developmental local government is embedded on the expectations of compliance with deadlines, acquiesces to regulations and legislative prescriptions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

3.10 Complexities within local municipalities have influenced the manner in which local council achieve its aims and goals

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
----------------	-------	-----------	----------	-------------------

### **Clarification of concepts:**

**Accountability** refers to an obligation of an individual, organisation, or an institution to account for its activities and accept responsibility for those activities, and disclose the results in a transparent manner (Dun and Legge Jr. 2000:74; Hanekom et al, 1996:177).

**Approaches for developmental local government** refer Integrated Development Planning (IDP), Performance Management System, and Community Participation (DPLG, 1998:26).

**Community** refers to self-organised network of people with common agenda, cause, or intent, who collaborate by sharing ideas, information, and other resources (Barnett and Crowther, 1998:428). Such group of people might be living in a particular local area or have a shared community of possessions or agreement of common goals.

**Competence** refers to a cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge, and skills that enable a person or an organisation to act effectively in a particular job or situation (Virtanen, 2000:126). It can also refer to capacity of a person to understand a situation and to act reasonably.

**Developmental local government** refers to local government committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic, and material needs and improve the quality of their lives (DPLG, 1998:17).

**Responsibility** refers to a duty or obligation to satisfactorily perform or complete a task, assigned by someone, or created by one's own promise or circumstances, that one must fulfill (Harmon, 1995:25).

**Stakeholder** refers to a person, group, or organisation that has direct or indirect stake in an organisation because it can affect or be affected by the organisation's actions, objectives, and policies (Steiner and Steiner, 2006:16; Wixley and Everingham, 2008:18). In a municipality stakeholders may range from individual members of public as recipients or customers for municipal services to organisations involved in municipal planning like NGO's, States Departments, Political Parties, Community Groups, Traditional Leaders, Trade Unions etc.



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## Annexure A: Vhembe District Municipality Map

**Legend**

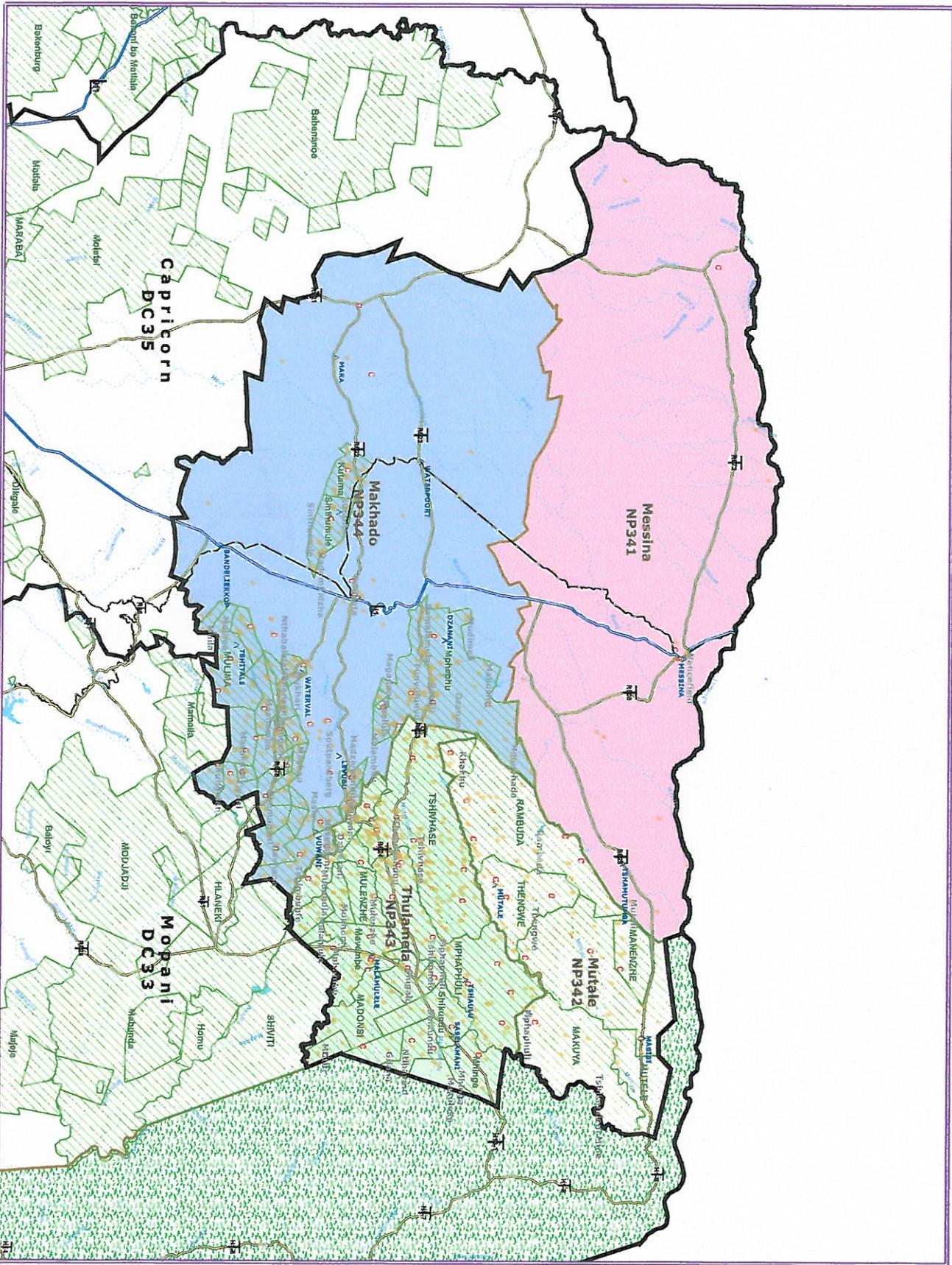
- Main Place
- Airports
- Schools
- Police Stations
- Health Facilities
- Local Municipalities
- Traditional Authorities
- District Management Areas
- Dams
- National Roads
- Main Roads
- Railways
- Rivers

Data supplied by:

- Statistics South Africa
- Department: Water Affairs & Forestry
- Department: Provincial & Local Government
- Department: Health
- Department: Safety & Security
- Department: Education
- Department: Transport

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# Annexure B: Makhado Local Municipality (LIM344)

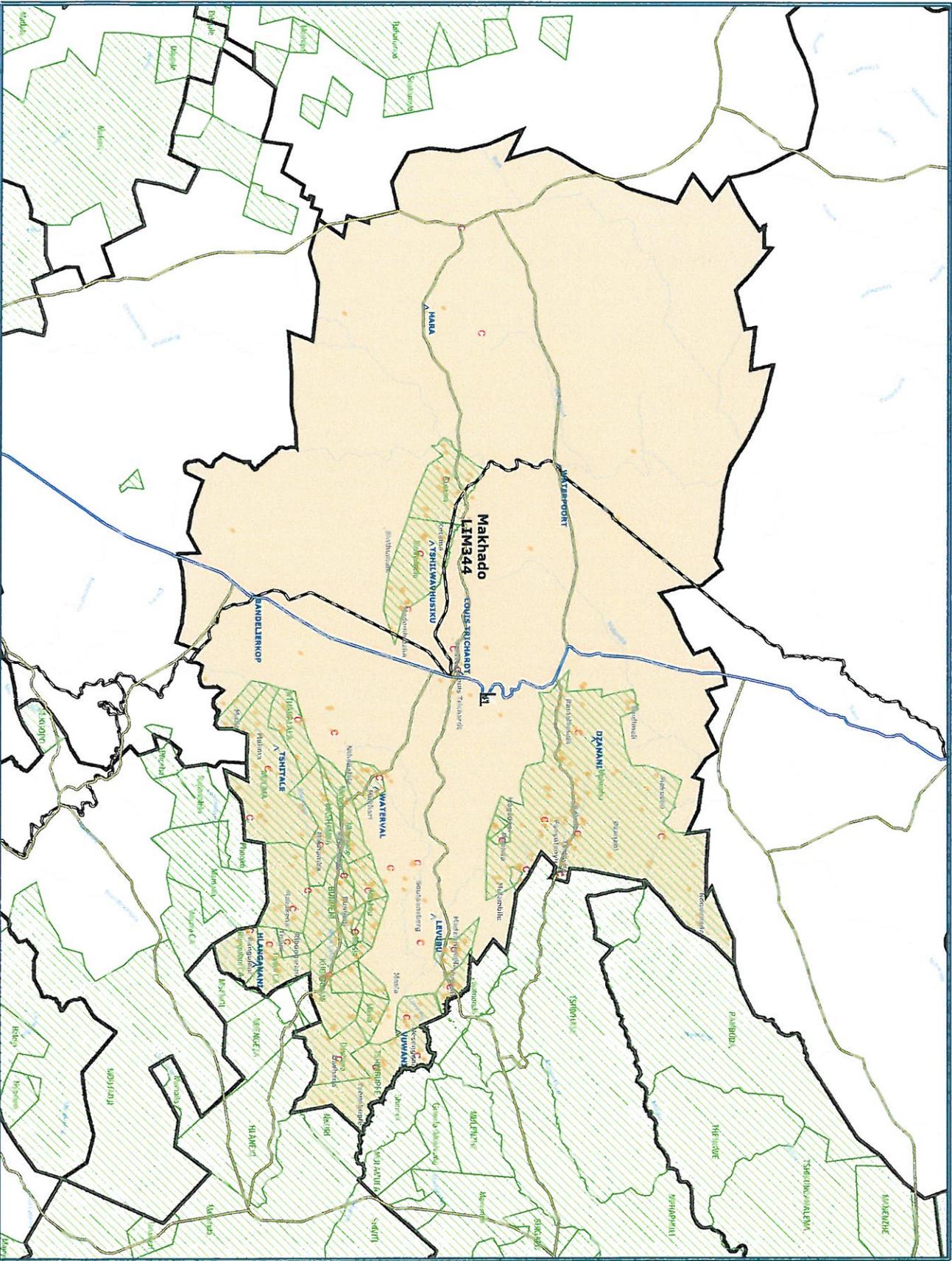
- Legend**
- Sub Place
  - Airports
  - Schools
  - Police Stations
  - Health Facilities
  - Local Municipalities
  - Traditional Authorities
  - District Management Areas
  - Dams
  - National Roads
  - Main Roads
  - Railways
  - Rivers

Data supplied by:

- Satides South Africa
- Department: Water Affairs & Forestry
- Department: Provincial & Local Government
- Department: Health
- Department: Safety & Security
- Department: Education
- Department: Transport



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# Annexure D: Mutale Local Municipality (LIM342)

- Legend**
- Sub Place
  - Airports
  - Schools
  - Police Stations
  - Health Facilities
  - Local Municipalities
  - Traditional Authorities
  - District Management Areas
  - Dams
  - National Roads
  - Main Roads
  - Railways
  - Rivers

Data supplied by:

- Statistics South Africa
- Department: Water Affairs & Forestry
- Department: Provincial & Local Government
- Department: Health
- Department: Safety & Security
- Department: Education
- Department: Transport



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