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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE
SECOND DECADE OF DEMOCRACY IN SOUTH AFRICA

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SOUTH AFRICAN ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT-GAUTENG (SAAPAM-G) CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

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CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS EDITORIAL POLICY

South African Association of Public Administration and Management-Gauteng Chapter (SAAPAM-G) was established to encourage and promote good governance and effective service delivery through the advancement of professionalism, scholarship and practice in public administration and management. It strives to achieve this by annually hosting mini-conferences, which bring together academics and practitioners to share research findings and experiences on matters of public administration and management. In 2008 the conference took place in the Vaal Triangle Campus of the North - West University. The theme of the conference was "Public Administration in the Second Decade of Democracy in South Africa".

The conference proceedings are published in a CD. All papers submitted for publication were subjected to a rigorous process of peer-review by specialist referees whose evaluation reports were made available to the authors to improve the quality of their work. The papers were first subjected to initial editorial committee screening, which, upon its satisfaction with their general compliance with the editorial requirements as prescribed, were sent to two anonymous specialist referees. It was only on the basis of the referees evaluation reports that the editorial committee accepted the papers.

The instructions sent to the authors were that the manuscript and references should be typed in 1.5 line spacing using 12-point font size. An abstract of no more than 350 words should be included. Authors should submit their manuscripts in electronic format in MS Word format by e-mail to the editors. Chicago reference technique of author-date system should be used. This means references should cited in the text by the author(s) names (s), the year of publication and the page numbers (s) in brackets, for example, at the beginning of a sentence, Wilson (2007, 870), and the end of a sentence or a paragraph, (Wilson 2007, 870). A full list of references should appear at the end of the article, which should include all the sources cited in the text of the article. CMS Crib Sheet is the quick guide to Chicago reference technique and is available at http://www.docstyles.com. Authors were strongly encouraged to visit this site for more information on the technique. All contributions should be accompanied by a letter of submission requesting their review. In such a letter authors were requested to make a declaration, which must be signed, that the article submitted is their own original work with a clear indication that their consideration for publication by SAAPAM-G will not violate any contractual agreement and is not published or under consideration for publication elsewhere.

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EDITORIAL NOTE

This conference proceedings comprises 9 papers that tackle different but important governance issues that the government should seriously consider in its attempt to build and consolidate a developmental state, which is its strategic transformation focus in this second decade of democracy in South Africa. It is therefore an important contribution to the body of knowledge. Maserumule's paper tackles the notion of *ipsedixitism* as a *centrifugal force* inhibiting efforts to establish intellectual capital required to sustain state capacity in pursuit of a developmental state. The paper argues that *ipsedixitism* is a research challenge facing Public Administration scholars in their endeavours to ensure continuous and sustained contribution to the development of an appropriate knowledge that the country needs to achieve the imperatives of a developmental state. This paper is more focused on the theory of knowledge.

Mello's paper deals with South Africa's international governmental relations in a globalised world. In this paper Mello argues that the gains of the past 14 years may not be sustained if softer borders lead to struggle over resources between South Africa and immigrants. It is interesting to note that Sebola, although his paper is focused on the analysis and evaluation of the quality of and access to low cost housing, advance an argument similar to that of Mello in terms of competition over the resources and services provided by government between South Africans and immigrants. At the time of writing this editorial the issue of competing for resources between South Africans and immigrants resulted in serious conflicts, which the media and other commentators labelled them as xenophobia.

Phago and Louw deal with the issue of accountability in South Africa. The question that directs the discourse of their paper is whether public service accountability is a matter of compliance or effect? Phago and Louw's paper could be linked with that of Ababio, Mzini and Vyas-Doorgapersad; Moeti and Chelechele; and Louw. Their papers are all concerned with the democratic imperative of citizen participation in the processes of governance. Ababio, Mzini and Vyas-Doorgapersad paper is titled "Promoting community participation through sustainable food garden programme: A democratic requirement or an accountability burden?" This paper highlights the importance of poor communities' participation in the fight against poverty and challenges faced by communities in securing their food gardens. The paper's focal area is the Sedibeng District Municipality in the Gauteng province. The authors also assess policies and their implications on poverty alleviation and community participation.

Moeti and Chelechele approach public participation from a normativist and positivist perspectives. Three case studies, namely, Makhado, Khutsong and the disbandment of the Directorate of Special operations are used to demonstrate the extent to which the voice of the people is ignored in South Africa. The authors argue that ignoring the voice of the people may lead to the demise of democracy in South Africa as it is the case in other

African countries. Louw's article looks at how ethics, transparency and accountability in the South African public service could be enhanced.

Mahlangu and Khan's papers deal with issues that pertain to human resource management in the South African public service. Mahlangu's paper focuses on the assessment of the progress made in the implementation of employment equity in the South African public service. Employment equity in South Africa is necessitated by the desire to correct the imbalances which were caused by the previous apartheid system. The paper provides a policy framework which includes, amongst others, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 and the Employment Equity Act, 1995. These two policies put emphasis on equality and represent an attempt to ensure that the injustices of the past do not resurface again. A statistical evidence of the progress made is presented. The paper also elaborates on the relations between diversity management and employment equity. Khan's paper examines human resources practices. The paper argues that if the public sector managers could customize private sector human resources management practices, they would undoubtedly be inspired and motivated to deal with the challenges that confront them.

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IPSEDIXITISM: A *CENTRIFUGAL FORCE* INHIBITING EFFORTS TO ESTABLISH INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL STATE IN SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

Ipsedixitism often creeps up in the pursuit of knowledge. It inhibits efforts to create an appropriate intellectual capital, which is fundamentally important in sustaining state capacity. *Ipsedixitism* is considered in this paper as a research challenge facing Public Administration scholars in their endeavours to ensure continuous and sustained contribution to the development of an appropriate knowledge that the country needs to achieve the imperatives of a developmental state. At the outset, *ipsedixitism* is explained. Its impact on Public Administration scholarship in the effort to establish an intellectual capital for a developmental state, which is the strategic focus of the South African government in the second decade of democracy, is determined.

INTRODUCTION

The fast changing world of the twenty-first century and the challenges of globalisation necessitate that countries of the world, especially the developing ones, must engage in systematic efforts of creating a sustainable intellectual capital for effective competitiveness in the international economy. Intellectual capital is a colloquial term that permeated the science of economics and is now generally being used as part of its parlance in the contemporary development discourse. It refers to the quality and relevance of knowledge in people that determines a country's competitive edge in the global economy. As is in other fields of studies, Public Administration scholarship is expected to play a significant role in the creation of an appropriate intellectual capital needed to realise the imperatives of a development state, which is the strategic focus of government in the second decade of democracy.

The imperatives of a developmental state necessitate that the quality of life of the citizens must be enhanced through improved delivery of public services and the creation of an appropriate environment to maximise the participation of the citizens in the mainstream economy, particularly those that were previously marginalised by the apartheid system. Improving service delivery and creating a suitable climate for equitable citizen participation in the mainstream economy are two-pronged challenges that necessitate strong state capacity. And, to build such [state] capacity government needs a strong intellectual capital to ensure that the public service is staffed by the nation's brightest and best servants functioning without constraints and capable of being innovative in addressing the social and economic needs of the citizenry. In this regard, the importance of Public Administration scholarship in the quest for new discovery and new knowledge cannot be over-emphasised.

Kuye (2002, 13) defines scholarship as the collective quest for knowledge, supported by a diverse inquiry of domains and delivered in a logical sequence, as may be exhibited in teaching, research and practice. In the 4th Annual South African Public Management and the Commonwealth Association of Public Administration and Management (CAPAM) Conversation in Cape Town on 16-19 April 2007 the importance of scholarship in advancing the development agenda of the country was underscored. Critical issues that the Public Administration scholarship in a developmental context should engage with are often made very clear in a variety of government policy statements and most scholars use them as a compass that informs and directs their teaching and research endeavours. In engaging in the business of generating and disseminating knowledge in the field of Public Administration, scholars in South Africa, however, often encounter various challenges, which are extensively dealt with in the much of the contemporary discourses and the available body of scholarship on social science research and cannot therefore be repeated or mimicked here (see Auriacombe 2005, 377-391; Brynard 2005, 364-376).

One issue that, however, is not observably coming up glaringly clear in much of the discourse on Public Administration scholarship is the phenomenon of *ipsedixitism*, which often creeps up in the pursuit of knowledge. It inhibits efforts of creating an appropriate intellectual capital, which, as pointed out above, is fundamentally important in sustaining state capacity. *Ipsedixitism* is considered in this paper as a research challenge facing Public Administration scholars in their endeavours to ensure continuous and sustained contribution to the development of an appropriate intellectual capital that the country needs to achieve the imperatives of a developmental state. At the outset, *ipsedixitism* is explained. Its impact on Public Administration scholarship is determined. Towards the end, suggestions on how this phenomenon, which smacks of travesty of scholarship, could be dealt with are offered.

IPSEDIXITISM

The etymological antecedent of *ipsedixitism* is associated with Jeremy Bentham, who coined it from the Latin term *ipse dixit*. The origin of this term is traceable from the students of Pythagoras, who at some point in history were engaged in a mathematical discourse and, in the course of their debates some exclaimed *ipse dixit*, meaning "he himself, said it". The students were of course talking about their esteemed teacher, Pythagoras, "whose authority was strong even without reason" (Cicero undated, 1-10). *Ipse dixit* refers to an unsupported or dogmatic assertion or statement usually said by a person of standing. The acceptance of such assertion or statement as part of the epistemology is determined solely on the basis of one's authority, glamour, prestige, rank or popularity. *Ipse dixit* is an appeal to authority, which, in Latin means *argumentum ad verecundiam*. Its English translation is argument from authority rather than reason. It is a logical fallacy based on the proposition that something must be true simply because some eminence said it or wrote about it. Example of *ipse dixit* statements are: "if Aristotle said it was so, so it is so"; "the Bible says X therefore X is the right"; "and "my teacher said so, therefore it must be right" (Bachman 1995, 274-286; Blackburn 1994, 22).

Ipse dixit became so firmly established in the Middle Ages from the 12th century to the 15th century, with the medieval scholasticism such as Aristotle's philosophical discourse epitomising dogmatism, which appealed to authority wherever objections had to be obviated. In Cosmology and Epistemology (1989), it is stated that "for centuries, the scientific reputation of Aristotle was such that statements were asserted without proof by the ipse dixit" (see also Blackburn 1994, 23-24). Bentham (1995, 274-286), as referred to above, describes this epistemological practice as *ipsedixitism*, a concept which permeated the parlance of the theory of knowledge. It was "coined to apply to all non-utilitarian political arguments and it means self-referential appeal to authority, as in trust me, without reasoning or citation; it is an implicit assumption, accidentally made explicit; it presumes general agreement, as in a homily; it is unstated dogma, or believed to be a matter of fact; it is a stubbornly unsupported repetition of a disputed claim, asserting the user's power or disinterest in objections; and it is a deliberate sophistry, attempting to smuggle assertions into an argument"(WorldNet undated, on-line; see also Copi & Cohen 1998, 165-166).

In the Cosmology and Epistemology (1989) Galileo jettisoned Aristotle's philosophical belief of *ipsedixitism* as being an epistemological faux pas. A legitimate argument from authority "must have competence in area; the judgement must be within the authority's field of competence; the authority must be interpreted correctly; and direct evidence must be available" (ECONOMIC expert. com undated, on-line; see also Damer 1995). For, as Bertrand and Russell (1995:527) puts it:

> It is not *what* the man of science believes that distinguishes
> him, but *how* and *why* he believes it. His believes are
> tentative, not dogmatic; they are based on evidence, not
> authority or intuition.

Wittingly or unwittingly, *ipsedixitism* is still very much part of the contemporary scholarship's epistemological enterprise, especially in the field of Public Administration and manifests itself in various forms. For the purpose of this paper, academic, political, administrative and global *ipsedixitisms* are discussed and their impacts on scholarship endeavours to create a solid intellectual capital required to advance the imperatives of a developmental state are determined.

Academic ipsedixitism

Academic ipsdixistism is about scholarship fixation to a particular dominant intellectual paradigm simply because Professor X is its proponent. It is often more apparent in much of the dissertations and theses, which are presented in a manner aimed at being in conformity and in congruence with that paradigm preponderating at a particular point in time in the disciplinary discourses. In the history of development of the discipline, which is dealt with in much of the existing literature in the field, JJN Cloete's analytical framework based on six generic administrative processes had an "unbelievable long-lived influence" on the scholarship character and orientation of some of our established scholars in Public Administration (see Marais 1998:170; Maserumule 2005:18-19).

Much of the research outputs of JJN Cloete's former students, who some of them are currently scholars of fine distinctions, are grounded within the six generic administrative paradigm that was so popular particularly before the *Mount Resolution* of 1997. This is a clear example of how *academic ipsedixitism* could have an impact on Public Administration scholarship. The foregoing is even more so when an established scholar who supervises an emerging scholar is a proponent of a particular school of thought or is on a particular side of the debate about the theoretical and philosophical direction that the discipline should take.

Wittingly or unwittingly emerging scholars in a supervisor-candidate relationship are influenced by established scholars' sense of orientation, or sometime even allegiance, to a particular paradigm. In the context of this scenario, emerging scholars research outputs are not always necessarily about contribution to the body of knowledge, but compliance with precedents of a dominant paradigm. This leads to what I would call "scholarship cloning", which refers to a situation where established scholars mentoring emerging scholars would always try very hard to create themselves in the young or emerging scholars rather than helping them to establish themselves as scholars in their own right. Often in this case, supervision is conflated with *ipsedixitism*, and scholarship ceases to exist. It is here that developing theories are jettisoned without any attempt to subject them

to any form of scrutiny, not on the basis of their epistemic naïveté, but lack of professorial authority.

This is a case of, using Macedo's (1993, 183-205) words, "a literacy for stupidification, which operates under a pedagogy that perpetuates the inability to think critically". It is in this scenario where universities as repositories of knowledge cease to be institutional seats for scientific progress; and are "conceived of as milieu in which individuals are initiated into fixed disciplines rather than milieu in which they find material and human means with which to provide themselves with an education related to their tastes, their aspirations, their aptitudes, and also their role within that society" (Berstecher *et al*. 1974, 25). A developmental state needs the calibre of officials with an excellent sense of ingenuity; those who are creative and innovative in their engagement with their responsibility for public good. Public Administration scholarship should extricate ourselves from the shackles of *ipsedixitism,* assert our epistemological authority, and make a contribution towards the creation of a formidable intellectual capital this country needs to reposition itself as a developmental state.

Political Ipsedixitism

The impact of *political ipsedixitism* is even more severe in that it literally stifles free thinking and knowledge development as is based on the doctrine "that no truth exists beyond that approved by authorities, who may have the power to redefine reality". This phenomenon manifests itself when the "political power takes precedence" and dictates the scholarship agenda (see Kuye 2005:529). Public Administration scholars find it challenging to assert their steadfastness when the political powers are at play; they easily succumb to their dictates. This is even more so in respect of the majority of emerging scholars in the field of Public Administration, who are relatively young using academy as a springboard for lucrative careers in government. Their research outputs are often so carefully and finely sanitised to befit the political power and ideological inclination of the ruling party. The intention is to appease a potential hand that may feed them by telling the *power* what it needs to hear and not what it ought to hear. Clapper (2005: 185) made a very important observation that appropriately describes the impact of the *political ipsedixitism* on Public Administration scholarship that:

> … Public Administration research tends to be research of government programmes, determined by political ideologies, agendas, and expediencies. Topics on the current Ph.D., Masters and contract research agendas evidently simply test whether government policies are implemented correctly rather than critically analysing the relevance of policy agendas, or definitions of correctness. The narrow research that results from such approaches, as witnessed in most extant South African public administration research, is characteristically devoid of scientific rigour and tends to be descriptive rather than analytical.

Examples of cases of political *ipsedixitism* in South Africa abound. Think about the debate on HIV-AIDS, where politicians, instead of dealing with the policy dimensions of the pandemic, their engagement with it focussed on its *science*. The current electricity crisis, it is also a case in point. It is reported that the political power that be was advised ten years back about the possibility of the electricity power shortage and nothing was done then to obviate what is happening now. This means that an expert advice was not taken too seriously or just dismissed. In the face of such political *ipsedixitism*, Public Administration scholarship in South Africa exhibits a timid character, which is superficial and apologetic in engaging with issues of governance. Public Administration scholars are always conspicuous in their absence in the public intellectual discourse on issues that concerns the discipline. Much of the Public Administration writings in South Africa mimics rather than critically engage what the political leadership says. This is travesty of scholarship and does not make any contribution to the developmental agenda that the country is pursuing.

Administrative Ipsedixitism

The impact of the *administrative ipsedixitism* on Public Administration scholarship is similar to that of *political ipsedixitism. Administrative ipsedixitism* is about the public administration practitioners prescription of the research agenda of the academic specialists or scholars in Public Administration. The South African public service comprises a relatively powerful management particularly at the senior level. Members of senior management services (SMS) wield power that put them in a position where they can easily reject the scientific contribution of Public Administration scholars as being irrelevant to their needs, at times, "too theoretical and abstract; it does not capture reality; and is often communicated in complex and indecipherable disciplinary jargons" (Kuye 2005: 527). As a result of this, attempts to dictate research direction in the field abound. Emerging scholars, due to the fact that the majority of them are not yet fully-grounded, often get so easily swayed in their research endeavours to satisfy the bureaucratic whims than making any significant contribution to the development of the body of knowledge.

Kuye (2005:527) cautions that "academic specialists should not let practitioners' concerns dominate the research agenda. This does not, however, suggest that public administration scholar should not interact with them. Such interaction is necessary for acquiring a contextual insight into various problems that need solutions in the public service. For South Africa to succeed in its attempt to reposition itself as a developmental state, the academic-practitioner interface is very important. Such interface should not be about dictating to one another about what the other rather ought to do; rather, it should be based on co-operation and collaboration. A Public Administration scholar should, as Gutto (2007:56) appropriately puts it, "become an enquirer who looks at things objectively through evidence and presents it in a way that throws light on the reality so that the state and society see themselves as they are, not as they think they are".

Global Ipsedixitism

Global ipsedixitism is about scholarship fixation to foreign paradigms used to shape the development of the discipline. Development of the discipline in South Africa is a consequence of the *global ipsedixitism*. There is so much that has been adopted from the Western conceptualisations and used as a basis for development of the theory of Public Administration. Marais (1998:170) argues that JJN Cloete's six generic administrative processes, which form the basis for the development of the discipline pre-1990, are not as original as they are made to be. Their origins are instead traced to the administration principles introduced by Luther Gullick, colloquially referred to as POSDCORB. In the context of the foregoing, I argue that POSDCORB was uncritically imported from the West and refined into six generic administrative processes to shape the development of the discipline in South Africa.

In the post 1990 Public Administration in South Africa uncritically embraced yet another foreign invention introduced by Osborne and Gaebler as a basis for its development as a discipline, namely the New Public Management Approach. This approach is based on the neo-liberal thinking, which its antecedents are embedded in the Structural Adjustment Programmes of the international financial institutions (Diale, Maserumule and Mello 2007:638-649). Clapper (2005:183) argues that "the development of public administration in South Africa has been shaped by the cultural, political, and economic forces of the West" or what he calls a *learned imitationism*. This uncritical importation of foreign templates engenders thinking that Eurocentric paradigms contain all the ingredients for the solution of theoretical problems of the discipline. The impact of these is that Public Administration research outputs are often located within what Mazrui calls *alien paradigms* and are characterised by so much pre-occupation with neo-liberal paradigms and templates; mimicking of Euro-American scholarship; and perpetuating the pedagogy of big lies (Macedo 1993:183).

In the global dynamics of intellectualism and politics of power relations, those wielding global hegemonic power impose their understandings of what ought to be the meaning of certain intellectual phenomena on the less powerful and such meanings are often accepted without any serious consideration of their contextual appropriateness. In this regard Sardar (1999:44) warns us that:

> The power of the West is not located in its economic muscle and technological might. Rather, it resides in its power to define. The West defines what is, for example, freedom, progress and civil behaviour; law, tradition and community; reason; mathematics and science; what is real and what it means to be human. The non-Western civilizations have simply to accept these definitions or be defined out of existence.

To make an important impact in the development of an appropriate intellectual capital which is crucial in a developmental state, the Public Administration scholarship in South Africa should assert itself in the face of globalisation and masters the art of contextual discourse, conceptualisation, theorisation and philosophising. It should be engaged in the intellectual process of developing Afrocentric epistemological frameworks and paradigms within which ideas about the country's system of government could be generated, engaged ad contested.

CONCLUSION

This paper examines the phenomenon of *ipsedixitism* in the South African Public Administration scholarship with the purpose of determining its effect on efforts to establish an intellectual capital for a developmental state. The strategic focus of the South African government in the second decade of democracy is to build and consolidate a developmental state. The paper starts with an attempt to unpack *ipsedixitism*. Its impact on efforts to reposition South Africa as a developmental state is determined. The paper concludes that i*psedixitism* is a *centrifugal force* inhibiting efforts aimed at establishing the intellectual capital as a crucial imperative in sustaining state capacity.

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SOUTH AFRICA'S INTERNATIONAL GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS IN A GLOBALISED WORLD

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ABSTRACT

South Africa has become an important role player within the international arena since the democratic elections in 1994. South Africa's relations with other countries and participation in international organisations has improved and the country is seen as a shining example of war torn and unstable African countries. The gains of the past 14 years may not be sustained if softer borders leads to struggle over resources between South Africans and immigrants, the benefits of globalisation are not taken full advantage of and foreign policy does not reflect the wishes of the majority of South Africans

INTRODUCTION

South African government maintains its independence in managing its internal affairs. However, absolute independence may not be possible in view of the challenges related to globalisation. It is not practical for South Africa to isolate itself from other countries in southern Africa and the rest of the World. It is for this reason that international relations become crucial for the effective governance. This paper assesses the sovereignty of the state in view of a move to softer borders, globalization and its relations to the African renaissance, and the impact of South Africa's foreign policy on its international relations and good governance internally.

SOVEREIGNTY OF THE STATE

A state can be defined in Cloete's view (1998:3), as an independent territory with a permanent population and institutions responsible for the maintenance of law and order and the provision of essential services. Botes, Brynard, and Fourie and Roux (1996, 3-9) concur with this definition. The foregoing definition suggests that a state must have a clearly demarcated and undisputed border. The proposed cutting of fences in the establishment of the transfrontier parks may cast some doubts on the sovereignty and security of the countries involved.

Although the fences separating South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe are gradually going to be brought down, national boundaries need to be clearly demarcated. Between South Africa and Mozambique, for instance, the two countries agreed that when the fences are removed, the concrete fence posts will remain in place as landmarks for the boundary of South Africa (Joint Management Board 2002, 95). Furthermore, Pienaar (2005 Personal interview) believes the railway line and the road mark the boundary between South Africa and Mozambique. Fences were at first removed in areas where vehicle access between South Africa and Mozambique is either not possible due to the rugged nature of the Lebombo Mountain or because roads leading into the area can be effectively controlled.

Katerere and Hill (A critique of transboundary natural resource management in Southern Africa.Availableat http://2…/book1.pdf+management16/07/2004) argue that the creation of transfrontier parks impinges on the sovereignty and security of national states as parks such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are situated at sites of national security management in the maintenance of boundaries, curtailing of insurgency and poaching. The role of the state is challenged and at times reduced to that of a guarantor and enforcer of rights. Transfrontier conservation areas challenge the power and nature of the nation state. This raises the question of the extent to which South Africa is willing to cede power to supra-national structures. Challenges relating to the sovereignty of the state and the cutting of fences are part of a process which brings independent states together in a global village.

GLOBALISATION AND THE AFRICAN RENAISSANCE

The sovereignty of any state is not tantamount to it being self-sufficient. Modern states depend on each other for the satisfaction of needs of their citizens. The interdependence amongst states has brought about globalization and the African response to it through the African Renaissance philosophy.

Robertsons as quoted in Waters (2001:4) defines globalization as the compression of the world and intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole as well as interdependence. Waters (2001:5) refers to globalization as a social process in which the constraints of geography on economic, political, social and cultural arrangements recede, in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding and in which people act accordingly.

Mills (2002:60) identifies three periods of globalization. *Firstly*, the period between 1870 and 1914 which was spurred by better transport links and lower freight costs. *Secondly*, the period between 1945 and 1980 which revived international trade links and *thirdly*, the period from 1980 until today. In the 21st century there are stark differences between the

developed and developing states. This gives rise to different problems relating to different levels of development, and such problems demand different solutions (Mills 2002: 60).

Waters (2001: 15-16) highlights the main elements of globalization as follows:
- globalization is contemporary with modernization. It involves economic systematization and international relations between states;
- involves the systematic social interrelationship of all individual social ties. In a globalized world, no relationship will be isolated;
- phenomenological of space and generalization of time

In addition to the foregoing elements of globalisation, politics and capitalism appear to have been major drivers of globalization. According to Herch and Schmidt (2000:3) rules and customs which impeded the movement of labour, goods, services, capital had to be removed. Furthermore, Buscher and Dietz (2005:5) believe that one of the significant characteristics of globalization is the exponential growth of trade, communication, and technology across the globe which has rendered political, economic and cultural boundaries more virtual and permeable than ever before. Globalization has brought an end to strict rules, customs impeding capital movement, movement of labour and tourists. The establishment of transfrontier parks between South Africa and its neighbours is an indication that Southern African countries are moving towards virtual and easily permeable borders.

Virtual, permeable borders and globalization have negative effects. The effects of globalization are the spread of transnational influences which include crime, illegal immigration, refugee flows, environmental and health risks (Mills 2002:61). Globalisation is the result of the emergence of planetary problems that are beyond the scope of states to resolve them. A decline in the ability of states to solve problems on a national basis have, according to Waters (2001:102) resulted in greater cohesion amongst states. Fox (2004:71) mentions natural resources depletion as one of environmental challenges. As the world populations continue to increase and third world countries become more affluent, global problems are likely to worsen. The rapid growth of the world population suggests that more land will be required for residential purposes and thereby putting pressure on natural resources.

Globalisation can be construed as an involuntary process that has the potential to undermine the nation-states. Waters (2001: 124) mentions the following aspects which can undermine the nation-state:
- increasing economic and cultural connections reduce the power and effectiveness of governments at the nation-state level-loss of control over the flow of ideas and economic items through borders,

- state power is reduced because of trans-national processes grow in scale and number. Multinational corporations are increasingly becoming more powerful than other states in the developing world,
- many traditional areas of state responsibility (defence, communications and economic management) are coordinated on international and intergovernmental basis,
- states surrender sovereignty within global political units such as the United Nations and treaties such as the one that establishes the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, and
- the emergence of a system of global governance.

The foregoing points indicate a number of areas and ways in which globalization can undermine a nation-state. However, a critical question is: "what is the role of the state such as South Africa in globalization?" South Africa has two choices. The first choice results in South Africa being a passive actor in the World and leaving everything to chance and fate. The second choice is to become an active participant. To become an active participant implies that South Africa has to play an influential role and be proactive. The second choice requires South Africa to become the architect of its own destiny as far as globalization is concerned.

The standing of South Africa in the eyes of the global community regarding political leadership and economic stability is important. South Africa is already regarded as one of the leading African countries in a number of spheres. In view of the argument advanced above, it could be deduced that South Africa is not a passive participant in the global World. However, being an influential role player in Africa and Southern Africa does not mean that South Africa can ignore the contribution made by its neighbours. Regional integration will strengthen South Africa's influential role even further.

Regional strength is a critical feature for competitive world economy. The development of regional units is synonymous with the age of globalization and technology (Mills 2002:61). Regional integration could help in building efficient infrastructure, strengthening regional security, improving human capital and natural resources management (Mills 2002: 77). The challenge is to use the growing integration of economies and societies around the world in order to enhance sustainable development. To this end, a wide array of actions should be taken, ranging from open, equitable, rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory finance and trade systems to regional trade and cooperation agreements (Brynard and Stone 2004:32).

The political and economic strengths of South Africa and stability among its neighbours create more opportunities which will make the Country more globally competitive. In 2004, the tourism branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism launched the global competitiveness project. The project aims to assess South African

tourism's global competitiveness against national competitiveness (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 2006: 10-11).

The Middle East has been identified by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as an emerging market for South African tourism, particularly in the light of tensions between the Middle East and the United States of America following the events of "9/11" and the subsequent invasion of Iraq. The Tourism Branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism organized workshops in Al Ain, Dubai and Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates. The purpose of the workshop was to inform Middle Easterners and tour operators about South Africa and to promote the country as a premier international destination (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 2006: 10-11).

Language can be a barrier for middle easterners willing to visit South Africa. Foreign language training is a critical need for tourist guides in South Africa. The Tourism Branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism secured funding from the Chinese and French governments to train 161 tourist guides in these languages (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 2006: 10-11). For South Africa to be globally competitive, foreign language training should be expanded to include languages spoken in the Middle East and other countries which are not English speaking.

The English saying that "One man's meat is another man's poison" becomes more appropriate in the description of global competitiveness relating to tourism. South Africa can now capitalize on the decision of most middle easterners not to visit the United States of America and its allies due to political and religious differences which were exacerbated by the 9/11 terrorist attacks and subsequent wars. The question is whether this gain will be sustainable in the long run? The sustainability of this gain depends on South Africa's stance on the war against terror and the relationship that it has with states perceived as dominating the war on terror. South Africa's foreign policy is subject to change due to global changes which are engendered by global politics, economy as well as the changing political landscape within the country. It can, therefore, be expected that South Africa's foreign policy will be adapted over time. There is no guarantee that South Africa's foreign policy will always be in favour of middle easterners.

The recent spade of xenophobic attacks in South Africa has dented the image of South Africa in the eyes of the international community. If decisive actions deal with Zimbabwean refugees in a humane way and return the situation to normal and regain confidence, the prospects for a booming tourism in 2010 and beyond will remain a distant dream. The use of the police force and defence force are temporary solutions as they will only serve to suppress discontent and stemming from poor service delivery and the never ending challenge regarding the scarcity of resource faced be all developing countries.

The African Renaissance is a concept popularized by the South African President Mbeki in which the African people and nations are called upon to solve the many problems troubling the African continent (African renaissance, available at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Renaissance. 16/07/2006). African Renaissance can further be construed as a philosophical and political movement to eradicate elitism, corruption and poverty and replace them with a more just and equitable order. One objective of the African Renaissance is to identify key anchor projects at the national and subregional levels, which will generate significant spin-offs and assist in interregional economic integration.

The African Renaissance is criticised as a form of Africanist utopianism given conflicts and instability in Africa. Other critics see the African Renaissance as an attempt by South Africa to foist a new form of colonialism. Others argue that the renaissance existed in the context of the fall of a great empire and the subsequent descent into the dark ages. (African renaissance, available at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Renaissance. 16/07/2006).

The African Renaissance and history demand that the people of Africa do everything in their power to defend the gains that have already been achieved, to encourage all other countries on their continent to move in the same direction, according to which the people shall govern, and to enhance the capacity of the African Union to act as an effective instrument for peace and the promotion of human and people's rights.

The following quote from Mbeki's speech captures the essence, and the relations between globalization and African renaissance:

> *"The African renaissance is inspired by the recognition of the fact that none of African countries is an island which can isolate itself from the rest, and none of us can truly succeed if the rest fail. The process of globalization emphasizes the fact that no person is an island, sufficient to himself or herself, but all humanity is an interdependent whole in which none can be truly free unless all are free, in which none can be truly prosperous unless none elsewhere in the world go hungry and in which none of us can be guaranteed a good quality of life unless we act together to protect the environment" (Mbeki 1998: Available at: http://www.unu.edu/unupress/mbeki.html. 16/07/2006).*

The restoration of the dignity of the peoples of Africa demands that Africa deals decisively with the perception that the African continent is condemned forever to depend on the merciful charity which the richer countries are ready to donate to Africa provided that Africans accept a set of conditions.

Economic objectives, which must result in the elimination of poverty, the establishment of modern multi-sector economies, and the growth of Africa's share of the World economic activity are key elements of the African renaissance. The African Renaissance can succeed if its aims and objectives are defined by the Africans themselves, if its programmes are designed by Africans and if Africans take the responsibility for the success or failure of policies (Mbeki 1998: Available at: http://www.unu.edu/unupress/mbeki.html.   16/07/2006). The success of the African Renaissance depends on the extent to which sovereign African states can align their foreign policies to the objectives of the African Renaissance. South Africa's foreign policy is elaborated on in the section below.

SOUTH AFRICA'S FOREIGN POLICY

Many serious national problems such as crime, illegal hunting and poaching of endangered species are of a transboundary nature. Therefore, such problems affect international relations. Bjorkbom (1988: 123) argues that diplomacy is the tool that governments use to see to it that international relations are kept under control and to avoid the use of more expensive and less effective methods of problem solving such as military force.

The circumstances which prevailed in South Africa during the apartheid era have proven that the isolation of a country may have adverse results on its socio-economic development. It is, therefore, necessary for South Africa continuously refines a policy which will guide its relations with other countries. South Africa's foreign policy serves as a framework upon which foreign relations are conducted. It determines the manner in which South Africa will interact with other countries. Since South Africa is inextricably part of Africa, it is important that its foreign policy reflects and promotes the interests of the continent (Dube, 2003 overview: South Africa's foreign policy in Africa, Available at: http://www.ai.org.za/print_monograph.asp?ID=1. 2/6/2005). However, the interests of the continent should always be secondary to the interests of the South African citizens. South Africa's foreign policy, which is the prerogative of the national government, should be formulated in such a way that citizens can be given an opportunity to express their wishes.

The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* is the most important and the primary policy document which guides South Africa's foreign policy. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* provides that the President is ultimately responsible for the foreign policy and international relations of South Africa. It is the prerogative of the President to appoint heads of missions and conduct interstate relations (South Africa Year Book 2005: 305). Section 84(2)(h and j) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for the President to receive and recognize foreign diplomatic and consular representatives, as well as the appointment of ambassadors, plenipotentiaries, and diplomatic and consular representatives to strengthen the relationship between South Africa and other countries. Although the President plays a

vital role in foreign policy determination, s/he is ultimately accountable for the success and or failure of foreign policy. The presence of South Africa's diplomatic missions in other countries further strengthens the relations.

Furthermore, the Executive can negotiate and sign international agreements, develop and implement national policy and co-ordinate the functions of state departments and administrations. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, as a member of the Executive is entrusted with the responsibility for formulation and execution of South Africa's foreign policy and the daily conduct of international relations. The Minister also assumes the overall responsibility for South Africa's international relations (Foreign relations, available at: http://www.info.gov.za/aboutsa/foreign.htm. 10/02/2005). The Minister of Foreign Affairs is assisted by the Department of Foreign Affairs in performing her duties.

The Department of Foreign Affairs is responsible for the performance of the following functions:

- monitoring of developments in the international environment,
- communication of government policy position,
- developing and advising government on policy options,
- protection of South Africa's sovereignty and territorial integrity, and
- assisting South African citizens abroad (Foreign relations, available at: http://www.info.gov.za/aboutsa/foreign.htm. 10/02/2005).

Parliament has to ratify agreements of a technical, administrative and executive nature. All international agreements have to be tabled in Parliament even if ratification of a specific agreement is not required by the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. The involvement of Parliament in foreign policy ensures that there is a representative and an accountable process of policy-making (Johnston 2001:16).

Parliament is an institution consisting of people representing the wishes of majority and minority groups in South Africa. If Parliament is relegated to an *ex-post facto* role player in foreign policy, its effectiveness in performing a control function can be questioned. A preferable state of affairs is a pre-approval as Parliament can in this case object to an agreement before its implementation. Henwood (1997. South Africa's foreign policy: principles and problems, Available at: http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No13/Henwood.html 2/6/2005) argues that the role of Parliament in policy formulation is limited. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* accords more power to the Executive. Parliament may find it difficult to be more than an *ex-post facto* role player in matters of foreign policy. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* entrenches the somewhat independent role of the President, the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Department of Foreign Affairs.

The declared foreign policy of South Africa is aimed at, amongst others, a commitment to:

- human rights,
- promotion of freedom and democracy throughout the world,
- the principles of justice and international law in the conduct of relations between nations,
- international peace and internationally agreed mechanisms for the resolution of conflict,
- the interests of Africa in global markets, and expanded regional and international economic co-operation in an interdependent world (Henwood 1997. South Africa's foreign policy: principles and problems, Available at: http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No13/Henwood.html 2/6/2005).

Furthermore, South Africa's policy is guided by amongst others, transparency; national interests, desire to participate in regional, continental and global multilateral organizations; the security and equality of South Africans, as well as justice and international rule of law, peace, economic stability, and regional cooperation are some of the fundamental principles underlying the foreign policy of South Africa.

Henwood (1997. South Africa's foreign policy: principles and problems, Available at: http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No13/Henwood.html 2/6/2005) argues that the development of foreign policy since April 1994, was the emphasis on democracy, justice and human rights, which brought a new dimension of the declared foreign policy, namely that of morality. This posed important challenges for South Africa as it could lead to conflict between perceived interests and the right decision, and has implications for the allocation of resources for essential foreign policy goals (national interests) as opposed to morally justifiable objectives that might, in the long run, negatively influence the material position of the state.

South Africa endorsed the outcome of Zimbabwe's elections although Zanu-PF supporters allegedly violated human rights. Increasingly, South Africa seems to be confronted with the dilemma of pursuing foreign policy goals which clash with the practices of some African states. A sense of indebtedness has an influence on foreign policy-making in South Africa. The foreign policy of South Africa and the party concerns of the African National Congress are indistinguishable. This state of affairs gives rise to the serious implications and concerns that surround the government and its morality stance (Dube, 2003. Overview: South Africa's foreign policy in Africa, Available at: http://www.ai.org.za/print_monograph.asp?ID=1. 2/6/2005).

It can be expected that South Africa's foreign policy will continue to be a subject for debate among political parties, interest groups and individual citizens. Although foreign policy is largely shaped by internal politics and the needs of the citizens, international institutions also influence foreign policy.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The word international is a combination of two elements which are inter- (among or mutual) and national (pertaining to the nation). International institutions are supra-state institutions. Supra means higher than or above the national state. Supra-state institutions are always established by agreement among states with the objective of obtaining cooperation and achievement of common goals (Mello 2002: 22-23).

International institutions share a number of common features. International institutions originate from agreements such as the declaration of the United Nations on 1 January 1942 by a number of member states. Within an international institution, provision is made for the determination of policy in its composition. Policy determination by international institutions has political implications for national states. International institutions must obtain ratification for their decisions and actions by the legislative institutions of the national states. Furthermore, international institutions are dependant on the contributions from member states, non-governmental organizations, and the private sector for financing their activities.

Many international institutions have been established for purposes of satisfying needs which member states can hardly satisfy as separate independent entities. The following sections focus on those international institutions which play a role in establishment and further development of transfrontier parks.

In terms of Article 1 of the United Nations Charter, one of the objectives of the United Nations is to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of the nations with a view to attain common ends. In terms of Article 1 of the Charter of the United Nations, the purpose of the United Nations is to maintain international peace and security, develop friendly relations and to achieve international cooperation (Charter of the United Nations, Available at: http://www.un.org/aboutun/charter/chapter1.htm. 22/07/2005). Transfrontier parks such as the Great Limpopo have emerged as a result of peace and friendly relations hence the words peace parks are often used to describe similar ventures between different countries.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development is a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal. The New Partnership for Africa's Development's strategic framework document arises from a mandate given to the five states (Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Senegal, and South Africa) by the then Organisation of African of Unity to develop an integrated socio-economic development framework for Africa. The 37th Summit of the Organisation of African Unity formally adopted the strategic framework document (NEPAD in brief, available at: http://www.nepad.org/2005/files/inbrief.php 6/4/2005).

The New Partnership for Africa's Development operates on the basis of, amongst others, principles such as good governance as a basic requirement for peace, security and sustainable socio-economic development; African ownership and leadership, as well as broad and effective participation by all sectors of society; anchoring the development of Africa on its resources and resourcefulness of its people; partnership between and amongst African people; and acceleration of regional and continental integration. Policy reform and increased investment in priority sectors such as environment forms part of the New Partnership for Africa's Development priorities (NEPAD in brief, available at: http://www.nepad.org/2005/files/inbrief.php 6/4/2005).

According to Wissink and Melnyk (2004:3) the objectives of the New Partnership for Africa's Development are to eradicate poverty, to put an end to socioeconomic marginalization of Africa, promotion of sustainable growth and development, peace, security and political and economic good governance.

The adoption of the New Partnership for Africa's Development is an important development. The New Partnership for Africa's Development creates an instrument for advancing people-centred sustainable development in Africa based on democratic values. Sustainable development from the perspective of the New Partnership for Africa's Development is premised on the recognition that Africa has an abundance of natural resources and people who have the capacity to act as agents of change.

The link between the New Partnership for Africa's Development and Southern African Development Community Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan was adopted by the Ministers of foreign affairs and finance at their meeting in Blantyre, Malawi, in September 2001 which came to the conclusion that, in terms of relationships, the Southern African Development Community is part of and feeds into New Partnership for Africa's Development. The Ministers recognized that the New Partnership for Africa's Development is a framework and process within the African Union, while Southern African Development Community is a recognized component of the African Union. The Southern African Development Community participates in both the African Union and New Partnership for Africa's Development (South Africa Year Book 2004:309). This relationship shows that international institutions complement each other in the role they play.

The aim of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) is to provide for regional peace and security, sectoral co-operation and an integrated regional economy.

CONCLUSION

International governmental relations begin with the acknowledgement of the sovereignty of South Africa as an independent state hence South Africa will, despite the gradual cutting of fences in the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, remain a sovereign state that leans on other states for its development. South Africans who live in informal settlements which have been the sources of xenophobic attacks need to be educated about the essence of being accommodating and friendly to foreign nationals. The growing interdependence among sovereign states and the subsequent globalization process are unavoidable. However, South Africa has to capitalize on the benefits which are brought by these changes. The African Renaissance is a philosophy conceived with noble intentions. The realization of its objectives depends largely on the extent to which African States can align their internal and foreign policies towards development. Foreign policy is determined by the Executive while Parliament's role is to ensure accountability and that foreign policy benefits all South Africans. International institutions exist because of the inability of independent states to be self-sufficient.

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MEASURES FOR ACCOUNTABILITY IN SOUTH AFRICA: COMPLIANCE OR EFFECT?

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ABSTRACT

Government must be accountable for ensuring efficaciousness results. Such statements are voiced repeatedly by politicians, citizens and the media. It is becoming more evident that public service departments are not meeting the expectations of those they serve. This is due to various reasons, including the lack of proper accountability systems in the public service. Furthermore, there is a general concern that the public service should adapt to the changing realities surrounding them and not deny the paradigm shifts that have taken place. These shifts are primarily changes from bureaucratic to post-bureaucratic approaches (such as flexibility and innovation) of service delivery. The modern systems of governance require that public service institutions worldwide be more responsive to the needs of the citizens. Therefore, it is not surprising that public service institutions in South Africa find themselves facing immense pressure to comply with the principles of good governance.

The question that guides this paper is: whether public service accountability is a matter of compliance or effect? In addressing this question, this paper challenges the existing bureaucratic public service systems that hamper flexibility and innovation within public service structures. A different use of the concept of governance is considered in the paper to provide a holistic perspective for understanding good governance in the South African context. Again, a discussion of accountability as an integral element of good governance in the South African public service is undertaken. Key assessment areas are deliberated upon as well as the policy implications of adopting and implementing

accountability measures in order to highlight areas of evaluation and monitoring and to indicate possible accountability outcomes. Therefore, a model is suggested to deal with policy implications in a balanced approach. This model is referred to as a policy implications model which encapsulates both the compliance and integrity (or effect) approaches.

INTRODUCTION

This paper intends to challenge existing bureaucratic public service systems that hinder flexibility and innovation within their structures. A different use of the concept of governance is also considered in the paper to provide a holistic perspective for understanding good governance in the South African context. Accountability is both defined and discussed as one of the integral elements in promoting good governance in the South African public service. Key assessment areas are deliberated upon together with the policy implications of adopting and implementing accountability measures in order to highlight areas of evaluation and monitoring as well as to indicate possible accountability outcomes. In this regard, a model is suggested to deal with policy implications in a balanced approach. This model is referred to as a policy implications model which encapsulates both the compliance and integrity approaches.

CONCEPTUALISING GOVERNANCE AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

Most scholars in public administration and management are familiar with the dual meaning of the term 'government'. On the one hand Boyer and Drache (1996) define governance either as the political unit for the function of policy making in a state or as the formal institutional structure and location of authoritative decision making in a state. However, on the other hand, Pierre (2000:1-6) has a broad definition which views governance as the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs.

Furthermore, a United Nations agency proposes a narrower definition which indicates that governance is viewed as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels (United Nations in Pierre, 2000, 1-6). Other definitions link the exercise of authority or power to the management of a country's economic and social resources for development (instead of the more general 'affairs' mentioned in the first two definitions by Boyer and Drache, 1996) (cf. Pierre, 2000:1-6). Pierre further argues that the quality of governance can be determined by the exercise of power on the quality of life enjoyed by the citizens (cf. Pierre 2000, 1-6). It is evident from the applicable literature that the word 'governance' at least manifests dual meanings.

Governance is therefore a complex concept encompassing all aspects of the exercise of authority through formal and informal institutions in the management of the resource endowment of the state. It should be emphasised that governance is a broader term than government, extending well beyond how government conducts its activities, such as making and implementing decisions. There are three main actors involved in governance: the state (encompassing such institutions as the legislature, executive and judiciary), civil society, and the private and corporate sector. Each makes a critical contribution to human development. Governance can thus be viewed as the cumulative result of the interactions between the state, civil society and the private sector (Peters, 1996). In improving the quality of life of a population, governments play a key role in the process of governance.

Having established the meaning of governance, it is also a purpose of this paper to proceed to examine the phenomenon of good governance. The meaning of the adjective 'good' becomes apparent in the World Bank's definition of good governance as being epitomised by predictable, open and enlightened policy making (that is, transparent processes); a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos; an executive arm of government accountable for its actions; and a strong civil society participating in public affairs; with all behaving under the rule of law (Peters 1996). Since most if not all Western democracies have been assumed to meet the standards of good governance, this notion has been applied (or exported) virtually exclusively to countries in the global South, especially to Africa, the Asia-Pacific region and former communist states in Europe and Asia (Peters 1996).

Faced with these difficulties in the governance of the public service, one prerequisite for strengthening the rule of law and the credibility of the state, both internally and externally, is an efficient administration that serves the needs of all citizens. It should be transparent, responsible and accountable, and served by honest officials. Edigheji (in Mhone & Edigheji, 2003, 36) summarises some characteristics of good governance at national level:

- the need for the state to be relatively autonomous from the interests of particular groups;
- the need for strong civil society which is able to articulate and promote the interests of the members of their respective groups;
- the need for devolution of power through decentralisation to facilitate a responsiveness to local needs;
- the need for embeddedness, whereby there are formal and institutionalised procedures and processes for accountability;
- the need for strong and adaptable bureaucracy that is able to accomplish its administrative management, implementation and monitoring tasks efficiently and effectively; and
- the need for the supremacy of the rule of law.

In the light of the foregoing, there has been much discussion about what suits particular societies in terms of state-society relationships and how these (state-society relationships) could be institutionalised for the purpose of enhancing governance, democratisation and development.

Governance therefore refers to the function, action, process or qualities of government. It does not refer to government structures such as a cabinet or a local council, but to the policies made and the efficacy with which these policies are implemented. According to Wolmuth (in Fourie, 2006, 435), good governance is about the norms of governance, which entails the legitimacy of the government; a legal framework and rule of law; popular participation; freedom of association and expression; and rational non-personalised public administration. It can now be said that government should function in a manner characterised by responsibility, participation, transparency, and accountability – the guiding principles of good governance.

EXISTING PUBLIC SERVICE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS IN RELATION TO GOOD GOVERNANCE

Debates regarding the need to transform public service have been some of the most important in post-1994 South Africa. These debates culminated in the drafting of the *White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service of 1997 (Batho Pele)*. This *Batho Pele White Paper* encapsulates the need to ensure that public service delivery is accelerated through innovative means. Furthermore, the discourse regarding public service delivery continues to be an important aspect of South Africa even after a first decade of democracy (cf. Kroukamp 1999, 300; Mubangizi 2006, 640).

However, the need to transform the management and administrative systems that were assented to during the apartheid years has never been so paramount. While scholars and practitioners continue to grapple with the problem of poor service delivery and inefficiencies within the public service that (unavoidably) result from bureaucracy, the need arises to ensure that public management systems support new ideals of transforming the public service. Minnaar and Bekker (2005, 14) agree and further allege that currently the public service is using outdated traditional management approaches which have failed to accelerate or transform public service delivery. This allegation has a direct impact on whether public service institutions are positioned to adopt and implement the principles of good governance or not. Davids and Maphunye (2005:63) further argue that the post-bureaucratic organisation should promote important aspects such as system transformation, people-centredness, result-orientedness and adaptability, among others. It should, therefore, be obvious that existing public service management systems in South Africa have not been adapted to confront modern public service delivery challenges. Modern public service institutions in South Africa should facilitate relevance and timeliness in terms of public service provision so as to demonstrate familiarity and compliance with the principles of good governance. It is important to advance a discourse

on the conceptualisation of governance and good governance in public administration and management above, in order to lay a path for the discussion of accountability measures in promoting good governance has revealed some important considerations. One amongst many other considerations is the need to ensure accountability by the public officials.

DEFINING PUBLIC ACCOUNTABILITY

According to Gildenhuys (1997, 56), public accountability means that public officials (either elected or appointed) in the public service are required to give account of their activities in public. This view is important in that the actions of those who are entrusted with the public resources for distribution, management and administration should be seen to be acting responsibly and *intra vires*. This kind of attitude could assist in developing trust in public officials and subsequently the good favour of the citizens.

Vyas-Doorgapersad and Ababio (2006:393) concur with the exposition by Gildenhuys (1997:56) and further indicate that public accountability means that actions are exposed, explained and justified. This is important because, within the public service, accountability could also mean that the actions of public servants are monitored and publicised through various sources such as the annual reports, financial reports and media, among others. The aim should be to prompt debate, ensure the availability and/or accessibility of public service information to the citizens, and hence to advance the principles of good governance.

Furthermore, public accountability means that while on the one hand public servants are held responsible for distributing, managing and administering valuable public goods and resources, on the other hand they (public servants) remain answerable to the owners of those goods, who are the citizens. It is important that such answerability not always be direct but be done within the guidelines of the applicable legislation. Therefore, it should suffice to conclude that while (public) accountability has been espoused and forms the baseline of public administration and management as a discipline and discourse, it remains relevant to the 21st century concept of good governance in every respect (Cloete, 1998:97-102).

PUBLIC ACCOUNTABILITY AS AN INTEGRAL ELEMENT OF GOOD GOVERNANCE

During the 21st century, public accountability has been an important concept, usually associated with concepts such as good governance, transparency, effectiveness, efficiency, public participation, democracy, economic growth and civil society, among others (see International Monetary Fund, 2003; Mafunisa, 2004:492). The meaning of the term accountability has continually changed and been redefined within the applicable context.

In South Africa, the government promulgated the Public Finance Management Act in 1999 (Act 1 of 1999) (hereafter PFMA of 1999). The purpose of this act is to enforce compliance with the principles of accountability (especially relating to financial and other assets) to ensure not only that the minimum standards regarding actions of public servants are met, but also that excellence is inculcated in the minds and ethos of public servants (Cloete, 1998:98). Chapter 2 of the PFMA of 1999 has empowered the National Treasury to ensure the promotion and enforcement of transparency and effective management (good governance) in respect of the revenue, expenditure, assets and liabilities of the public service. It is imperative to note from the PFMA of 1999 that the enforcement and promotion of transparency and good governance are critical for ensuring that actions involving the revenue, expenditure, assets and liabilities of the public service are accounted for. Therefore, consideration of the necessary accountability measures is an important aspect of promoting good governance.

ACCOUNTABILITY MEASURES: KEY ASSESSMENT AREAS NECESSARY FOR GOOD GOVERNANCE

To ensure that accountability measures are espoused in the South African public service to promote good governance, it is important to bear in mind key areas in which assessment could become necessary for monitoring and evaluation purposes. However, the question that might arise in this regard is: how do we measure or quantify public accountability in order to promote good governance in the South African public service? The answer is not simple. The reason for not having a simple answer is that there is no specific quantifying measuring tool for assessing the extent of compliance on public accountability. Therefore, the need arises to identify key assessment areas (or descriptors) in which public accountability may be assessed. This approach intends to simplify and suggest the practical aspects which should be considered whenever accountability measures are assessed of a public service institution are assessed. While not exhaustive, key assessment areas (or descriptors) promoting public accountability are discussed below.

Promoting high ethical standards

Chapter 10 of the 1996 Constitution states that high standards of professional ethics must be promoted. Ethical standards are important for ensuring not only that the actions of employees are beyond reproach, but also that the motives of public servants are trustworthy. In this regard, the effective and efficient utilisation of public resources in the public service should be aimed at promoting justice through the professional distribution

of public resources. This implies that the principles of good governance are able to manifest at an individual level, that is, when public officials act ethically.

Training for development of public servants

While it is important to ensure that accountability is practised within the public service, the training for development activities of both junior and senior employees are imperative for guiding actions in working environments. The involvement of higher education and research institutions is crucial for keeping abreast of the new developments and methodologies necessary for improving public sector conditions, including the promotion of good governance principles. Erasmus, Swanepoel, Schenk, Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2005:323) warn against the traditional training and education that only provide qualifications without inculcating the necessary skills and knowledge. It is therefore imperative to ensure that training, education and development of public servants is not reduced to obtaining qualifications, but should be expanded to lifelong learning which promotes the practices of outcome-based education.

Mentoring of junior employees

Mentoring programmes are always important in preparing those mentored for future positions of responsibility. Effective mentoring should be developed within the public sector to ensure that the competency and knowledge base is broadened to prospective managers. This kind of approach should be able to give younger employees the confidence and motivation to aspire to responsible positions. However, the mentor and protégé relationship should be facilitated as a means of investing in the achievement of a reliable and responsible future workforce in the public service. This approach should help future public service managers to rise in the ranks of public service institutions.

Performance management and evaluation

According to Van der Waldt (2004:3), good governance should be regarded as a prerequisite for performance in the public service. However, a closer analysis should also indicate that high performance standards by public servants could also serve as a precondition for promoting good governance. Public servants play an important role in determining the future of the public service. This means, on the one hand, that when the actions (performance standards) of public servants are corrupt, the future of the public service inevitably becomes characterised by melancholy. On the other hand, when the actions of public servants are skilled, competent, transparent and accountable, then the future of the public service remains auspicious. For this reason, it is important to ensure that actions (performance standards) of public servants are monitored closely through innovative models such as teamwork and auditing systems. This kind of approach is

aimed at promoting high performance standards and most importantly at rewarding excellence in performance.

It is important to bear in mind that performance without a reward system in place may yield very limited results. While punitive measures are normally applied for poor or non-performance, it is equally imperative that a reward system be adopted for performance and exceptional performance. For example, in respect of the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the Sudanese magnate, Mo Ibrahim, has offered a financial reward for performing heads of state, with the use of evaluation criteria to measure and reward good governance. The model is referred to as the Ibrahim Index. The Ibrahim Index considers several categories or indexes of good governance for measurement and evaluation, namely sustainable economic development, human development (health and education), transparency and empowerment of civil society, the rule of law and security, as well as democracy and human rights. The Ibrahim Index has been developed by the Kennedy School of Governance at Harvard University in the United States (*Mail and Guardian*, 2006:22). While questions may be raised with regard to Western systems of promoting good governance in Africa, the Ibrahim Index may be well-intended.

Therefore, degrees of commitment to ethical standards, training for development, mentoring and high performance levels should also serve to describe the levels of public accountability within specific public institutions and their (individual) employees. A careful analysis of these key assessment areas should also provide a generic framework for evaluating good governance within the South African public service. While the provision of the key assessment areas provides aspects which need to be considered in order to improve accountability measures in the public service, there are certain policy implications which should be taken into consideration to enhance approaches such as the Ibrahim index.

ACCOUNTABILITY MEASURES: POLICY IMPLICATIONS MODEL

The assumption resulting from the adoption and implementation of accountability measures is that certain implications may be palpable. Such policy implications may either be compliance or integrity focused in holding employees accountable in the South African public service. These policy implications emphasise that managers should be aware of the need to pursue a balanced approach (in relation to compliance and integrity based focus) to enhance accountability in the public service. Nethonzhe (2007:10) succinctly provides distinct and yet related policy implications as observed from both the compliance and integrity focused approaches.

Table 1: Policy implications model: Compliance and Integrity based approaches

A Compliance based approach focuses on:	An Integrity based approach focuses on:
Rules, regulations and procedures are emphasised	The creation of guiding values and aspirations as well as an environment that stimulates ethical behaviour is encouraged
A unilateral imposition of rules and guidelines by government bodies	A multilateral or joint formulation and internalisation of values with joint responsibility for honest behaviour with management playing the role of an initiator
To prevent wrongdoing: The threat associated with checks, monitoring and punishment can dissuade personnel from acting in a dishonest manner	To promote good conduct and trusting of personnel may promote moral and responsible conduct
The assumption is that people are lazy and cannot be trusted. They must be guided by rewarding good conduct and punishing undesirable conduct. The disadvantage is that personnel start behaving according to the assumption	Positive perception of people: The assumption is that people are in search of job satisfaction and wish to be responsible and act in a moral manner. It invites personnel to strive towards good conduct
A narrow view: It is formalistic and minimal moral based on the "if it is legal, it is ethical" principle	A broad view: Rules are no guarantee to ethical conduct. People should be able to handle situations that are not governed by rules
Laws and regulations are rigid and inflexible. Circumstances are usually too complex and variable to be laid down in laws and regulations	Values and aspirations are broader and flexible and provide a more robust system that is better geared to changes
Based on the traditional form government management: hierarchal, directive, focused on rules and procedures	Based on a modern form with new developments in government management such as decentralization, privatisation and increased complexity and policy discretion

Source: Nethonzhe (2007:10)

The above table provides two interrelated approaches which managers in the public service should consider when implementing accountability measures. A compliance based approach is compared with an integrity based approach in which the former relates to the need to enforce orders, rules and regulations (bureaucratic approach) while the latter's emphasis allows employees to be more independent and flexible (flexible approach). The South African perspective should be to emphasise integrity based approach over compliance based approach: since the latter has been used for decades. While the main goal should be 1) to minimise bureaucracy, 2) promote flexibility and adaptability, as well as 3) to effect transformation. Both of these approaches should be applied as and when necessary. Some of the elements of the compliance based approach also feature in the integrity approach. This means that the integrity approach should be able to inculcate elements of responsibility, reliability, ethics, accountability and morality (to mention just a few) into the public service in South Africa.

CONCLUSION

It is imperative that when advancing good governance, specific areas of focus be identified. This paper argues for the consideration of key assessment areas in which monitoring and evaluation could be applied to ensure that resources are spent within specified focus areas for maximising public service delivery and promoting public accountability in the governing system of the government. Key assessment areas in this paper are argued to be important accountability measures that could promote good governance in the South African public service.

Furthermore, policy implications of implementing accountability measures are discussed. This is because the assumption is that policy implementation could be undertaken as either compliance or integrity based. While compliance and integrity may seem to be contradictory of each other, this paper argues for the consideration of a balanced approach in implementing either or both. However, the emphasis in South Africa should be more on the integrity based approach for now, since the compliance based approach has been existing for decades.

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AN ASSESSMENT OF EMPLOYMENT EQUITY TARGETS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

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ABSTRACT

Government has put in place adequate infrastructure that facilitates employment equity in the Public Service. This does not seems to be assisting much as the Public Service is still battling to achieve the employment equity targets set by Cabinet, initially through the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995 and now as revised in 2006. This paper assesses the success or failure of the national departments and provincial administrations in reaching the employment equity targets set for the Public Service. It starts with an attempt to clarify the meaning of the concepts affirmative action and employment equity. This is followed by an analysis of the policy for employment equity in South Africa. In the context of the foregoing background, an attempt is made to, through statistical analysis, assess the success or failure of the national departments and provincial administrations in meeting the policy requirements in so far as employment equity targets are concerned.

INTRODUCTION

The public service as an employer must lead by example on issue of transformation. This, amongst other things, means that the employment practices in the public service must be of such a nature that they promote fairness and equality and that they promote representativity of race, gender and disability at all occupational levels. Government has put in place adequate infrastructure that facilitates employment equity in the Public Service. This does not seems to be assisting much as the public service is still battling to achieve the employment equity targets set by Cabinet, initially through the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service of 1995, now as revised in 2006.

It is critical to note that employment equity is not only about numbers but more about creating a culture of equality and fairness in the workplace. Indeed this may begin with numbers but the buck does not stop there. The purpose of this paper is to assess the success or failure of national departments and provincial administrations in reaching the employment equity targets set for the Public Service.

CONCEPTUAL DEFINITIONS

Affirmative Action

Herholdt & Marx (1999:9-14) define affirmative according to five categories that focus on the following:

- Equality,
- Correcting historical injustices,
- Empowering the disadvantaged,
- Developing members of disadvantage groups, and
- Managing of a diverse workforce.

Affirmative action can thus be defined as the process applied by organizations to enhance equity correct past discrimination and develop and empower members of disadvantage groups to create a diverse yet effective workforce which will strive to achievement organizational goals. (Herholdt & Marx, 1999:9-14).

The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998, defines affirmative action as "the additional corrective steps which must be taken in order that those who have been historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination are able to derive full benefit from an equitable employment environment" Mello in Mafunisa and Maserumule (2004:75) similarly defines affirmative action as laws, programmes or activities designed to redress past imbalances and to ameliorate the conditions of individuals and groups who have been disadvantaged on the ground of race, gender or disability.

Clearly there are different academic definitions of affirmative action and they all imply interventions initiated by employers to promote equality and eradicate any form of discrimination in all aspects of employment, with emphasis on prioritizing the formerly disadvantaged groups: blacks, women and people with disabilities. Departments in the Public Service have the prerogative to introduce any intervention, programme and activities that promote employment equity in the workplace.

Employment Equity

Employment equity is a term that was coined to describe transformation interventions that were meant to address the imbalances of the past, especially in the workplace. This concept was first introduced through the Green Paper on Employment and Occupational Equity, 1996. The Green Paper ushered in the Employment Equity Bill which was subsequently promulgated as the Employment Equity Act, 1998.

THE LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995

When the current Government came into power in 1994, transformation of the Public Service was one of the priority agenda issues. This began with the introduction of the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service in 1995. The purpose of the White Paper was to establish a policy framework to guide the introduction and implementation of new policies and legislation aimed at transforming the South African public service. (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service in 1995, 3). According to the White Paper, one of the challenges form the past dispensation, was the lack of representativeness of all the people of South Africa in terms of race, gender and disability.

Prior to 1994, Black people (African, Indian and Coloured communities) were excluded from all positions of influence in the state and civil society. Although few benefited from the Bantustan dispensation, the majority of senior posts in government were then still held by Whites, mainly males. Women were similarly disadvantaged, particularly those from black communities. Persons with disabilities, irrespective of race or gender, were seldom found in any position of influence within the State. (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service in 1995, 4)

Evidently there was an urgent need for intervention by the new government to turnaround this situation positively. Affirmative action was then introduced as one of the proactive strategies that could be implemented to promote representativeness in the public service. This will be discussed in more detail later. The White Paper clearly set out the following minimum national targets for ensuring race, gender and disability equity in the Public Service:

- by 1999 at least 50% of public service managers were expected to be black people
- by 1999 at least 30% of new recruits to middle and senior management levels were expected to be woman, and
- by 2005, 2% of Public Service personnel were expected to be people with disabilities.

In 2006 Cabinet reviewed these targets and approved new targets of 50% equity target for women at senior management levels by 31 March 2009 and a target of 2% for persons with disabilities at all levels by 31 March 2010.

The Labour Relations Act, (Act 66 of 1995)

The Labour Relations Act, 1995 provides for the protection of the rights of employees and potential employees in the workplace. It echoes the provisions of section 27(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 which clearly states that *"Every person shall have the right to fair labour practices."* The Labour Relation Act is critical in aiding departments when formulating their employment equity policies and affirmative action strategies.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996

The Constitution as the supreme law of the country prohibits unfair discrimination and promotes fairness and equity at all costs. Section 9 of the Constitution clearly stipulates that everyone is equal before the law and no one may be unfairly discriminated directly or indirectly on the basis of race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998

The Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) developed this White Paper as a policy framework that would guide national departments and provincial administrations on how to develop, implement and manage their affirmative action programmes. The scope of the White Paper was limited to the field of human resource management and targeted the three groups that is, black people, women, and people with disabilities who were identified in the Employment Equity Bill as having suffered most from unfair past discrimination.

The Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998)

The Employment Equity Act aims to ensure that employers redress the legacies of apartheid in the workplace and that Employment Equity is achieved by promoting equal opportunities and fair treatment through the elimination of unfair discrimination and implementation of affirmative action measures to advance black people, women and people with disabilities (referred to as designated groups). The Act defines Black people as Africans, Coloureds and Indians (Thomas and Robertshaw 1999, 5)

At its inception the Act was not without criticisms and concerns leveled against it, from both the private and the public sectors. It is imperative that some of these concerns be highlighted as they may have actually been justified; especially give the current state of representativeness versus performance, and the impact thereof on service delivery.

The following concerns highlighted by Thomas and Robertshaw (1999, 6-8) are noteworthy, particularly for the Public Service:

- the definition of what constitutes "suitably qualified" people from designated groups.

The burning question here is whether Public Service departments when employing prioritize qualifications and competency over race, gender and disability?

- Indirect and opportunity costs will be incurred, by, for example, poor hiring decisions (to reach employee targets, and the declining morale of white employees;
- Race classifications will be heightened and "reverse discrimination" will lead to a decrease in employee loyalty and the lack of retention of skilled employees, primarily white males;

Could this be a contributing factor to the shortage of "scarce skills" in the Public Service?

- Those from designated groups, expecting secured positions, may adopt a culture of entitlement "that undermines initiative, self-confidence and self-reliance"

Tinarelli (2000, 15) also points out potential problems and challenges surrounding the implementation of the employment equity legislation. These are, amongst others, the high costs of institutional and cultural change; the lack of resources to ensure proper compliance in every workplace; and the necessity to develop other strategies in conjunction with employment equity legislation in order to address inequalities that lie outside of the labour market.

The Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998)

One of the aims of the Skills Development Act is to improve the employment prospects of persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress those disadvantaged through training and education. This At is an enabler for Public Service departments to eradicate past discriminatory practices through training and skills development interventions.

The links between Employment Equity and Skill Development are amongst others: that both interventions have a common objective to develop and advance employees from designated groups; and also that employment equity creates an enabling environment to make the workplace skills plan meaningful and maximize the advancement of people from designated groups (Munnick 2004, 264). This Act aids departments in identifying relevant training and skills development interventions to advance designated employees and to reach the set employment equity targets.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

 In 1995 Cabinet through the White Paper set employment equity targets for the Public Service, as earlier discussed. Tables 1-3 present the statistical status quo of those targets for the national departments and the provincial administrations as at March 2008. The statistics were sourced from Vulindlela, which is an integrated information database of government that is a snapshot taken of the transactional PERSAL system, usually within the first week of a new month, and summarised to levels such as Provinces and National Departments, Sectors and Components. PERSAL is the government's personnel and salary system.

Racial Equity

The injustices suffered by Blacks during the apartheid era are well documented. Within the organizational context, blacks were only permitted to fill lower-ranked positions (Herholdt and Marx 1999, 27). The economics of exclusion led to the under-development and under-utilization of blacks in skilled, technical and managerial fields, both on macro and micro levels (Mkhwanazi in Herholdt and Marx 1999, 27).

As earlier mentioned, to address this anomaly, the target set by the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service in 1995 for race representation was that by 1999 at least 50% of public service managers would be black people. The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service,1995 is not specific in terms of the levels of management therefore Table 1 below indicates the representation of blacks at both middle and senior management levels.

Table 1: Representivity by Race

Province	Number of employees at Middle and Senior Management level	Number of blacks at Middle and Senior Management level	%
National	10 831	7 904	73%
Eastern Cape	2 563	2 157	84%
Free State	1 336	802	60%
Gauteng	3 534	2 502	71%
Kwazulu Natal	3 430	2 806	82%
Limpopo	1 993	1 819	91%
Mpumalanga	1 193	1 019	85%
North West	1 183	1 002	85%
Northern Cape	624	494	79%
Western Cape	2 027	920	45%
TOTAL	**28 714**	**21 425**	**75%**

Source: This information was extracted from Vulindlela on 8 May 2008

The Limpopo Provincial Administration is in the lead with a 91% representation of blacks (African, Coloured, and Indian). The Western Cape is still behind at 45%, nine years after the set target dates of the White Paper. All the other Provinces seem to be well above target. The national departments as well as the other provinces are well above target. This could be an indication of progress towards a non-racial Public Service.

An assumption here would be that these percentages could also be indicative of the demographics of the Provinces and perhaps of the country as a whole.

The Public Service Commission (PSC) in its 2008 State of the Public Service (SOPS) Report paints a broader picture of overall racial representation in the Public Service over the past four years. This is indicated in Table 2 below and it is the representation of Blacks at all occupational levels.

Table 2: Race representivity in the Public Service – 2004 to 2007

Year	National %				Provincial%			
	African	Asian	Coloured	White	African	Asian	Coloured	White
2004	74	4	9	14	64	5	9	22
2005	75	3	10	12	67	3	11	19
2006	79	3	9	9	69	3	11	17
2007	80	3	9	9	71	3	11	16

Source: Public Service Commission's State of the Public Service Report, 2008

These figures suggest that the rate at which race representivity is increasing is higher at the national sphere compared to the provincial sphere. This is an important observation given that provinces carry the largest slice of the staff establishment of the Public Service, and it is, therefore, necessary for them to manifest better progress than national departments (PSC.2008, 86). Given these statistics, a conclusion can be reached that there is definite racial equity in the South African Public Service, in term of the provisions of the Employment Equity Act, 1998.

Gender Equity

The review of the employment equity targets in the context of public sector reforms resulted in the adoption by Cabinet of a revised equity target of 50% representation of women at all levels of the Senior Management Service (SMS) by 31 March 2009. In addition, Cabinet adopted the development of a long-term strategic framework for women's empowerment and gender equality within the Public Service. The main aim of the Strategic Framework for Gender Equality within the Public Service (2006-2015) is to ensure improved service delivery by the Public Service through the mainstreaming of gender considerations in all facets of government's work which would result in a better quality for all women (DPSA 2006, 1). Currently (as at end March 2008) the representation of women at middle and senior management levels is as depicted in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Representivity by Gender

Province	Number of employees at Middle and Senior Management levels	Number of Females at Middle and Senior Management levels	%
National	10 831	3 968	37%
Eastern Cape	2 563	1 007	39%
Free State	1 336	442	33%
Gauteng	3 534	1 484	42%
Kwazulu Natal	3 430	1 260	37%
Limpopo	1 993	654	33%
Mpumalanga	1 193	412	35%
North West	1 183	408	35%
Northern Cape	624	210	34%
Western Cape	2 027	703	35%
TOTAL	**28 714**	**10 548**	**37%**

Note: This information was extracted from Vulindlela on 8 May 2008

All public service departments (except in Gauteng) are a little above the 30% target that was to be achieved in 1999 according to the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995. The Gauteng Provincial Administration is at 42% which is 12% above the 1999 target of 30% and progressing well towards the revised target of 50% by March 2009. The national departments and all the other provinces seem to have achieved the 30% target but might need to introduce accelerated interventions if they want to be on track inn terms of the revised target of 50%.

Clearly progress with gender equity is slower compared to racial equity. Government is well aware of this and hence the different interventions by the DPSA and the Ministry of Public Service and Administration (MPSA). The most recent being the introduction of the "*Head of Department's 8-Principle Action Plan for promoting Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality within the Public Service Workplace*" by the Minister of Public Service and Administration. The eight principles are: transformation for non sexism, establishing a policy environment, meeting equity targets, creating an enabling environment, gender mainstreaming, empowerment, providing adequate resources, accountability, and monitoring and evaluation. The minister encourages head of departments to include these principles in their departmental action plans for achieving gender equality.

Disability Equity

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995 set the disability equity targets at a low 2%, which clearly has not been achieved in the second decade of democracy in South Africa. Table 4 below is a clearly indication of this dawdling pace in the Public Service.

Table 4: Representivity by Disability

Province	Number of employees	Number of Employee with Disabilities	%
National	284 018	700	0.25%
Eastern Cape	125 465	277	0.22%
Free State	57 938	85	0.15%
Gauteng	126 652	103	0.08%
Kwazulu Natal	181 498	253	0.14%
Limpopo	113 973	276	0.24%
Mpumalanga	68 362	152	0.22%
North West	56 992	69	0.12%
Northern Cape	21 602	30	0.14%
Western Cape	74 382	198	0.27%
TOTAL	**1 110 882**	**2 143**	**0.19%**

Source: This information was extracted from Vulindlela on 8 May 2008

The Public Service has not been able to reach even half (1%) of the set target by March 2008. The PSC SOPS report specify the following findings from one of the researches conducted, as challenges that departments face in employing people with disabilities:

- few people with disabilities apply for posts
- reluctance by people with disabilities to disclose their status
- resource limitations were seen as a constraint by departments to ensure reasonable accommodation of people with disabilities
- the nature of certain occupations seem to prevent people with disabilities from applying due to the job requirements
- the problem is compounded by the lack of good partnerships with organizations for people with disabilities and the fact that there is no central database for people with disabilities from which to source potential applicants (PSC.2008:90-91).

The reasons may be valid but an average of 0.19% is totally unacceptable and departments must embark on very urgent interventions through, amongst others, the skills development processes, to address this situation. Disability discrimination is not only prominent in the workplace but has its roots from societal prejudices that considered disability to be a stigma. Doyle (1995, 1) emphasizes the fact that throughout history disabled people have experienced social discrimination, segregation and exclusion. He further states that for many disabled persons, entry or re-entry to the labour market is restricted by impairment or disability, lack of skills or qualifications, and income insecurity during the transition from disabled unemployment to rehabilitated employment. Nevertheless, disabled workers can be equally, if not further, handicapped by the ignorance, fear and prejudice of employers and "able-bodied' fellow workers.

Kettle in Brading and Curtis (2000, 16) argues that many employers fail to appreciate that disability does not necessarily imply inability and may not necessarily result in handicap. Many managers therefore assume that disability will result in poor performance. Kettle further states that other myths include poor attendance, low productivity, proneness to accidents, customers being put off and disabled workers' presence being disruptive. He argues that the persistence of these misconceptions is not entirely the fault of employers, and blames the medical profession for being over-cautious about the abilities of people with disability. Further research on disability management in the public service, might reveal the relevance and validity of Kettle's views.

In the Public Service, government as the employer has introduced extensive interventions in the form of policy frameworks, to speed up disability equity. These include legislation, the Public Service JobAccess Strategy on the Recruitment, Employment and Retention of Persons with Disabilities (2006-2011), the Handbook on Reasonable Accommodation of People with Disabilities, as well as other policy directives that act as Do It Yourself (DIY) kits for the Public Service to accelerate disability equity.

EMPLOYMENT EQUITY AND DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Diversity management can never be totally divorced from employment equity. This is especially when employment equity is regarded as a transformation process. Thomas (1991, 10) defines diversity management as a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all employees. Employment equity in the Public Service and in South Africa as a whole is intended to create an environment that works for all employees.

Diversity Management is based on the understanding and accepting the unique flavour and potential contribution of different cultures and traditions and how this heterogeneity can be allowed to add value to organizational life and productivity. (Charlton and van Niekerk as quoted in Mello (2002, 3) Public Service departments must therefore ensure

that diversity management as a transformation imperative, and inclusive of employment equity, is going to add value to the Public Service and ultimately to service delivery.

CONCLUSION

The South African Public Service has progressed considerably well with racial equity and seems to be progressing well with gender equity as well, although at a slower pace than racial equity. Disability equity is still an enormous challenge for the Public Service and perhaps even for other employers in South Africa. The Employment Equity legislation is lucid on what employer obligations are, and the Public Service needs to comply with such legislation.

The revised employment targets as approved by Cabinet for gender equity at senior management levels is that 50% by March 2009 and for disability equity it is still 2% by March 2010. The question is whether these targets are realistic and achievable, especially given challenges such as: the advent of a Single Public Service, the current political and social instability in the country, the forthcoming national elections in 2009, and the hosting of the 2010 world cup. Irrespective of all these challenges and uncertainties that will either directly or indirectly impact on the performance of the Public Service, the fact remains that equality and fairness in the workplace is one of the cornerstones of democracy and it must be promoted and upheld in all employment practices. Public Service departments, at both national and provincial spheres, must prioritize the transformation of the workplace by ensuring the attainment of the employment equity targets. Failure to do so might result in difficulty for the Public Service to handle employment related challenges that could impact negatively on service delivery.

Perhaps one question that the Public Service needs to ponder on is: 2010 and beyond, employment equity, *quo vadis*?

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PROMOTING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION THROUGH A SUSTAINABLE FOOD GARDEN PROGRAMME: A DEMOCRATIC REQUIREMENT OR AN ACCOUNTABILITY BURDEN?

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ABSTRACT

Citizen participation, that is, direct or indirect involvement of the ordinary community member in the decision-making process of the polity, is a positive requirement of participatory democracy. It is therefore imperative to explore the presumably paradigm shifts that occurred between South Africa's historical institutionalized culture of exclusion as compared with the democratic promotion of the participation process.

The second decade of democracy brought a new life and hopes to South Africans who struggle with pressing problems of food insecurity and job creation, caused by the challenges of poverty and unemployment. Planning and decisions have been tabled to address these dysfunctional situations in South Africa. As the government of the day aims to empower citizens, there has to be equilibrium forces that should be achieved and that involves the government and the citizens working together to address the problems facing South Africa.

The study aims to provide strategies that promote community participation and self reliance in order to break the cycle of poverty through community food projects, and to identify the determinant factors for the success and failures of improving the current state of agricultural activities in South Africa. In pursuit of the objectives, sustainable development as conceptual framework is defined; there is exploration of legislation that impact on food production for sustainable development, while the scenario of

democratic and accountable aspects are empirically tested with recommendations offered to obviate shortfalls.

INTRODUCTION

Sustainable development and policy making in South Africa focus on five challenges: it promotes the eradication of poverty and extreme income and wealth inequalities; it aims at the provision of access to quality and affordable basic service to all Africans; it is for the promotion of environmental sustainability; there is a sustained need for the reduction on the unemployment rate; and the attainment of sustained high growth rate (obtained from Adelzadeh, 2003, 5). Sustainable development brings a lasting benefit to the community. Therefore for a project to be sustainable, planners must ensure that the project meets the real needs of the community. Further, mechanisms must exist to ensure that the community has the capacity to run and maintain the project and that the natural environment will not be damaged in future (Allan, 1996:5).

The theme of community problem-solving is central to the idea of citizen participation (Brynard *in* Bekker 1996, 39). This paper explores the issue of community participation in the Sedibeng District Municipality for sustainable development through the establishment of community food gardens projects. The paper makes contribution to the body of knowledge in that it explores ways by which the poor and the vulnerable get empowered.

THE PROBLEM OF FOOD SECURITY

Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM) was established in the year 2000 with the total number of households estimated at 224307. SDM experiences high level of unemployment and poverty (51% of the people of SDM live in poverty), education and literacy levels and an economy that does not yield the concomitant jobs, compounded by low levels of skills (Sedibeng 1, 2006).

Food security in South Africa is a concern in SDM and it remains a serious challenge to achieve food security in the Gauteng Province as well. The mission of Gauteng Department of Agriculture, Conservation and Environment (GDACE) (GDACE 1, 2006), through the Chief Directorate Agriculture is to optimize the contribution of sustainable agriculture towards the equitable development of all communities and the economy in the Gauteng Province in order to enhance food security, income generation, job creation and the quality of life. This is done in collaboration with local authorities and other stakeholders in food security, to serve mainly resource-poor communities in Gauteng.

The following effects of food security in South Africa and prevalent in SDM had been identified by South African Investment Exchange (SASIX) (2006):

❖ Food production programmes take time to yield sufficient food. In the case of food insecure households, there is the risk that immediate and short-term needs for sufficient food become urgent before the project has time to produce enough food and this could compromise the expected outcomes.
❖ Vegetable gardening makes a valuable contribution to household food security but more food production and income generation interventions will be required for these households to become independent and sustainable.
❖ There is a risk of people becoming de-motivated and dropping out of the programme because the expected results, while worthwhile are still short of actual self-reliance.
❖ There is key staff resignation and community members leave the projects.
❖ Agricultural projects have inherent risks of failure due to disease, pests and weather,
❖ Immediate need for food can compromise the future viability of these households developing the small food production businesses that would raise them out of a subsistence level.
❖ The lasting impact is dependent on community member's motivation and capacity to keep maintaining their gardens.
❖ The sustainability is also affected by whether there will be further diverse opportunities for them to expand their household food production beyond subsistence. This risk is being addressed by focusing on business skills training

About twenty community food garden projects have been established in Sedibeng, amongst which is the Lwantsha Tlala Project. The Project was initiated in 1998 by 64 members with the aim to fight poverty and unemployment in the area. In December 2003 the project was officially approved by GDACE as a Household Food Security Project. GDACE has provided the Project with fencing, a borehole, gardens tools, storage container, protective clothing and seeds. The projects produce basic food consumables like spinach, cabbage, lettuce, green pepper, green chilies, pumpkin, potato, tomato, onion and carrots (Agriteng, 2006: 1).

The preceding implications necessitated an investigation and a solution. The focus of this study is to reflect continuous public participation and development in community food gardens and educate the community about the government's objectives to meet the public needs. The outcomes are reviewed in order to improve the service delivery at the SDM for sustainable development.

Government provision towards community development

The South African government has placed the need to address poverty and inequality firmly at the centre of the nation's agenda. This is reflected in the poverty audits that have been undertaken, as well as in the range of policy documents and strategies that have been developed in the first years of the government. President Mbeki has further reinforced this through his challenge to the nation to create "a caring society". As he

stated, such society "must guarantee the dignity of every citizen on the basis of a good quality of life for every woman, man and child, without regard to race colour or disability". In this speech, issues that featured strongly on the agenda as crucial to local development were: urban renewal and integrated rural development strategy (Mokate, 1999: 185 *in* Rabali, 2005:50).

The right of access to sufficient food is enshrined in Section 27 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996). The Constitution obliges the State to provide legislation and other supporting measures to ensure that all citizens are enabled to meet their basic food needs (Department of Agriculture, 2002:11).

The strategic framework for action to achieve food security was first outlined in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994), which identified food security as a basic human need. It recognized poverty and food insecurity as the legacy of the apartheid socio-economic and political order. The RDP food security framework was then refined in subsequent policy papers, such as the BATAT, and the Agricultural Policy Discussion Document (1999) (Department of Agriculture 2002, 11).

With regard to the government provision towards community development, programmes such as Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) and Gauteng Growth Agricultural Development Strategy (GADS) have been implemented to address the issues of poverty and unemployment. The two strategies are outlined below.

Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS)

The IFSS and Nutrition Programme were approved in July 2002 as one of the key programmes of the Social Cluster. The Programme aims to achieve physical, social and economic access to safe and nutritious food for all South Africans. Its goal is to eradicate hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 2015. In June 2004, the National Department of Agriculture together with the provincial departments of Agriculture had distributed production support packages to 37 000 household out of the target number of its target of 50 000 households (South African Government Information 2006, 20).

The expected outcomes of the IFSS are the following:

- Greater ownership of productive assets and participation in the economy by the food insecure,
- Increased levels of nutrition and food safety among the food insecure;
- Greater participation of the food insecure in the social security system and better prevention and mitigation of food emergencies,
- Greater availability of reliable, accurate and timely analysis, information and communication on the conditions of the food insecure and the impact of food security improvement interventions, and

- Improved levels of governance, integration, coordination, financial and administration management of food security improvement interventions in all spheres of government; between government and the private sector and civil society (Department of Agriculture 2002, 10).

Gauteng Growth and Development Strategy

The Gauteng Growth and Development Strategy (GDS) was adapted on November 2004 in order to set the following strategic priorities to achieve by 2009: fighting poverty and building safe, secure and sustainable communities; developing healthy, skilled and productive people; deepening democracy and realising the constitutional rights of our people; and building an effective and caring government (Gauteng Provincial Government 2005, 1).

Strategy for Sedibeng District Municipality

The implementation of GADS involves all municipalities of SDM as it defines the role of women, youth, small and big business industries, the agricultural sector and education and training in contributing to a master plan for economic and social development (Sedibeng 2, 2006).

Gauteng Agricultural Development Strategy

The Gauteng Agricultural Development Strategy (GADS) is underpinned by the GPGs commitment to Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) and further development of the first economy for the benefit of all communities. GADS is the GDACE initiative to address the problems of poverty alleviation, unemployment and economic growth in Gauteng that was launched on the 23 February 2006 at Sebokeng. The strategy comprises the overall GDACE objectives, which include farmer settlement, household food security and community food gardens (Gauteng Provincial Government 2005, 1).

Towards the realization of the objectives of this strategy the GPG shall not be stymied by absurd and dangerous sentiments such as those advanced by AGRI SA to the effect that only market forces should guide land and agrarian reforms. The intention of GPG through GDACE is to contribute towards job creation and economic development. The GPG Treasury has committed to allocate R14 million for this strategy. The funds will be utilized for the purchase and redistribution of farmland to historically disadvantaged individuals in Gauteng province. The success of this presupposes easy access to high potential agricultural land (GDACE 2, 2006). Community food gardens as the focus of this study is defined below.

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Community Food Gardens (CFGs)

Community food garden is a means of becoming involved in community based food production by sharing in the costs and the profits (in the form of fresh produce) of a local farm (Phelan 2005). CFG is a relatively new socio-economic model of food production, sales and distribution aimed at both increasing the quality of food and the quality of care given the land, plants and animals, while substantially reducing potential food losses and financial risks for the producers. It is also a method for small-scale commercial farmers and gardeners to have a successful, small-scale closed market. A variety of production and economic sub-systems are in use worldwide (Wikipedia 2006, 1).

Aims of Community Food Gardens

Community food gardens as type of agricultural project is also aimed at addressing food insecurity. The groups who need assistance approach the department directly. All have a shared commitment to building a more local and equitable agricultural system. Each project is structured to meet the needs of the participants. There is a level of commitment and active participation by the shareholders (Phelan 2005, 3).

Urban farming is practiced for income-earning or food-producing activities. It contributes to food security and food safety in two ways: firstly, it increases the amount of food available to people living in cities, and secondly it allows fresh vegetables and fruits to be made available to urban consumers. Because it promotes energy-saving local food production, urban agriculture and sustainability practices (Wikipedia 2006, 1).

CFG programme is established to eliminate stress, create a sense of belonging and restore human values such as compassion, non violence, generosity and ethic of service and caring for all lives. These projects relate to health, education, sustainable development and conflict resolution (Ndashe 2005, 2).

The primary objectives of CFG are the following:

- To create food gardens as local centres for skills development & learning regarding urban agriculture,
- To uplift communities, challenged by poverty, unemployment & HIV-AIDS,
- Improve diet of the human beings and reduce poverty (Ndashe 2005, 2)
- To improve their livelihoods and conserve their natural resources (Holt-Gimenez 2006, 2).

Current Food Security Trends in South Africa

The current food security challenge in South Africa consists of two dimensions. The first dimension seeks to maintain and increase the ability of South Africa to meet its national food requirements. This involves meeting these needs from domestic agricultural resource, import food items that cannot be produced efficiently, and to export commodities with comparative advantage. The second dimension seeks to eradicate the widespread inequalities and grinding poverty among the majority of households that is manifested in inadequate and unstable food supplies, lack of purchasing power, weak institutional support networks, poor nutrition, inadequate safety nets, weak food emergency management systems and unemployment (Department of Agriculture 2002, 11).

Status of food security in Gauteng Province

Due to the legacy of apartheid, the South African economy has developed very unevenly. The economy is divided between a developed and underdeveloped reality, all within a single market economy. Gauteng is the industrial center of the South African economy. It has a population of 8.8 million, a diversified economy base ranging from farming, mining, manufacturing and services and contributes 33% to national gross domestic product (Gauteng Provincial Government 2006, 4).

Gauteng Province is challenged by increasing levels of absolute and relative poverty, unemployment, and lack of basic services. It is in this context that the Gauteng government intends to halve the poverty and unemployment as part of the national government's priority.

Status of food security in Sedibeng District Municipality

The Executive Mayor Councilor Mlungisi Hlongwane for SDM tabled the state of SDM at Vereeniging Civic Theatre. He mentioned that SDM has a great potential in all kinds of agriculture that includes livestock farming to small gardens for sustenance. The Mayor highlighted that SDM is challenged by poverty and high unemployment levels that cannot be addressed, for instance the small community of Devon in Lesedi Local Municipality and Evaton in Emfuleni Local Municipality. He further mentioned that SDM shall double their efforts to ensure that established agriculture associates join them in strengthening their potential to halve poverty and unemployment. The driving force towards agricultural development in SDM resulted from the Agri-Summit that was held in December 2005. He concluded that, agricultural sector is the best hope for economic survival and for future progress for SDM community.

Given the complexity of food security issues, the proposed strategy requires a comprehensive and multisectoral approach of all spheres of government, and the active participation of the private sector and civil society. The following section involves empirical study to determine the feasibility.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research examined the effect on which the community food projects serve as a tool to promote sustainable development. The qualitative and some aspect of quantitative research methods were employed as the techniques enabled the researchers to obtain the data for the completion of this study. Two questionnaires were employed to collect data. The first interview consisted of questions to the community food garden participants and the second consisted of those posed to officials of GDACE. The empirical study was conducted within the researchers' area of jurisdiction.

FINDINGS OF RESEARCH

The aim of the study was to investigate the promotion of community participation through a sustainable food garden programme.

Sustainable development was defined as the development that is likely to achieve lasting satisfaction of human needs and improvement of the quality of human life. Sustainable development aims to change the process of economic development so that it ensures a basic quality of life for all people. The concept represents a development framework that leads to the conquest of poverty, the goal of full employment and the fostering of a stable, safe and just society. This definition was found to be effective as it assisted the poor community to utilize the available land to satisfy their needs. The CFGs have brought the idea of self-reliant as the participants are able to provide food for their families and they can also provide the produce to the needy communities such as the elderly and the learners in schools.

Promoting community participation through a sustainable food garden programme aims to enhance the economic growth and fight poverty in line with national and provincial priorities. Amongst the 20 established community food gardens, the study proved that promoting community participation through a sustainable food garden programme was essential in order to develop the community. This also proved that the government plays an important role in ensuring that economic development is maintained in SDM. Community participation remains a challenge to the government and the community to use natural resources in an effective manner.

Poverty affects every member of the community. The study has shown that the communities are capable of empowering themselves. Households usually grow vegetables in their backyards. Due to common economic requirements the communities have established groups to form community food gardens to assist each other, to feed their families and the hungry communities. The food that they grow is donated to schools to feed disadvantaged learners, sick people who are on medication, disabled persons; they also sell the surplus to acquire additional funds.

Target group

The GPG priority strategy states that the policies implemented targets the following categories: youth, women, HIV/AIDS (infected and affected persons), disabled and unemployed. In contrast to the above-mentioned categories, it was found that the youth is less represented on CFGs activities. The dominant category is the elderly people, largely females. Public participation could be construed as beneficial for citizens themselves. Further, communities who participate in the CFGs are able to satisfy their needs and demands. This is proven from some five groups interviewed. These groups have acquired skills on crop management, communication and effective ways to produce healthy food.

Management of projects

It is evident that the departments involved do comply with Batho Pele principles. This is stressed on the consultation (visits) that the department conducts on monthly basis to the established CFGs. The follow up assists the department to account for their commitments and the service level of agreement when the MEC accounts to the legislature about the performance agreements of the respective financial year. Democratic values are maintained and all citizens are treated fairly.

The intentions of GDACE to enhance economic growth and fighting poverty are in line with national, provincial and local priorities. Therefore it enables communication to flow easily amongst the institutions.

Security
It was found that the safety of crops and tools is a challenge within the participants. The participants who perform their activities on government premises, such as clinics and schools have their produce safeguarded on 24 hour basis by the institutions security guards. The participants who till on plots and houses are disadvantaged because of the absence of security guards on their premises and they end up being culprits. The absence of security measures disadvantages the participants to monitor their produce. As a result they live in fear that they may be robbed of their belongings.

Natural impediments

Natural resources (long grass and rocks), rodents and snakes are a threat to the participants. The land surrounding the clinic is an open veld, it is polluted and the grass grows tall to an extent that it covers the rocks. The environment is infested with rodents which feed on and get crops infected. Worse of the threats is the roam of the bushy area by snakes. These natural hazards limit the enthusiasm with which participants undertake their democratic right to feed themselves. and poses challenge to the local community for provision of logistical support

Infrastructure

The resources utilized by some groups are old and they repair continuously. Even though there are problems with the resources the groups are able to meet their targets and to feed the hungry.

Sustainable agriculture

The ability to farm based on long term effects of various properties and processes essential to crop productivity and long term availability of inputs is seen as sustainable and effective, as the land may be used for a long term. SDM has the potential in all kinds of agriculture. That includes live stock farming to small gardens for sustenance and the vacant land must be reserved for agricultural purposes.

The method used for producing crops is proved to be effective as the CFGs continuously use the available resources at their best ability. An example is crop rotation. The participants always alternate their crops on their land. They do this to reduce the exhaustion of the soil form the same crops planted. Participants are environmental conscious. They use the waste products (eggshells, used water for washing, all types of papers, and wood and dead leaves) to produce fertilizers for their crops. The method is cheaper and there are no chemicals involved. Therefore food is consumed fresh from the garden.

Recognition of participants

On yearly basis the participants enter the Female Farmer competitions. The aim of the competition is to empower and recognize the participants and their produce. The competition also broadens the link between the participants and the respective business organisations within the respective jurisdictions. It also enables the participants to network for the supply of their produce to respective retail institutions.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Flowing from the empirical study in particular, the following recommendations are offered for further actions:

- Food security results in poor nutritional status, and it does not necessarily guarantee good nutritional status, therefore to improve the nutritional status of food secure and food insecure South Africans, a multi-pronged approach should be considered.
- Poverty and unemployment in SDM is escalating to greater heights therefore the municipality should ensure that strategies are aligned with the GDS strategy to uplift the economy of the SDM.
- An effective network with communities should be established in order to promote their involvement for CFGs especially in SDM. Amongst the five groups that were interviewed only two groups are informed about government assistance towards the established groups. An informed community will be able to contact the departments for assistance.
- It is recommended that local authorities must ensure that open land is cleared as weeds, long grass and life endangering species. This will benefit the participants by expanding their cultivating land and to live a healthy live.
- Public participation should be encouraged, to empower them with the knowledge of self-help.
- SDM has fertile soil and have available land in all areas. Therefore the land that is not used must be provided to the unemployed and poverty stricken communities to utilize for agricultural activities.
- Municipalities in SDM must ensure that land that is available is protected for agricultural purposes. Such protection is necessary because in SDM there is an escalating development that are taking place in building shopping malls and residential areas, leaving minimal land for agricultural activities. This will open opportunities to SDM communities to generate and share agro-ecological knowledge freely; they will be capable of developing sustainable development, even under highly adverse conditions. The capacity to develop agriculture locally is not only the agro-ecological key to sustainable agricultural development and a matter to survival but to enhance the community to be economically independent and be able to invest their resources.
- The department in charge for developing communities in SDM should review their policies of receiving applications from the communities for the CFGs. This is a problem as other communities are unable to call the departments or send mails. Therefore it is recommended that the institutions should go out to the communities to convey their goals and objectives.
- The departments should open regional offices or mobile offices in the communities to enable easy access to the communities to visit the officials.
- One female participant mentioned that female participants are unable to contest on Female Farmer Competitions at community levels due to lack of female participants on CFGs. The GPG priorities to halve poverty states that the benefiting people are

- females therefore the policy makers should ensure that their target groups are well informed about the strategies of the province to the municipalities.

CONCLUSION

The objective of the study was to determine the extent to which the poor and the vulnerable could be empowered for sustainability. The concept sustainable development was defined in the context of food security as a problem to sustenance. Empirical findings were presented as promoting democracy through public participation and engagement in community food gardens. On the whole then, the paper has demonstrated that, with guidance and logistical. Support by public institution, the notion sustainable development could not be a mirage.

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PUBLIC PARTICIPATION AS A MEASURE OF DEMOCRACY: EVIDENCE FROM SOUTH AFRICA'S SECOND DECADE OF DEMOCRACY

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ABSTRACT

Abraham Lincoln coined the phrase "government for the people, of the people, and by the people" more than 200 years ago to explain the concept of democracy. This simple phrase still serves as an important measure of how democratic a state or community ought to be. In more modern times, Lincoln's representation of democracy has been further enhanced by the addition of the concepts of transparency, accountability and public participation.

In South Africa, extensive legislative and policy reforms took place in government in order to give birth to democracy after the transition of power – post 1994 elections. After the first 10 years or more of freedom, South Africa was widely considered as "the miracle nation" for making the relatively smooth transition from apartheid to democracy, and seemingly making a success of it over time. However, this paper argues that Lincoln's litmus test of democracy needs to be revisited in this second decade of democracy in South Africa.

The passage of time has seen the country ruled by the ANC for three consecutive terms, with a fourth term appearing to be highly probable, if not eminent. Has the passage of time, and the apparent guarantee of political office made the ruling party (and thus government) complacent to the needs and wishes of the people? Over the years, national government has acted against the wishes of the people after consultation was sought by government and then provided by the public. Three such recent cases, the Makhado Town name change, the Khotsong boundary re-demarcation, and the disbandment of the Directorate of Special Operations (DSO), are briefly examined in this paper in order to add empirical insights to the arguments made.

INTRODUCTION

Democratic governance begins and ends with the people. As Abraham Lincoln so succinctly put it more than 200 years ago, democracy is "…government of the people, by the people and for the people". In a democracy, the people place into office, the political party that wins the majority vote in the course of 'free and fair' elections; this government then exists on the basis of serving the needs of the people, and is accountable to the people. The outcome of subsequent elections is a reflection of the extent to which the public is satisfied with the performance of government in addressing their needs. A caveat, however, is that free and fair government elections cannot stand alone to guarantee vibrant and uninterrupted democracy. The problem with elections is that they occur only intermittently, every five years or so – The existence or creation of space for public participation in governance thus becomes critical in the interim to keep democracy safely on-course. As Masango (2002) aptly states, "…even though the results of a general election may clearly state who should govern, they do not adequately address the question of how the government should govern."

On the issue of public participation, this paper attempts to pull together '*what it should be*' (normativist perspective) with '*what it actually is*' (positivist perspective) in the South African context. This analysis fits into, and forms a key component of, the broader debate on the state (or extent) of democracy in South Africa since the landmark 1994 elections. If democracy is defined as the degree to which the people of the country determine their own destiny, then public participation can serve as a vital measure of that democracy.

In the first section of the paper, the normative discourse on public participation and democracy is considered so as to serve as the relevant guidepost against which actual practice can be compared. The second section takes a positivist approach to examining the actual state of affairs in South Africa with regards to the policy framework within which public participation is to take place. The focus thereof is on assessing the efficacy of these policy interventions. The paper concludes by attempting to bring together the

normative and positive sides of this issue in order to identify and address any possible gaps and short-coming in the way in which public participation is prescribed, and then practiced in South Africa. Three case examples are used to provide further empirical evidence on the above analysis.

NORMATIVE PERSPECTIVE ON PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

This section of the paper engages in the normative analysis of public participation by firstly defining the term – public participation; and then thereafter examining several normative perspectives of the phenomenon/concept.

Defining public participation

The essence of *public* participation in the public sphere is to a large extent captured by the analogous term – *political* participation, as political processes must be engaged in and even challenged in order for public participation to take place. Parry (1972, 3) however, explains that brining together the terms – *political* and *participation* is a somewhat unnatural exercise as the two terms do not complement each other on various levels and/or perspectives. In this regard, one finds that the meaning of *participation* is relatively un-problematic, as consensus can easily be reached with regards to defining participation as simply "…the act of taking part [in] or having a share with others in action" (Parry 1972, 3). The complication arises when one considers the loaded, overbearing and biased nature of the word 'political'. The connotations embodied in the term 'political' naturally dwarf those of 'participation' and may mislead one to believe that this is to do with the role of politicians in the administration of government affairs. Depending on how the term 'political' is conceived, the meaning of 'participation' will also vary in the manner of a dependent variable.

In contrast to political participation, the term public participation has better clarity and is more closely aligned with the participation of citizens in government decision-making. To further delineate and specify public participation in terms of it's meaning, it 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. In a similar vein, Botes et al (1992, 291) make the point that "…*society*…refers to the largest range of people in a state, [as opposed to] *community* which has a much smaller frame of reference." Public participation in this paper is thusly defined as the active involvement of citizens, across all spheres of government, in determining public policy.

The place of participation in democracy

Government *'by the people, for the people, and of the people'* is clear in it's representation of democracy, but one is however cautioned about imprecisely and unconditionally equating this famous adage with the notion of public participation (Nel and van Wyk 2003). Depending on which one of the many theories of democracy one subscribes to, public participation may or may not be a necessary condition for democracy. Accordingly, Nel and van Wyk (2003) point out:

> …[a] useful distinction…[is] between, on the one hand, 'realist' theories of democracy that emphasize representation, responsible leadership, and elite responsiveness as the key elements of democracy and, on the other hand, [democratic] theories that see direct participation as the sine qua non of democratic practices.

Bachrach (1969, 3) similarly asserts that classical democratic theory is focused on attaining the public interest by satisfying the needs of the community, whilst simultaneously allowing for public participation in the process. This concept is not foreign to modern societies in which communities should have some input into determining the nature and scope of their own needs, and also in deciding how these needs are to be met. Conversely, Bachrach (1969, 6) also acknowledges the sense of nostalgia one may have for the New England town meetings of American colonial times, but makes the point that classical (direct) democracy of that era may no longer be a realistic form of democracy in today's large and complex societies, as for instance when compared to elite democracy.

> Government by the people, strictly interpreted, is today impossible, but widespread public participation in the political process is perhaps still possible … [further] key political, economic, and social decisions are made by tiny minorities. In large part, this phenomenon is attributable to the politically unorganized, fragmented, and passive state of the great majority of the people (Bachrach 1969, 4-7).

In light of the above contentions, it can be accepted that *'government by the people'* refers to participation, and in our large modern societies this participation is limited. Where public participation is limited, democracy is most likely also diminished to some extent. However, it must be borne in mind that other important aspects of democracy (i.e. *government for the people, and of the people*) may still be intact. 'Government for the people' refers to the extent to which government institutions and programs identify and satisfy the needs of the people; and 'government of the people' occurs when there is equality amongst the people, such that provision is made for any competent and qualified citizen(s) to be elected to serve in government.

Participation, democracy and tyranny

It is generally accepted that the three key values that authenticate democracy are – participation, political equality, and deliberation. Fishkin (1995, 49) points out, however, that there is a fourth value that must also be considered to be essential to democracy, namely, the 'avoidance or correction of tyranny'. If tyranny is allowed to go unchecked, it can be expected to act as a counterfactual to participation, equality and deliberation, thereby de-legitimatizing democracy itself. Parenthetically using this same line of reasoning in analysing the holocaust, renowned economist Joseph Shumpeter had the following to say:

> … [consider] a hypothetical country that in a democratic way practices the persecution of Christians, the burning of witches, and the slaughtering of Jews. We should certainly not approve of these practices on the ground that they have been decided on according to the rules of democratic procedures…There are, ideals and interests which the most ardent democrat will put above democracy" (Shumpeter 1942 quoted in Fishkin 1995, 49-53).

By this argument, when a decision of the masses or majority is tyrannical (i.e. aims to deprive a person or group fundamental rights) towards some or other segment of the population, government ought to be justified in not carrying out such wishes. Tyrannical public choices, then, should serve as an exceptional case in which public participation ought not to be given credence (see also Held 1987, 87). A basic difficulty with this argument, however, is firstly to do with the subjectivity of determining whether an individual or group has actually been deprived of their fundamental rights. In many instances, regardless of what decision is taken by the majority, at least one other group of the population's rights may be compromised – take as examples, the right to bear arms, or the legalization of prostitution. Taken to the extreme, the analysis of tyranny can provide government with an excuse to deny the legitimate will of the people as expressed through public participation processes. A second strong criticism of Schumpeter's views come from the work of Bachrach (1969, 19-20) who makes a strong case for dismissing Schumpeter's thoughts on tyranny, democracy, and public participation when he points out that:

> Schumpeter's famous hypothetical question was based upon a misconception of democratic procedure…Religious, racial, or group persecution of any sort is in conflict with the principles of freedom of discussion and association essential to the operation of the majority rule principle. For if a minority is barred forcefully from becoming a majority, such action cannot be squared with the rules of democratic procedure…mob rule and majority tyranny are outrages to both democracy and individual liberty."

According to Bachrach then, democracy is not present if tyranny or mob rule prevails. If democracy works as it should, there can be no valid basis upon which to disallow public participation in governance.

Illusory nature of participation

An important, yet often ignored question on the discourse of participation is raised by Finer (1972):

> Are individuals participants unless they are persuaded that they are participants? [and] by the same token; if folk are persuaded they are participating, does that in itself make them participants?" (Finer 1972, 71).

The first part of this two-part question is very relevant to the individual citizen who would not ordinarily know the extent to which his actions or inactions have contributed to public policy-making. More importantly, and in the main frame of reference of this paper, the second part of Finer's question implies what has been observed all too often in South Africa of late – i.e. public discussion and/or opinion is overwhelmingly decisive and unanimous on an issue, but the final decision taken by government is contrary to what the public wants. This essentially means that "folk are persuaded they are participating, but in reality they are not participants".

The following section of the paper highlights the actual processes and mechanisms for public participation in South Africa, with the expectation of raising questions and suggestions as to how participation can be made to be un-illusionary or even just less illusory. The section thereafter gives a brief synopsis of three of the many case examples in which the above-mentioned conundrum specified by Finer (1972) occurs.

POSITIVISM, PUBLIC POLICY AND PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Community or public participation as a legitimised process is a relatively new phenomenon in South Africa's democratic political dispensation. Less than two decades, ago, during apartheid, the black African majority were not allowed the opportunity to provide inputs or in any way participate in planning and decision-making that affected them directly. This influenced people to use unlegislated paths to engage with the state and to dismantle the racist, brutal and discriminatory apartheid laws of the country.

The post-1994 democratic South African government, under the leadership of the African National Congress (ANC), institutionalised a plethora of public and community participation legislation and policy that sought to be inclusive of all South Africans. This section highlights government institutions, and government policy and legislation that give effect to public participation.

Parliament

Parliament, as the elected representatives of the people, as well as the highest law-making body in the country, has a significant and deterministic role to play in ensuring public participation and public accountability at all spheres of government. The national legislature, through it's ratification of the Constitution of South Africa 1996, calls upon all spheres of government to engage in public participation. In this regard, Section 152(1) (e) of the Constitution of South Africa requires local government(s) to "*encourage the involvement of communities and community organizations in the matters of local government…*"; whilst sect 118 requires provincial legislatures to "*facilitate public involvement in legislative and other processes…and conduct it's business in an open manner…*"; and sect 59 requirements for Parliament are the same as those of sect 118 for provincial legislatures.

The public is also invited to participate directly in Parliamentary proceeding through the attendance of meetings of parliament, submissions, representations and petitions (Republic of South Africa, Parliament website: on-line).

National Council of Provinces

The National Council of Provinces (NCOP) as one of the houses of parliament has the mandate to vote in the Parliament on national Bills that may have a significant impact on the provinces. This mandate of the NCOP takes place in consultation with provincial legislatures. Although citizens of provinces are afforded an opportunity to actively participate in matters of national policy, there are serious constraining factors to such participation. The key constraint being the fact that provincial legislatures are only given four weeks to present their feedback on sect 76 Bills to Parliament via the NCOP. This time frame allows little time for the provincial legislature to not only carry out the NCOP mandate in terms of deliberating over section 76 Bills, but also to arrange for adequate public participation (Republic of South Africa, Parliament website: on-line).

Executive

In South Africa, the executive branch of government is headed by the President of the country who is usually also the president of the ruling party. The executive, however, is expected to not mechanically stick to party manifesto when developing public policies. Political manifestos may be the appropriate generator of public policy in pure representative democracies, but in the form of democracy currently practiced in South Africa, public participation is essential. The Constitution obliges the executive to respond to the needs of the people and encourages the public to fully participate in policy making and policy implementation through public comment on green papers, whites papers, proclamations, and regulations (sect 101(3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 ; Republic of South Africa, Parliament website: on-line).

Other government institutions that have some influence over when and how public participation should take place include: the Judiciary, the Public Protector, the Human Rights Commission, the Commission for Gender Equality, and the Electoral Commission.

In support of institutional efforts at ensuring effective public participation, the following policies, regulations and legislation (among others) are relevant:

- *Constitution of 1996 as amended* – various section and chapters
- *Bill of Rights* (section 17) of chapter 2 of the Constitution recognizes the right to freedom of assembly, demonstration, picket and petition
- *Promotion of Access to Information Act*, 2000 (Act 20 of 2000) recognizes the need to fosters a culture of transparency and accountability in public and private institutions. The Act aims to promote a society in which the people have access to information to enable them to exercise and protect their rights. It further empowers and educates the public so that they can understand their rights in order to fully participate in decision-making
- *South Africa's National Environmental Management Act,* 1998 (Act 107 of 1998) may perhaps represent the broadest allowance of public participation on matters of national environmental affairs
- *White Paper on Service Delivery (2000)* sets out processes for the development of an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and specifies that the IDP process must include a mandate and terms of reference for public participation
- *Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000)* aims to ensure that municipalities or local government develop friendly atmosphere for public participation by building the capacity of local communities, councillors and officials to participate in municipal affairs
- *Local Government: Municipal Structures Act,* 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) requires, among other, that the municipality's executive submit an annual report that reflects the level of participation by the public in the local affairs.
- *Municipal Finance Management Act,* 2003 (Act 22 of 2003) states that the community should be invited to make submissions in connection with the budget of the municipality. The input of the community should also be integrated in the final document and should be distributed to the community to assess if the content of the local budget reflects the resolution and the inputs that the community requested during the drafting of the local budget.
- *White Paper on Local Government, 1998* stipulates that municipal councillors should make it their number one priority to promote the involvement of citizens and community groups in the initial design and delivery of municipal programmes which are aimed at improving the lives of the people.

This legislative framework for public participation is supported by the African National Congress (ANC) policy document entitled the 'Reconstruction and Development Programme' (RDP) which reflects that democracy requires that all South Africans have access to power and the right to participate in the process of reconstructing the country (ANC 1994, 123-124).

A BRIEF SYNOPSIS OF EMPIRICAL CASES

Makhado

In 2002 the Supreme Court of Appeal (SCA) reversed the decision of the Limpopo MEC for Local Government and Housing, to change the name of the town of Louis Trichardt to Makhado. The SCA's ruling was based solely on the lack of consultation that took place in this case. Instructions from the MEC were communicated through the municipal council to ward councillors, who were mandated to convene a public hearing and a series of public meetings to debate the proposed name change. The public, and interested stakeholders, were denied an opportunity to participate due to the following (Christmas 2007, 22-24):

- The public hearing was held a day earlier than announced
- In the wards that make up 50% of the jurisdiction of the municipality, no meeting were held
- In some wards, meetings were held as scheduled, but poorly attended

The Chamber of Commerce for the area lodged objections with the Minister of Arts and Culture and the South African Geographical Names Council (SAGNC), complaining that procedural requirements regarding public participation had been flouted. The Minister dismissed the objections lodged, and proceeded to issue a statement that "a process of sufficient consultation was followed before the matter was finalized (Christmas 2007, 22-24).

Khutsong

The sporadic flare-ups of public unrest witnessed in Khutsong since 1995, relate to the community's perception of a lack of consultation, on the part of government regarding the move of Khutong from Gauteng province to North West province. In order to deal with the problems and complexities of cross-border municipalities, Government decided in 2005 successfully promulgated the Constitution Twelfth Amendment Act 2005 (Act 39 of 2005). This amendment to the Constitution specifies how provincial boundaries will be re-drawn to ensure that cross-boundary municipalities will be a phenomenon of the past (Mabuza 2008).

Khutsong residents filed an application with the Constitutional Court to have the Act declared unconstitutional. Their case is premised on the argument that the majority views of residents, as expressed in consultative forums was ignored (Ntyintyane 2007). It has been widely reported that the Minister of Provincial and Local Government not only ignored the views of the community, but the Minister also disregarded the recommendations of the Municipal Demarcation Board which advised that both Khutsong and the Westonaria local municipality be part of Gauteng's West Rand district (Sunday Times 2007).

Directorate of Special Operations (DSO)

During the ANC 52nd conference which was held in Polokwane, Limpopo in December 2007, a resolution was taken that the Directorate of Special Operations (known popularly as the Scorpions) should cease to exist on its own, and instead be incorporated into the South African Police Services (SAPS). The announcement by the ANC faced vociferous criticism from the public and opposition parties in government. The criticism was influenced by the fact that the Scorpions, since being formed in 1999, have had a more than 90% conviction rate and was free to investigate and prosecute citizens and politicians, alike (Redpath 2004, 50-51). Amongst those being investigated by the Scorpions are high-ranking ANC members. Opinion polls show that the public consensus is that the decision to stop the existence of the Scorpion is a political one (Green 2008).

Despite the public outcry against the closure of the Scorpion, the ANC forced the matter to the parliament and there are currently two bills which were drafted to ensure that by the end of June 2008, the Scorpion will be within the SAPS (Citizen 2008, 6).

The Khampepe Commission which was appointed solely to look at the relevance of the Scorpion released its findings which suggest that there is no need for the government to stop the independent existence of this crime fighting unit, but the news from both the Luthuli House, which is the Headquarters of the ANC and the Union Building, which house the cabinet, seems to have ignore the recommendation of the Commission (Khampepe Commission 2006, 13-14)

REFLECTIONS ON THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Alarm bells concerning the future of South Africa's democracy have been sounded in certain intellectual circles, and especially so with regards to lessons observed in countries with a similar history of struggle, liberation and democracy on the African continent. The similarities amongst so-called "liberation" governments has been noted and documented. Kenya and Zimbabwe are put forward as more recent examples of countries that attended to a great many needs of their peoples after leading them out of colonial rule. The passage of time, however, saw these very same democratic liberation

governments turn increasingly towards operating on the basis of self-interested patronage and democratic elitism in the best case scenarios, and dictatorial rule and oppression at worst.

In many cases, the power of the people to vote their ineffective governments out of office is diluted by a number of complexities, including the non-existence of mobilized and credible opposition parties, and long-standing partnerships between government and various forms of alliance partners who represent constituencies of formidable size. The implications of having an entrenched ruling party that has no fear of being voted out any time soon is that democracy begins to fall prey to elitism, patronage and "government or president for life" syndrome. Public participation, in its various forms and manifestations, may be the only tool that the people have to ensure true democracy. When citizens are not voluntarily allowed to participate, they may choose to do so forcefully through protests, riots and other forms of civil 'disobedience'.

Conclusion

The conclusion of this paper is that while there is an impressive battery of progressive legislation and policy created to promote and ensure public participation in South Africa, this legislation and policy is ineffective as it leaves too much discretion and manoeuvrability in the hands of government. As the empirical case examples of this paper showed, public participation can be easily circumvented by political office bearers at the expense of costly and time consuming legal battles to be fought by community groups. Sometimes the people win and sometimes it is government that gets it's way, but at the end of the day the situation is such that *'government by the people'*, and hence democracy is compromised.

Does the government only have to allow people to talk in order to comply with policy on public participation? What follows after the expression of the peoples' wishes in public discussion forums? How are these wishes to be formally taken up into the decision-making processes of government? These are the questions that need to be answered to improve the peoples' satisfaction with participative processes in the South African context. Referendum and Citizens Jury's take a more direct approach to allowing for the kind of participation that these questions call for (see also Domson-Lindsay 2007, 31-3). Putting greater effort into these and similar direct engagement reforms would surely pay dividends.

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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES: UNLOCKING PUBLIC SECTOR PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

The management of public sector institutions in the 21st century is facing significant challenges in enhancing public service delivery (PSD). One of those challenges is to appoint the most competent individual in the most appropriate position. However, this is very unlikely to happen because political appointments and nepotism have fuelled the ever-increasing public perception of an inefficient public sector that is incapable of delivering quality public service to all South Africans. Public human resources (PHR) are one of the major resources that contribute to enhancing PSD but this depends on how effectively public sector managers utilise PHR, which, in turn, is contingent on recruiting, selecting and appointing the most competent candidate in the most appropriate position. This article argues for public human resource management (PHRM) practices that enable public sector managers to utilise PHR effectively, motivating them to utilise their competencies and skills to enhance their performance and changing public employees' attitude towards "putting people first" by providing quality public service to all customers. It is argued in this article that if public sector managers could customise private sector human resource management (HRM) practices, they would undoubtedly be inspired and motivated to deal with the challenges that confront them. In turn, they would be able to motivate their employees to exert their efforts in enhancing their performance and the institution's effectiveness.

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INTRODUCTION

People are the greatest resource of the public sector and they play a significant role in determining the quality of service that the South African public receives. The way in which public sector managers manage public employees and institute human resource management (HRM) practices (recruiting, selecting, training, involvement and compensation) will determine the extent to which public employees exert themselves and utilise their abilities, competencies and skills to enhance their performance. These HRM practices are synergistic with each one enhancing the others' effectiveness; and the result is substantially greater than the sum of their individual contribution (Horgan and Muhlau 2006, 415).

Employees' performance depends on a high-performance work culture. This requires employees who have both the ability to learn and perform tasks assigned to them and the motivation and willingness to undertake such tasks. The HRM practices influence an individual's performance through training and developing their competencies and skills and remunerating them accordingly (Martel 2003, 32). In the same vein, it requires public managers who are competent, caring about the well-being of employees and committed to service in the interest of the state (Adu-Febiri 2000, 73-75).

Best practice reveals that institutions invest in their employees through training, compensation, benefits and facilities, which not only have a positive effect on performance, but also build employees' loyalty and commitment and enhance retention (Martel 2003, 42); this ensures a pool of highly qualified and competent employees (Horgan and Muhlau 2006, 423). In order for public sector managers to manage public human resources effectively, they have to change their approach to managing public employees; they should curtail the surge of political appointments and nepotism and replace these with employees who are competent and merit senior appointments or promotions. They should institute HRM practices that unleash public sector performance, which translates into high-quality service delivery.

FACTORS LINKING HRM PRACTICES WITH PERFORMANCE

The human factor (HF) refer to the spectrum of personality characteristics and other dimensions of human performance, competencies, behavioural qualities and characteristics which facilitate the functioning of organisational, social, economic and political institutions on a sustainable basis (Adjibolosoo 1994, 26-27). It focuses on the whole person, therefore human attitudes, behaviour and actions are as important as knowledge, skills and expertise. These dimensions are categorised into spiritual capital, moral capital, human capital, aesthetic capital, human abilities and human potential (Adjibolosoo 1995, 33).

HRM practices consist of employee recruitment and selection procedures, incentive compensation and performance management policies, extensive employee training, participation and involvement in decision-making, which have the potential to enhance employees' performance, productivity and organisational effectiveness (Acquaah 2004, 119). They are designed to improve employees' knowledge, skills and abilities, boost their motivation and enhance the retention of valuable employees (Hiltrop 1996, 629). Therefore, a good HRM system is necessary, consisting of a coherent set of practices that enhance employees' skills and abilities and provide information, empowerment and participation in decision-making and motivation (Pfeffer 1998, 94-95). Wright, McMaham and McWilliams (1994, 1056-1057) argue that an organisation's human resources (HRs) have a greater potential to generate value on a sustainable basis than HR systems. But to create value, the HRs must exhibit high levels of skill and the willingness, motivation and commitment to exhibit productive behaviour that is generated by HRM practices. Thus HRM practices elicit some behavioural outcomes, in addition to improving employees' competencies, skills and abilities (Aquaah 2004, 128).

HF focuses on the effects of the individual's behaviour in both the institution and society, while HRM practices focus on employees' behaviour in the institution. The effects of HF qualities translate into positive outcomes for both the institution and national economy (Acquaah 2004, 119-120), while HRM practices enhance employees' performance, which increases the organisation's productivity and effectiveness, in turn boosting the national economy and improving the standard of living and the quality of life (Armstrong 2002, 5-6).

Performance management is the most comprehensive means of engaging employees. It is a mechanism to evaluate employees' inventories of competencies and skills and use education and training to upgrade them and enhance their performance (Martel 2003, 31). This is underscored by Baron and Armstrong (1998, 38-39), who stress that performance management increases the effectiveness of the institution by improving employees' performance and by developing their capabilities. They view performance management as a continuous process involving performance reviews that focus on the future rather than the past. Fisher (1996, 134-135) argues that performance is a person's abilities plus training multiplied by motivation, which enhance employees' performance and increase productivity, because it is the outcome of work and behaviour, which are influenced by HRM, that is the strongest link to strategic goals, customer satisfaction and profit (Armstrong 2002, 5-6).

According to Delery and Doty (1996, 812-815), there are three approaches (contingency, configurational and universalistic) that impact the link between HRM practices and performance. Guest (1997, 267-268) argues that there is support for each of the approaches but consistently stronger support for the universalistic approach. The contingency approach posits that there is a unique set of employee attitudes and behaviours that are required to implement an organisation's strategies successfully (Truss 2001, 1136-1138).

The configurational approach ensures a harmonious blend between HRM practices and other organisational activities (Delery and Doty 1996, 815-816). The universalistic perspective implies that certain HRM practices are better than others, irrespective of the nature of the organisation (Huselid 1995, 644-645). The implicit assumption of the universalistic perspective is that the effects of best practice are generalisable and not organisation-specific.

The high-performance work practice has theoretical support (Pfeffer 1994, 97-98) and considerable research findings (Huselid 1995, 644-645). Such practices can become a directive to practitioners as to what should be done, stimulating the policy formulation process and guiding the implementation thereof. Therefore, the author believes that focusing on best HRM practices is the appropriate tool for unlocking public sector performance as well as enhancing high- quality service delivery.

HRM PRACTICES: UNLOCKING PUBLIC SECTOR PERFORMANCE

High-performance HRM practices effect organisational performance positively, regardless of the nature of the organisation (Wood 1995, 57); they lead to positive outcomes for all types of organisations (Huselid 1995, 644) and are associated with more effective organisational performance (Thompson 1998, 40). Gould-Williams (2004, 64) agrees, stating that appropriate HRM practices enhance employees' motivation and commitment. This is underscored by Arthur (1994, 672-673), who states that high-performance HRM systems shape employees' behaviour and attitudes by developing a psychological link between organisational and employees' goals; this produces committed employees who can be trusted to use their discretion in achieving institutional goals.

Farnham and Horton (1996, 85-88) state that there are distinctive features of HRM practices in the public sector, namely paternalistic management, standardisation of employment practices, collective industrial relations and model working practices that emphasise equal opportunities and individual development. They argue that these practices have predominantly been based on the paternalistic approach to management at the expense of employee efficiency and institutional effectiveness. It therefore appears that the interests of employees are more important to public sector managers than the institution's productivity. This is reflected in the non-profit nature of the public sector,

which is a key feature of its ethos? Thus, efficient working practices and attempts to reduce costs are unlikely to be of much concern to public sector managers (Gould-Williams 2004, 66).

A second feature is the standardisation of employment practices, with employees performing similar tasks and having the same terms of working conditions regardless of their geographical location or level of performance. As a result, full-time employment and job security are generally regarded as the norm for many public sector employees (Gould-Williams 2004, 66). The third feature is a collective approach to industrial relations, employee participation, consultation and recognition of trade unions, which has resulted in high levels of union and public sector interaction and conflict management (Venter 2004, 166-168). Lastly, the public sector serves as a model employer that focuses on employees' development and equal employment opportunities (Farnham and Giles 1996, 118). It would therefore appears that public sector managers are using a form of high-performance management with employee training, model working practices and job security as the norms (Gould-Williams 2004, 66). Hughes (1998, 36) argues that the orthodox approach to PHRM has resulted in employees being 'treated too well'. It is therefore anticipated, based on the normative theories of HRM that these practices should lead to highly committed and motivated employees. However, this is not the case: as public employees are noted for being less committed than their private sector counterparts (Boyne 2002, 116-117).

Oswick and Grant (1996, 15) argue that the introduction of private sector HRM practices in the public sector is a limited, piecemeal and opportunist response to financial constraints. However, Boyne (2002, 118) states that public and private management are not fundamentally dissimilar in all important respects. Therefore, public sector managers are encouraged to adopt a style of HRM that reflects private sector practices (Boyne, Jenkins and Poole, 1999, 411-413). They argue that many of the traditional style of people management are still being practised by the public sector, despite efforts by government to transform them through change. In this respect, public sector managers give prominence to training, involving employees in decision-making processes, promoting equal employment opportunities and employee well-being, rather than enhancing employees' performance, productivity and institutional effectiveness, which would translate into high-quality service delivery (Gould-Williams 2004, 68).

Recruiting and selecting employees who best meet job requirements

The quality of employees will determine the type of training and development that should be provided, because selecting and appointing competent employees and developing their competencies and skills through effective human resource practices underpins institutional capability (Hiltrop 1996, 629). Campbell and Campbell (1990, 97-98) concur, stating that human resources are an institution's biggest cost item. This provides the institution with a strong economic incentive to make optimal use of its human

resources, because the appointment of employees represents rands-and-cents investment by the institution. This means that the effects of errors in selection and poor job placement or promotion not only reflect adversely on the public sector but also deplete scarce resources. The public sector cannot afford a mismatch between employees' abilities, competencies, skills and job requirements (Pearson 1991, 144-145).

Acquisition ensures that the public sector attracts and retains those candidates that best match the job requirements, team and organisational culture (Harel and Tzafrir 2001, 320); hence, the better the 'fit', the higher the institutional performance (Huselid 1995, 643-644). This is underscored by Cook (1991, 35), who states that effective selection techniques reduce the institution's human resource costs and enable the institution to capitalise on candidates' competencies and skills, which, in turn, reduces training and development and allows employees to start contributing to the institution's productivity sooner (Latham and Wexley 1994, 5-6).

There should be a well-conceived recruitment and selection policy, which should provide guidelines for recruitment, selection and appointment of public officials. It should state the goals which are to be achieved and which posts are to be filled by external or internal (promotion) recruiting (Cloete 1997, 104). Martel (2003, 33) argues that sound recruiting and selecting practices are critical as the labour supply changes in an increasingly competitive global market. Changes in the composition of the populations influence the labour workforce from which the public sector has to recruit, select and appoint employees. First, it indicates a changing mix of future customers and clients, which requires a parallel change in recruiting so that the institution can respond to, and more effectively serve, changing markets with their products and services (McShane and Von Glinow 2005, 10-11). Second, these changes indicate a changing pool of potential employees, which means that the public sector has to recruit for all positions from a labour market of more minorities, women and elderly. It also means that there is a demand for highly trained, competent and skilled employees (Martel 2003, 33).

The public sector should use recruitment and selection to recruit candidates who demonstrate HF qualities beyond human capital. Job interview procedures should place greater emphasis on behaviour and attitude that demonstrate the possession of spiritual and moral capital and HF behavioural and attitudinal qualities than on human capital; people can always learn new skills, but establishing attitude and behavioural fit is much harder. This would enable the public sector to recruit and retain employees whose values, attitudes and behaviours match those of the institution; moreover, employees should be trained to abide by the institution's values and regulations (Acquaah 2004, 135-136).

Education and training increase employees' competencies and skills

For the public sector to attract and appoint people that meet its needs, it will have to increase its investment and effort to educate and develop the designated groups that constitute a rising percentage of the future labour pool (Martel 2003, 33, 40). Martel argues that best practice is focusing more on "soft" behavioural skills of communication, interpersonal relations and leadership. Thus the public sector should recruit primarily for attitude, knowing that it can always provide training to acquire any technical skills that are lacking, whereas, it is harder and takes more effort and resources to change employees' attitudes. Management should also involve supervisors in the decision-making processes and pay close attention when selecting, compensating, engaging and training them. Supervisors are in daily contact with employees and are in the best position to manage, coach, monitor and convey the public sector's culture, spirit and values to employees; hence supervisors should play a crucial role in driving performance and retaining good employees (Acquaah 2004, 134-135).

Beardwell and Holden (2001, 163-164) concur, stating that line managers are increasingly becoming involved in human resource activities because they utilise subordinates to achieve the institution's goals, for which they are responsible. Demands for better public and local services are growing (Meyer, Goes and Brooks 1995, 332-333), which requires qualified and competent employees who can be provided by means of effective HRM (Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson 2001, 346-348). Top and senior management should be committed to making training an integral part of the institutional culture and strategic objectives (Cronje, Du Toit and Motlatla 2001, 474-475).

Training and retraining should take place at all levels of the institution on an ongoing basis (Van Dyk, Nel, Van Z Loedolff and Haasbroek 1997, 409-410) because it is through learning that employees acquire skills and proficiency in a task, which enhances their performance of that task (Cronje et al. 2001, 15-17). This is emphasised by Beardwell and Holden (2001, 284-285), who state that the outcomes of learning (competencies, skills, tacit knowledge and employability) empower employees to be optimally utilised.
Empowerment gives employees freedom, allows them to take risks, tolerates their mistakes, engages them and builds their confidence. Confidence, in turn, increases employees' contribution and anchors their commitment (Martel 2003, 31). Education and training benefit both employers and employees. Employers experience improved performance, increased productivity, corporate effectiveness, better results and higher profits. Employees are able to enhance their qualifications and employability by increasing their competencies and skills (Cronje, Du Toit and Motlatla 2001, 15-16). Best practice in education and training are based on five generic principles: continuous learning, informal training, sharing information, meeting changing needs with different job-related programmes and promoting general education (Martel 2003, 38). Best practice focuses on supervisors because of the role they play in employees' performance

and retention. Special attention should be given to the development of managers who come from non-management ranks (Martel 2003, 40). Institutions can use action learning, coaching, counselling and mentoring to complement management development programmes (Van Dyk et al. 1997, 381-382).

Employees' involvement leads to high-quality decisions and ownership

Employee participation is joint decision-making between managers and workers (Doucouliagos 1995, 60). Glew, O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin and Van Fleet (1995, 402) reiterate this, stating that participation is a conscious effort by management to involve lower managers in the institution's decision-making processes. Participation leads to higher employees' satisfaction in terms of institutional processes and decisions and a stronger commitment to the institution (Perry, Mesch and Paarlberg 2006, 508). Cawley, Keeping and Levy (1998, 618-619) concur, stating that shared decision-making improves employees' satisfaction with both decisions made and the process used to reach those decisions thereby strengthening employees' commitment to decisions and trust in the institution (Nyham 2000, 92-93). Employee involvement ensures that high-quality decisions are made by improving information and knowledge sharing (Perry et al. 2006, 509).

Participation allows employees to strive for self-realisation and self-actualisation (Lussier 1997, 360). Engaging employees affirms the importance of their work and the value of their individual contribution to the institution's performance and productivity. It aids in the effective achievement of the institution's goals and objectives (Martel 2003, 42). Therefore management needs to find ways of conveying the importance of the institution's products or services to their employees. This can be done through regular communication (oral and written) (Bateman and Snell 2004, 452). The pervasive belief in the importance of the institution's work is anchored in its culture (shared believes) (Luthans 2005, 44).

Involving employees in decision-making processes impacts on their commitment to the public sector. However, failure to do so is likely to undermine the motivational effects of involving them and affect their trust relationship with management (Gould-Williams 2004, 76). This would make it difficult for management to gain employees' cooperation when attempting to engage them in the future (McShane and Von Glinow 2005, 128, 304-305).

Compensation stimulates employees' commitment and performance

Mano-Negrin (2003, 969) states that the challenge for the public sector is to balance society's expectations for democratic and equality-based institutional behaviour with market's expectations of increased efficiency. This is constantly manifested in the unresolved dilemmas regarding budget, on the one hand, and increasing demands for public and local services on the other. This confrontation causes the public sector to

increase its autonomous resources and rely less on public sources, thus conforming to cost-effective operations (Meyer, Goes and Brooks 1995, 332-333), which can be accomplished by the effective utilisation of both capital and human resources (Drucker 1980, 221-123; Jackson and Schuler 2000:XIX).

Grimshaw, Vincent and Willmott (2001, 426-427) developed an ethos that seems to be contradictory because it implies that the employment of potential low-performance employees in the public sector would increase their performance. Assuming that the focus is on efficient mechanisms rather than effective principles, which blurs and blends elements of private and public sector management, it means that low performers should be punished for their low performance (Mano-Negrin 2003, 970). Therefore the public sector will pay nothing more than what is necessary to attract an adequate supply of employees (Belman and Heywood 1995, 189-190). Thus the public sector would not be able to compete with the private sector in attracting and retaining best qualified employees (Mano-Negrin 2003, 971). However, performance-based systems of the private sector and democratic values of the public sector can be successfully merged (Grimshaw, Vincent and Willmott 2001, 426-427). Promoting administrative values such as democracy and equality should not be disrupted by adopting factors relating to performance, such as the economic conditions (Moon and de Leon 2001, 328-329). The institutionalisation of high work effort norms signals a strong appreciation for hard work that is expected of employees (Mano-Negrin 2003, 971). The compensation effort from incentive systems reinstates the link between performance and goals. It stimulates employees to use their competencies, skills and effort in achieving institutional goals and to be rewarded for their efforts (Horgan and Muhlau 2006, 424).

Research conducted by Stajkovic and Luthans (2003, 73-77) indicate that feedback combined with monetary incentives and social recognition produce the strongest effect on performance. This is supported by Bucklin and Dickinson (2001, 54-55), who state that individual monetary incentives plus feedback significantly improve performance. The most critical determinant of performance is the use of a ratio schedule, whereby employees earn a specific amount of money for the number of work units completed (Lussier 1997, 173-174). Pay-for-performance systems are another means that can impact employees' performance moderately and influence their attitude and retention positively (Morgan and Muhlau 2006, 424). However, pay-for-performance systems in the public sector are difficult to implement because the functional nature of work is standardised, routine and done by teams (United Nations Report 2005, X). These systems also have little positive impact on employees' motivation and institutional performance, because of a lack of adequate funding for performance pay and an absence of institutional and managerial characteristics and commitment to make pay-for-performance work in traditional government settings (Kellough and Lu 1993, 48-49).

Perry, Mesch and Paarlberg (2006, 506-507) state that public sector outcomes are mostly determined by team performance. They argue that equally divided small-group incentives sustain a high level of productivity and satisfaction among team members. The effectiveness of team performance depends on the characteristics of the reward system, the institution, the team and individual members (DeMatteo, Eby and Sundstrom 1998, 147-148). Gould-Williams (2004, 76, 78) concurs, stating that teamwork and training practices have a significant effect on employees' commitment, job satisfaction and attitude.

Martel (2003, 36-38) argues that the institution's productivity and effectiveness are attributable to employees' effort, indicating their desire to share in the profits. He states that employees rank benefits highly because of rising costs; time-off also enables employees to achieve a better balance between work and home activities. Adequate pay is a key component in improving and sustaining the motivation, performance and integrity of public employees. Public employees should therefore be equitably remunerated to attract and retain competent people, while providing sufficient incentives for employees to maintain a high level of performance (Hays and Plagens 2002, 337-338; United Nations Report 2005, X).

CONCLUSION

This article has explored how five dimensions of HRM practices (recruiting, selecting, training, involvement and compensation) form the basis of a coherent system of high-performance HRM. These practices ensure that employees acquire competencies, skills and knowledge, are motivated to perform and cooperate, and develop trust and confidence in management. This article has shown how the practices work together in order to achieve complementarity. It has also shown the different types of relationships between HRM practices and how these relationships form the synergistic effects that are associated with the potential for high-performance HR systems.

The article has indicated that for the public sector to be efficient and effective, its leaders, managers and workers should possess HF qualities and characteristics. It has also shown how HRM practices enable managers to develop HF qualities in public sector employees in addition to increasing their competencies, abilities and skills, which enhance their performance and productivity and increase institutional effectiveness. The article has also demonstrated that HRM practices enhance public sector performance by attracting, identifying and retaining employees with knowledge, skills and abilities. The article showed that public sector managers could and should adopt, adjust and utilise HRM practices that would enhance public sector performance, which, in turn, would translate into high-quality service delivery.

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MANAGING THE PROVISION OF LOW COST HOUSING IN SOUTH AFRICA: EVALUATING THE ACCESS TO HABITABLE HOUSING AND THE MIGRATION IMPACT ON HOUSING DELIVERY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is to analyse and evaluate the quality of and access to low cost housing by South African citizens and to ascertain whether the quality and access to housing in the country is an interminable political problem or an economic one. The provision of low cost housing was prioritised in the early post-apartheid South Africa and has since been used as an election tool by South African politicians. It has especially been used by those canvassing politically emphasising the weaknesses of the previous apartheid system to collect more votes from South African citizens and acquiring their trust. Many problems, such as access and quality, have been encountered in the provision of low cost housing; and the problems are increasing. This suggests mediocre management of the provision of low cost housing. This article will limits its arguments to the issue of access and the provision of low cost housing, and to the likely problems, inter *alia*, the impact of illegal immigration, which lead to the failure of achieving the objective of providing accessible housing to all South Africans.

INTRODUCTION

Access to housing and secure accommodation is an integral part of the South African government's commitment to reduce and improve the quality of people's lives (South Africa 2006, 404). The South African government is duty bound to provide housing as a fundamental right to all deserving South African citizens. Post-apartheid South Africa proceeded from the premise that the country started experiencing a critical shortage of housing, because the housing market it inherited in 1994 had severe abnormalities as a result of the policies and political turbulence of the pre-democratic era (South Africa 2000, 14). It was on the basis of those severe housing shortages, which were racially based, that the South African government put housing on its development priority list. Housing was viewed as one of the significant areas that require attention and immediate

solution. It can, however, be argued that observing the immigration pattern into the country, the provision of housing is one of those challenging development problems for which total achievement of objectives cannot be easily claimed.

PROBLEM OF HOUSING IN ITS HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The problem of housing provision in South Africa can be said to emanate from the following sources (though not only limited to these): namely the economics and politics of racism, gender biasness in South Africa and the impact of the illegal migration into the country. The problem of economics in housing development is not an issue peculiar to the South African situation, but rather a worldwide problem, which is influenced by peoples need to seek to stay in places that are said to be economically active.

The economics and politics of racism in South Africa's housing development

The housing problem is not a new phenomenon in developmental challenges worldwide. Neither can it be claimed to be a uniquely South African problem. Countries worldwide experience housing shortages. The challenging aspect of the housing shortage in the South African context is that it is both economical and political, and often also social. South Africa's housing problem, as that of other countries worldwide, emanates from the country's politics and its socio-economic problems. Van Zyl, Human and Swanepoel (2004, 136), indicated that the housing problem in most countries originated from the process of urbanisation which was influenced by the industrial revolution of the 18th century. That was in turn influenced by the socio-economic problems in rural setups where large numbers of impoverished people thronged to the cities to seek a living in factories. The movement of people from the rural to the urban areas has placed a huge burden on housing development worldwide. This is because such movement has caused people to be concentrated in one particular part of the country. While in other countries, such a problem may have only been a socio-economic problem; in the South African context it has been both socio-economic and political. The movement of South Africans from rural to urban areas has caused many disparities in housing provision. This was because of the past policy of separate development, whereby those that moved to the cities would be provided housing in terms of racial preferences; that is, provision differed, depending on whether one was White, Coloured, Asian or African. This resulted in a housing shortage and lack of habitable housing within the African (Black) communities in South Africa while other racial groups in the country were better well off.

In South Africa, the mining industry developed rapidly, forcing large numbers of people to migrate to mining cities (Van Zyl 2003, 136). The migration pattern of the Limpopo Province alone indicates that an increased number of people are moving out of the Province to other Provinces in the country. According to Statistics South Africa (2004, 40), losses in internal migration for Limpopo Province up to 1996 and 2001 were estimated at 313 115 and 248 743 respectively. This indicates that the Limpopo Province is one of the poorest provinces in the country, and therefore the people try to escape their

poverty by moving to other provinces, either temporarily for the purpose of jobs, or permanently. The consequences of such escape are, however, detrimental to housing development in the country, because whenever and wherever those immigrants are moving to, there will be a need for housing infrastructural development. Most South Africans and immigrants from other countries (Europe, Asia, America and Africa) would like to be concentrated in Gauteng which is the city where most economic activities in the Republic of South Africa are taking place such as international and national entertainment games and the prevalence of developed industries. Such concentration is a major contributor of the housing backlog in the Republic of South Africa. The constraints of housing development in the South African context therefore include geographic disparities in which housing disparities exist between urban and rural areas and between different urban areas as well as the large proportion of low income earners in the country. The larger the proportion of low income earners, the greater is the proportion of the population unable to afford housing (South Africa 1994, 12). In addressing housing shortages and problems, the South African government, therefore, need to look at it from different housing problem angles, such as squatter housing, rural housing and farm worker housing.

South Africa's housing access and the politics of gender bias

The problem of housing development policies in South Africa has not only been limited to the politics of colour preferences, but also to a social problem of being gender biased. This has resulted in housing policies that benefited a male dominated society to the detriment of females. In addition to our country's inequitable housing policies was the customary marriage law which did not allow unmarried women to own property. This law was applied in terms of the *Black Administration Act 38 of 1927*, which regarded women as perpetual minors and was applied in all former South African self governing territories with the exception of Kwa-Zulu Natal after the repeal of the *Zulu Code of Law* which no longer impose limits upon the contractual capacity of a married women (Bekker 1989, 142). The *Black Administration Act 38 of 1927* in respect of the rest of the country s 11(*3*) (*b*) was read as follows: '… a Black women (excluding a Black women who permanently resides in the province of Natal) who is a partner in a customary union and who is living with her husband, shall be deemed to be a minor and her husband shall be deemed to be her guardian.' The impact of the customary law left many South African women, especially the unmarried ones, in a state of dispossession. This has also left many unmarried women in a state of vulnerability because the highest proportion of South African women are said to be unemployed and illiterate.

According to the *White Paper on Local Government* (South Africa 1998, 41), cases of poverty in rural areas affected more women than males. This has resulted in disempowerment for South African women in the housing sector. Driel (2004:42) indicates that because of women disempowerment which is linked to unequal opportunity practices of the past, empowerment of every disadvantaged entity, today features widely as an objective in development literature and policies. Hence, in this context, it can be

deduced that South African housing policies will, therefore, be geared towards empowering women or relinquishing all systems that were intended to disempower the womenfolk. Both the housing policies and the administrative systems seem to have been fragmented. This means that South Africa does not have a single uniform policy that addresses housing problems at national level (Statistics South Africa 2003, 2). It is therefore, because of such inconsistent policies of the separate development system that the post-apartheid South African government inherited housing provision problems.

The post-apartheid government is now faced with the task of addressing a high rate of housing backlogs which are the result of South African residents having been affected by housing policies determining access along racial and gender lines. Statistics South Africa (2003:2) indicates that in the early 1990s, the South African housing sector was fragmented inconsistently funded and lacked role definitions and lines of accountability. Venter and Marais (2006, 69-70) further indicate that despite, the intention of the *White Paper* on *National Housing* (Republic of South Africa 1994, 21) to promote gender equality in housing provision and the role of women in housing; of the nine provinces in the country it is only Gauteng Province that has specific gender-related housing policy objectives in place. Venter and Marais (2006, 74), however, indicate that it has always been difficult to measure the gender impact on the provision of low income housing. Instead, the housing departments attempt to measure gender impacts in terms of the percentages of female-headed households that are benefiting from the housing subsidy.

The National Housing Department (2003) reports that 39% of all housing subsidies that were allocated up to December 2002 went to female-headed households. Further to that research conducted at Turflaagte (Bloemfontein) by Venter and Marais (2006:74) also indicates that between 2000 and 2004 more female than males benefited from the housing subsidy (55, 4% Vs 44, 6%). It can therefore be deduced that irrespective of the lack of a reliable measurement tool on the gender impact on housing provision in the country, available data as mentioned above shows that women are benefiting more from housing provision than males. That give evidence of the efforts made by the South African government to close the disparities caused the *Black Administration Act 38 of 1927* and other policies of separate development which compromised the status of South African women in housing ownership.

ACCESS TO QUALITY AND HABITABLE HOUSING BY SOUTH AFRICANS

In terms of section 26 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, every South African has the right to have access to adequate housing and that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of such right. In this instance, the South African government has a duty to put in place implementation, action and monitoring systems to ensure that access to habitable housing is met. Ndinda (2003, 1) indicates that the new housing policy and strategy is based on the principle of capital subsidy in which those with the lowest income have access to full grants and those with an income of R3 500 or more

have access to lesser grants. The provision of quality and habitable housing is ensured through the application of newly developed policies and the role of the three spheres of governance in South Africa such as the local, provincial and the national spheres.

Policies for providing habitable and quality housing

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 is the primary policy statement of the country. Many development policies are therefore developed using the constitution as a framework of reference. Among the common development policies which addressed housing were the Reconstruction and Development (RDP), (Growth, Employment and Redistribution) GEAR, the National Housing Code of 2000, the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, the White Paper on Housing 1994 and the National Housing Act 107 of 1997.

The RDP endorses the principle that all South Africans have a right to a secure place in which to live in peace and dignity, and that one of the RDP's priorities is to provide for the homeless (South Africa 1994, 23). GEAR on the other hand indicates that housing provision should create an environment in which homes are safe and places of work that should be productive. It is, therefore, argued that in South Africa, the provision of housing that is not habitable poses a health threat to the dwellers and signifies a constitutional crime. The National Housing Code (South Africa 2004, 4) views housing development as the establishment and maintenance of habitable, stable and sustainable public and private residential environments to ensure viable households and communities in areas allowing convenient access to economic opportunities, health, educational and social amenities in which all citizens and permanent residents of the Republic of South Africa will on progressive basis have access to: permanent residential structures with secure tenure, ensuring internal and external privacy, providing adequate protection, portable water, adequate sanitary facilities and domestic energy supply. Children's Institute (2007, 1), defined habitable housing as a house that ensures that it is physically safe and protects the inhabitants against the weather, especially the rain and cold. That will mean a house built of formal brick or cement-block houses that meet the standards set by the state for quality housing. While the South African policies and legislation want to provide quality housing to its citizens to solve the housing shortage, access to quality housing may not be achieved in absolute terms.

In a country like South Africa where the housing backlog is high, to the extent that even if the South African government has provided 5 million people with access to housing between the period 1994 and 2000, housing statistics still indicated that 7,5 million South Africans were still in need of access to housing (Knight 2001, 1; Streek 2001, 5). This means that it will be difficult for the South African government to achieve the level of quality housing that can satisfy the needs of all South Africans at the same time. In some cases, although the standards and measures to define habitable housing as a quality house are defined, there are always different levels of satisfaction which can be either individualistic or gender-based. It is often difficult to provide housing that will satisfy all dwellers, even if those houses are provided for free. In most cases, as indicated by Venter and Marais (2006, 74), determining the quality of habitable housing is normally done by

means of looking at factors such as the condition of the walls, damp conditions in the house, the condition of roof, summer temperatures in the house, winter temperatures in the house and the number of rooms in the house. The residents of Turflaagte (Bloemfontein) indicated as follows in terms of their dissatisfaction with the conditions of access to habitable and quality housing.

Table 1: Dissatisfaction with houses according to gender

Dissatisfaction with aspects of house	Female-headed				Male-headed			
	N	%	Total	%	N	%	Total	%
Condition of walls	167	81,9	204	100	135	68,5	197	100
Damp conditions in house	161	79,7	202	100	135	67,5	200	100
Roof	139	69,5	200	100	100	50,5	198	100
Summer temperature in house	101	49,8	203	100	116	58,0	200	100
Winter temperature in house	113	55,9	202	100	144	72,4	199	100
Number of rooms in house	69	34,0	203	100	115	57,8	199	100

Source: Venter and Marais (2006)

The provision of low cost housing in South Africa is said to be of poor quality. Using the Turflaagte (Bloemfontein) study as a typical South African example (see table 1), one observes that the largest number of respondents in the area indicated their dissatisfaction with the quality of housing provided to them. However, the levels of dissatisfaction differ in terms of gender of the respondents. Most female respondents are more dissatisfied with the conditions of houses provided to them than male respondents. While males are also dissatisfied with housing conditions, their dissatisfactions are more about the size and temperature of rooms during summer and winter.

The fact that most women show dissatisfaction with the physical structure of their house than males indicates their incapacity as females to deal with issues relating to dealing with technical problems affecting their houses; problems which in a male-headed family can appropriately be dealt with by males. It can, therefore, be argued that the issue of habitable or quality housing can only be evaluated by taking the context into account.   In fact, even if the Republic of South Africa various housing policies and related legislations stipulated the minimum requirements for the provision of habitable and quality housing, the quality and habitability of such houses may not be immediately be accepted by the recipients, which in this instance are the low income earners in the country. It must be kept in mind not all low income South Africans can be satisfied with the quality of houses provided to them even if they are hand outs. The South Africans want to be provided with quality houses than the less quality houses in which governments want to achieve quantitative development objectives.

The role of the spheres of government in providing quality housing

The South African constitution provides for three spheres of government, namely national, provincial and local**.** Each of the spheres has its own identified responsibilities enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Some of the responsibilities are either shared between spheres or in terms of the national government delegated powers. Housing is a national sphere responsibility in terms policies, norms and standards and to a lesser extent, to provincial governments, and the local governments perform the housing function in terms of the state delegated powers.

The role of the municipality in this regard is, therefore, to provide an enabling environment and apply steps necessary to provide its inhabitants within its jurisdiction areas with adequate housing such as setting goals of housing delivery, identifying and designating land for housing development, plan and manage land use and development, create and maintain a public environment conducive to housing development which is financially and socially viable and ensuring that people in their area of jurisdiction have access to adequate housing. It is in actual fact the *Housing Act 107 of 1997* that places some housing responsibilities to the municipalities' demarcated areas through delegated responsibilities from the national government (Craythorne 2003, 28).

The South African municipalities are delegated to manage national housing programmes. The said delegation enables the municipality to receive, evaluate, approve or deny application for subsidies in its area of jurisdiction (South Africa 2000, 29). The management of the national housing programme at the local government sphere is to assure the local communities of a better quality service because of their vicinity and accessibility. The management of the housing programme by the local government is, however, not viewed as an advantage to serve the local communities better. There are arguments raised by South African municipal councillors that their facilitatory role in such programmes lack influential power when their people are provided with poor quality housing. This is mostly because delegated powers have limited restrictions on the delegated authority.

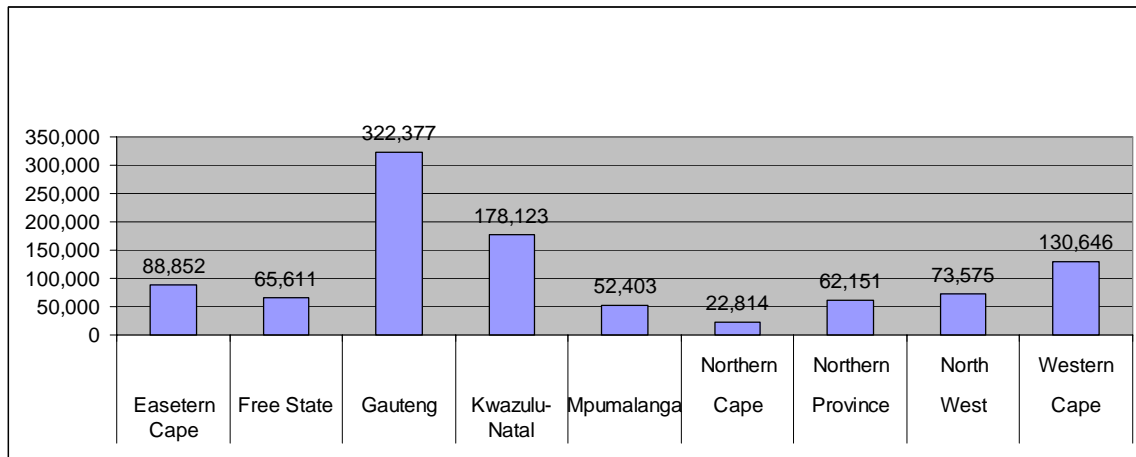## PROVISION OF QUALITY HOUSING AND THE POLITICS OF THE NEIGHBOURS

The provision of housing in South Africa may well be an everlasting political problem of the country in which the political leadership of the country will be accused of poor service delivery in the housing sector. It should, however, be noted that there are indirect forces leading to failure to achieve delivery objectives in totality in the housing sector. Some of those forces involve politics of reciprocation by the South African government with its neighbouring African countries. South Africa continues to pledge allegiance to other African countries, because during the liberation struggle most liberation movements were housed in those countries. The South African government is, therefore, not morally

expected to adopt harsh or aggressive foreign policies when dealing with people from its neighbouring countries.

Housing provision in the first five years of democracy (1994-2000)

The first five years of housing delivery in South Africa have seen a significant progress in terms of housing in the country. Records indicate that in 1994 alone, the South African government has only been able to provide 1.1 million houses to needy South Africans with an estimated shortage of between two to three million houses (Knight 2001, 1; Streek 2001, 5). Between 1994 and the year 2000 five million people have been provided with houses, and the figure for adequate housing increased to seven and half million people requiring adequate housing. Figure 1 below indicates the number of houses provided between 1994 and 2000.

Figure 1: Total number of houses completed or under construction, April 1994- March 2000

Source: South African Department of housing web, July 2001

Even though it is argued that the housing backlog is because of the previous apartheid system, new trends are emerging to increase the housing backlog to a level worse than it was as a result of the apartheid system. There is a tremendous increase in the housing shortage that may be emanating from the immigration pattern of Africans from troubled countries, mostly African countries. According to Pelser (2003, 341), the largest proportion of illegal immigrants in South Africa come from Mozambique, Zimbabwe, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Nigeria, Sudan, Ethiopia, Rwanda and Burundi. The rest come from Taiwan and the Soviet-controlled Eastern Europe. There is, however, the politics of the impact of the illegal immigrants in terms of colour.

It is known that Africans from other countries put great stress on the level of housing shortage in the country as they share or add to squatter camping in the country with fellow South Africans. By contrast, it can be argued how invisible the white illegal immigrants are, to the extent that it cannot be determined how they impact on the country's housing delivery as they can not be spotted in squatter camps or in most South African rural settlements. A worse impact on the poor housing sector of South Africa, is that most of the illegal immigrants from the African countries belong to the low skills category and therefore add to the poverty-stricken population of the country which need to be provided with basic living facilities by the government. Solomon (2000, 9-10) indicates that research conducted by the Masungolo Project of the Southern African Bishops Conference on Mozambiquan illegal immigrants in South Africa, the biggest proportion of illegal aliens in the country, found that most illegal Mozambiquans in South Africa do not have more than three years of formal education, and that most of them do not have other work skills outside those of subsistence agriculture.

Housing provision in South Africa up to March 2007

The National Department of Housing provided as the most recent housing statistics, the housing statistics of March, 2007. The South African housing sector seems to be performing at an acceptable level since up to March 2007 only, 2,355,913 houses were either completed or in the process of completion. The South African National Housing Web (2007:2) also indicated that from 1 April 2007 to 31 December 2007 alone, 186,094 houses were delivered or were in the process of completion.

The only challenge facing the housing sector in terms of delivery is the increasing unequal economic pressures forcing the South Africans to be concentrated in some areas of the urban provinces only, as well as the political problems in neighbouring countries which also increases the number of homeless people in the South Africa. Despite the said socio-economic problems and the politics of the neighbouring countries, the South African government continues to provide on an annual basis houses to its inhabitants.

As indicated by the table below about 2, 355,913 houses were delivered or in the process of completion as at March 2007. The statistics provide as per province, the number of approved projects, approved subsidies, approved beneficiaries and housing deliveries.

The statistics are tabulated as follows:

Table 2: Housing Statistics, March 2007

Province	Approved Projects	Approved Subsidies	Approved beneficiaries	Housing Delivery
Eastern Cape	480	302,729	256,092	288,231
Free State	724	169,350	150,414	161,250
Gauteng	1,188	1,191,754	483,166	592,457
Kwazulu-Natal	603	387,297	302,763	390,098
Limpopo	602	208,081	161,723	217,513
Mpumalanga	563	185,712	132,858	169,962
Northern Cape	277	54,949	41,714	49,145
North West	277	212,049	179,320	228,361
Western Cape	607	331,979	227,187	258,896
Total	5,321	3,043,900	1,935,147	2,355,913

Source: South African Department of Housing web, 2007

In terms of the above table, the housing delivery in the country seems satisfactory. The housing delivery in the Gauteng province does not seem to be as fast as in other provinces. Although there is satisfactory progress which suggests that there is at least delivery in the South African housing sector, this however cannot guarantee that the housing backlog can be dealt with successfully. The realities of housing provision in the country suggest that there is backlog since the houses delivered on annual basis are less than those required to address houseless citizens in South Africa. Housing delivery in the Gauteng Province may pose a serious threat because of the fact that there is a higher demand by both South Africans and other immigrants to make the Gauteng Province their home. Although the economic realities of the country do not warrant the needs for a high population in the Province, many people still prefer to be concentrated in the Gauteng province.

The impact of the country's immigration pattern on housing delivery

Crush, Williams and Peberdy (2005, 12-13) indicate that the identification of undocumented or illegal immigrants in South Africa is difficult to do, since estimates as from the mid 1990s ranged from 3.5 million to 8 million to some as low as half a million. It is common knowledge that because of irregular and corrupt practices in the Home Affairs Department that it will be difficult to conclude the precise number of illegal immigrants in the country, especially of those whose presence is genuine but have fraudulently obtained documents from the Home Affairs Officials. Regarding this matter, Tsheola (2007:76) argues that in reality the assertions that illegal or undocumented immigrants cause the social and economic problems experienced currently by South Africa cannot be sufficiently verified and validated through empirical evidence and reasoning. It is therefore, difficult to determine the impact of the illegal immigrants in the housing sector of the country while the estimated figures are apparently incorrect.

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Pelser in Adler and Glen (2003, 29-343) argues that while figures of illegal immigrants in the country differ between one million and twelve million, the likely realistic figure is between three and five million; because if it is estimated at twelve million it means that one in four South Africans is an illegal immigrant and that is not practically correct. In some instances figures may not be correct. Their accuracy depends on the reliability of the sources from which such figures are obtained. Research in this instance is either obtained from the Department of Home Affairs, the Human Science Research Council (HSRC), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's) such as the Mosongulo Project and the South African Police Service (SAPS) statistics based on the repatriation of illegal immigrants. Despite these different sources of information on illegal immigrants statistics, Solomon (2000, 10) argues the same organizations (SAPS, HSRC and the Department of Home Affairs) have a tendency of arriving at the same conclusion about the low skills possessed by the illegal immigrants which ultimately increase South Africa's developmental problems. While it is argued that the academics and the policy makers are divided as to whether the presence of illegal immigrants hold positive or negative consequences for South Africa, reality dictates that negative consequences are experienced and hence the inflow into the country is often curbed through repatriation processes for illegal aliens.

Table 2: Repatriation of illegal immigrants, 1989-1999

1989	1991	1993	1995	1999
51.529	61.334	96.554	157,084	183,861

Source: Adler and Glen (2003)

The above table indicates that the number of immigrants has been increasing on an annual basis from 1989 to 1999. Pelser in Adler and Glen (2003) collected data from different sources and different annual repatriation statistics to demonstrate the unfolding pattern of illegal immigration into South Africa. The table does, however, indicate two year gaps between the years (1989-1993) of repatriation and a four year gap between the years (1995-1999). The figures also indicate that prior to the emergence of the democratic South Africa, the rates increased from 10 000 to at least 30 000 between 1989 and 1993 respectively. That indicates that after the democratic South Africa, illegal immigrants felt safe and increased their entry by more than 100 000. The 1999 figure indicates that the repatriation trend increased substantially as compared to the previous years. It is from (1993-1999) where repatriation figures have substantially increased. This could be an indication that the democratic South Africa may be seen to have abrogated their border control responsibilities to the extent that illegal immigrants do not consider it a crime to stay in South Africa illegally or simply the South African government's inability to deal effectively with the influx of illegal immigrants in the country.

However, it is agued that the presence of the illegal immigrants in the country cannot be claimed to have an impact on developmental issues of the South African government, because of the lack of verified data and empirical findings in that regard. Logic should however dictate that, since most of the illegal immigrants are said to possess low educational skills, they can therefore not be accommodated in the formal employment sector of the South African industries and Institutions. They can only join the informal sector of employment of the country which is only occupied by the poor class who cannot afford formal housing on their own. Most South Africans employed in the informal employment activities such as agriculture and informal business activities, such as roadside selling, cannot afford formal housing and are therefore those that the government should build houses for. Most of them stay in the informal settlements in which no permission was granted for settlement by the South African authorities such as the municipalities and any residents may put their squatter camps there.

The situation itself gives the illegal immigrants the opportunity to put up their shacks there too and so when a passerby sees the number of those shacks in the Gauteng Province, will conclude that the ruling party is not delivering houses to the poor, without being aware that most of the standing shacks might belong to illegal immigrants. The assertion that the immigration pattern in South Africa may not have an impact on the economic and social development of the country cannot be accepted at this stage as practical realities in fact indicate that there is such an impact. The issue cannot be argued on the basis of data that is reliable or not. It can be argued that whether the figures are based on repatriation data from the South African Police Services or the Department of Home Affairs or independent researchers and Non Governmental Organisations, the reality is that in terms of housing provision, indeed the illegal immigrants add to the lack of or immediate solutions to housing delivery in South Africa.

CONCLUSION

This article focused on various issues pertaining to South Africa's housing problems. These issues involve, among other things, the impact of the draconian apartheid policies on housing provision in the country, gender bias and the impact of the immigration pattern in the country, as well as how these affect the housing problems in the country. The article also places on the housing provision agenda the question whether failure to deal with the immigration pattern, especially with regard to low skilled individuals from neighbouring countries will ever end the problem of the housing shortage. The lack of scientifically verifiable and empirical data as to how illegal immigrants from neighbouring countries, especially low skilled ones, impact on South Africa's developmental problems is a major concern as practical realities show how they add to squatter camping and farm housing problems. This article therefore poses as a challenge the need for research focused on the impact of the illegal immigrants on the housing delivery sector of South Africa.

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ENHANCING ETHICS, TRANSPARENCY AND ACCOUNTABILITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

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Abstract

The consequences of corruption in the Republic of South Africa have seriously inhibited the development of the national economy and have significantly constrained good governance. Public officials have been appointed to serve members of the public and not to promote their own personal interest. Public services globally are characterised by allegations of unethical behaviour, lack of transparency and accountability – and the South African public service is no exception. Although corruption is harmful to government, it is still evident in this second decade of democracy in South Africa. Corruption fundamentally runs contrary to accountability, transparency and the rule of law because it undermines good governance, diminishes public trust in the credibility of government and threatens the ethics of the state and society. Furthermore there is a general concern that if the problems of secrecy, unethical behaviour, lack of commitment to the public service will continue, corruption will continue to paralyse the government. The 1994 South African Constitution introduced one of the world's most compelled democracies. It revolves around executive accountability to the legislature, an independent judiciary, and decentralised governance within a unitary state. This is in tune with a more worldwide view that tackling corruption is perplexingly linked to increased transparency and accountability founded on a transition to democracy. Therefore this article will consider the roles of ethics, transparency and accountability as essential elements of good governance. It will also look at statutory and regulatory framework for enhancing transparency and accountability as well as ethical conduct in the South African public service. This article will also look at the impact of corruption on good governance.

INTRODUCTION

Various authors for example (Mafunisa 2000) and (Pillay 2004), argue that keeping public activities secret, poses a danger to the perpetuation of democracy, because it limits community participation. The community has a right to being informed about the activities of the public sector so that the actions of the public officials can be evaluated without injustice. South Africa is rapidly learning that unethical behaviour, lack of transparency and accountability and corruption is one of the major impediments to effective developments.

Governance in simpler terms can be defined as the constitutional, legal and administrative arrangements by which a government exercises its power, as well as the related mechanisms for public accountability, rule of law, transparency and citizen participation. The World Bank prefers to draw a distinction between elements of good governance and the specific areas of action, for example: public sector management in which such elements could be promoted or their existence enhanced. Accordingly, four basic elements of good governance were identified namely: accountability, participation, predictability and transparency (Van der Walt 2004). These elements of governance tend to be mutually supportive and reinforcing. Accountability he argues is often related to participation and is also the ultimate safeguard of predictability and transparency (Van der Walt 2004).

The contemporary call for fundamental revision of openness and transparency in government institutions is a world wide phenomenon as is evidenced by current literature as well as by the agendas of *inter alia* national and international conferences on the administrative sciences.

TRANSFORMING TO GOOD GOVENRNANCE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

Resulting from an academic argument, the problem of corruption has captured all the minds of all South Africans that are committed to good governance. Since governance is the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented, an analysis of governance focuses on the formal and informal actors involved. Therefore, decision-making and implementing the decisions made and the formal and informal structures that have to be set in place to arrive at and implement the decision. Good governance has eight major characteristics. It is participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law. It assures that corruption is minimized, the views of minorities are taken into account and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard in decision-making. It is also responsive to the present and future needs of society. The following discussion will throw more light on some of those characteristics.

Transparency refers to the availability to the public of information on the transactions of the government and the transparency of decision –making processes. Transparency involves ready access to reliable, comprehensive, timely, understandable and internationally comparable information on government activities and is necessary for sound government and good governance. Governance implicitly guarantees the civil and human rights needed for effective ethical government and the information flows that enable the members of society to be informed on government activities. Two interrelated issues are innate in this phenomenon: The nature of information and the use of that information, and the latter is largely dependent on the former. The general experience with regard to the nature of information is that much information is provided to the public and the legislature. Moreover, even when information is available and clear, members of the community may prefer not to voice their grievances and may prefer to 'exit' because of uncertainty about alternatives. According to Peter Richardson, a board member of Transparency International, a corruption-fighting organisation in (Johnson 2002), 'high levels of corruption are no longer regarded as inevitable and there is now consensus that corrupt behaviour reduces economic growth and can destabilise governments.

Corruption erodes respect for the law and deters honest people from entering public service. It results in over-invoicing and substandard work by contractors and reduces tax revenues. Richardson adds that corruption also undercuts environmental regulations and building code regulations, discourages foreign direct investment in developing countries, and facilitates other crimes, such as drug trafficking. Non-transparent practices tend to be destabilising, to create distortions and to exacerbate inequalities. These adverse repercussions may not be apparent in the near term, but they may surface later in the form of a crisis, requiring much costlier remedial action. In recent years, many International Monetary Fund countries have made major progress toward fiscal transparency, although some still have non-transparent fiscal systems. Corruption and unethical conduct has been and is still prevalent in the public sector of South Africa. The mismanagement of state money, or the money of the taxpayer, is a serious crime against the community in a democratic state and it is well known what the devastating implication of a corrupt government can have on the citizens of a state. The improper enrichment of officials is, however, not the only concern regarding corruption – unlawful or unethical abuse of authority that goes hand in hand with it. This means that the act of bribery and the misuse of money are an abuse of authority as well as of money (Fox 1995).

Stewart (*in* Hondeghem, 1998) writes that *'public accountability'* rests both on giving an account and on being held to account". Therefore public officials should be accountable to their immediate superiors, the political leadership and the public at large. It can also be argued that accountability is one of the fundamental prerequisites for the prevention of abuse of power and for ensuring that power is directed towards the accomplishment of effectiveness, responsiveness and transparency. Open, transparent and accountable government is an essential requirement for community- public service delivery because without it unseen unethical behaviour will result. Therefore it is important that the co-ordination of the efforts of all sectors that check unethical behaviour will strengthen the

fight against unethical public service behaviour in particular and public sector corruption in general and the promotion of good governance. However for these efforts to be successful tools for good governance must be implemented and the watchdog bodies' superordinate officials must 'walk their talk'. The following section will discuss statutory and regulatory framework that enhances ethical conduct and good governance. This is so because legislation is an imperative measure to ensure a robust public sector.

STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK ON ENHANCING TRANSPARENCY, ACCOUNTABILITY AND ETHICAL CONDUCT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE.

Various mechanisms can be employed to fight and prevent corruption and to enhance ethics, transparency and accountability in the South African public service.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

In South Africa, the Constitution of 1996(Act 108 of 1996), has provided a key instrument for the South African public service to address the plague of unethical conduct, not being transparent and accountable as well as corruption. This reflects the overall commitment to greater openness, transparency and accountability. Section 181 of the 1996 Constitution provides for state institutions supporting constitutional democracy. These institutions are the Public Protector, the Human Rights Commission, the Commission for the Promotion and Protection of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities; the Commission for gender Equality; the Auditor-General and the Electoral Commission and only be discussed in the next section.

These institutions not only keep communities and public servants aware of their responsibilities and accountabilities, they also promote a democratic culture (Mafunisa 2004). Active citizen participation is an essential ingredient in any democratic dispensation because it ensures that the public officials serve the general welfare of society rather than pursuing their own interests (Auriacombe 1999). According to Wessels and Pauw (*in* Pillay 2004), the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, thus provides a rich store of ethical substance to update and guide public officials. It does this by stating the democratic model, by indicating the core values underlying that model by ensuring the rights of people and by setting certain key requirements for the conduct of public administration.The Constitution sets out nine principles which should govern the Public Service. For the purpose of this paper only three will be mentioned because of their relevance, and they are as follows:

- A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.
- Public administration must be accountable.
- Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information.

These values and principles as sets out in section 195 (1) of Chapter 10 of the Constitution, are key elements of every democratic society. In 1997 a new code of conduct for South African public servants was approved in terms of *Government Notice* R.825 (see Chapter M of the Public Service Regulations, Government Gazette 18065). This code of conduct is released under the new democratic dispensation and is certainly a step in the right direction to ensuring a 'corruption-free' public service. The public rely on, without a doubt, expect from public officials to perform their duties honestly, openly and transparently. However, when public servants start to regard a public office for personal gain, then the public has every right to be upset. It is therefore important that a code of ethics exists to keep public officials on their toes.

A code of ethical conduct will be discussed in another section of the paper as only one of many methods of ensuring that public officials stick to exemplary behaviour expected from an official who has been placed in a position of trust. It is essential for all citizens to participate actively in promoting professional ethics in the public service by making the effort to remain informed of what is taking place in the governance of their community, society or country in order to react when there is unethical conduct. Citizens should demand accountability from public officials on all levels (spheres) of government (Cloete 1996). Every member of the public has a role to play in demanding accountability. Where a public official is allowed to ignore the criticism of the citizens and the official persists in acting independently without any sense of accountability to anyone or any institution, the public should act speedily to bring that official back on track, or otherwise demand their discharge or resignation. This applies to both political office-bearers and public officials because no official is a law unto him- or herself.

The 1996 Constitution (Section 195(1)), states that South Africa's public administration has to be 'transparent'. Openness and transparency usually go hand in hand. However, in South Africa presently it seems that transparency is only meant for a chosen few although constitutionally it was meant for all. "In fact, there are indications that they are fizzling out and that some institutions are so closed and opaque that they have to be prised open with a crowbar" (Hilliard and Binza 1997). It is possible that openness and transparency could ultimately only become worn-out clichés in the 'new' South Africa and may confine participatory democracy only to the cream of the crop, instead of dishing out a liberal dash thereof to all citizens because they show up the flaws and weaknesses of the government.

Access to information Act

The Act proposes to encourage open and accountable administration at all levels of government. According to (Cloete and Auriacombe 2007), the Act gives results to Section 32 of the Constitution. It is aimed at the reasonable protection of privacy, commercial confidentiality and effective, efficient and good governance in a manner that balances the right of access to information with any other rights in the Bill of right of access to information with any other rights in the Bill of Rights in Chapter 2 of the

Constitution. The Act also promotes transparency, accountability and effective governance of all public and private bodies by empowering and educating everyone to understand their rights in terms of the Act, to understand the functions and operation of public bodies and to effectively analyse, and participate in, decision-making by public bodies that affects their rights.

They are also of the opinion that despite comprehensive arrangements to promote transparency and access to information, the system is extremely rigid, cumbersome and difficult to implement as a result of the many formal procedures prescribed in the Act. It is easy to conclude that transparency runs the risk of being stifled rather than promoted as a result of this legislation. Roberts (*in* Cloete & Auriacombe 2007) argues, that the fact that a legislative framework exists to achieve these aspects does not mean that the right of access to information will automatically be in practiced. She further poses that the decisive requirements for the success of transparency in practice is that the legislative provisions should be implemented through certain mechanisms in practice, based on key requirements such as the training of information officers, political support, the raising of public awareness, an effective and efficient record-keeping system, adequate funding and monitoring of the relevant access to information legislation. The execution of the POAIA, as well as the legislation itself, should be monitored and evaluated continuously in order to identify and resolve shortcomings timorously.

The Protected Disclosures Act

 The Act provides for procedures in terms of which employees in both the public and private sector may reveal information regarding illicit or irregular conduct by their employers or other employees for example corruption, maladministration, or the infringement of a law. The Act protects employees from being subjected to occupational damage on account of having made a disclosure that is protected in terms of the Act for, example suspicion of criminal offences, failure to comply with legal obligations and a sound belief that the health or safety of an individual has been, is being or is likely to be endangered. Camerer (*in* Cloete & Auriacombe 2007), explains that employees making such a disclosure are protected from occupational detriment like being subjected to disciplinary action, dismissed, suspended, demoted, harassed, intimidated, transferred against his her will, refused transfer or promotion, or otherwise adversely affected in respect of is or her employment, profession or office, including employment opportunities and work security. The Act thus prohibits an employer from subjecting an employee to an occupational detriment on account of having made a protected disclosure.

The Promotion of Administrative Justice Act

This Act gives effect to the right to administrative action that is lawful, rational and procedurally fair and to the right to written reasons for administrative action as contemplated in Section 33 of the Constitution. It supplements the previous two pieces of legislation and codifies administrative common law in South Africa for the first time (Cloete & Auriacombe 2007).

White paper on Transformation of the Public Service 1997

The White paper on transformation of the public service, 1997 was introduced to provide a policy framework and practical implementation strategies for public-service delivery transformation. The policy enhanced the government's intention to adopt a citizen-oriented approach to service-delivery. Chapter 11 of the White paper on transformation, required among other things to improve practices that promote good governance (Pillay 2004).

The Batho Pele Principles

The eight Batho Pele principles were developed to serve as adequate policy and legislative framework regarding service delivery in the public service. It is a Sesotho saying meaning: "The people first". In the promotion and maintenance of high standards of professional ethics and rendering an accountable, transparent, and development-oriented public administration, all attempts at serving the community should be checked against the principles of Batho Pele. For the purpose of this article only the principles of relevance will be discussed, which are:

- **Access.** Access to information empowers citizens and creates value for money, quality services. It is important then that all citizens have equal access to information and services.
- **Courtesy.** All citizens must be treated with courtesy.
- **Information.** Communities should be informed about the public services they are permitted to.
- **Openness and transparency.** A very important aspect of openness and transparency is that the public should be informed about the way national, provincial and local government institutions operate, how well they utilise the resources they consume, and who is in charge.
- **Redress.** This principle emphasises a need to recognize quickly and precisely when services are falling below the promised standard and to have measures in place to remedy the situation.

The accomplishments of Batho Pele will depend on how well it is implemented in the public service as well as by the progress made in efforts to alter the public service. Many South Africans are still unsophisticated in their understanding of political and other matters and information-wise openness and transparency could mean much to them, especially those who are isolated and living in the secluded rural areas where the traditional tribal governmental systems are still in place.

INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR ENHANCING ETHICS, TRANSPARENCY AND ACCOUNTABILITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

The Auditor General

The function of the Auditor-General is to audit the accounts of governments at all levels and therefore to provide independent control over the financial activities of the executive. The office of the Auditor-General conducts forensic- and performance auditing of large scale corruption involving government departments (Webb 2005).In a recent report, the Auditor General noted that serious problems were being experienced with the merger and rationalisation of the administrations of the former TBVC states. This included structural problems related to accountability as well as financial mismanagement made worse by lack of technical expertise (Kroukamp 2006).

The Auditor-General is increasingly concerned about weak financial management in government institutions.

The Public Protector

The Public Protector appointed in terms of the Public Protector Act of 1994 and the South African Institution Act of1993 is empowered to investigate the following:
- maladministration involving the affairs of the state at any level;
- the abuse or unjustifiable exercise of the power, improper conduct, or undue delay by a person performing a public function;
- an improper or dishonest act, omission, or corruption with respect to public money ;and
- improper or unlawful enrichment or receipt of any improper advantage by a person as a result of an act or commission in the public administration or in connection with government affairs.

The Public Protector is concerned with maladministration in the broader sense rather than the investigation of crime (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2000). In the recent years major efforts has been made by these organisations to combat and unethical behaviour and corruption. However, it is not enough to deal with the corruption rate. In addition to the attempts made by the country to combat corruption and to promote good governance, the President of the republic of South Africa, in his opening

speech to the International Anti-corruption Summit Conference in Durban (1998), deliberated on a professional framework for consideration among managers.
The following were projected:

- that ethics in the workplace should be reinforced urgently as a new cultural quality of the public service;

- that political will and a shared commitment should inform the reinforcement process;

- that transparency and accountability should be given their rightful place;

- the rules of procedure should be clearly articulated;

- that the practice of "whistle blowing" should be institutionalised;

- that misconduct should always be subjected to disciplinary sanctions;

- that integrity training and ethics education should receive priority; and

- that the public interest should be put first.

The above interim framework was offered to eliminate corruption and malpractice in the South African public service (Pillay 2004).

A code of ethics for public officials

A code of ethics can be described as **"**an instrument which not only identifies unacceptable conduct but also identifies and encourages conduct. The objective of a code of ethics is to show officials and the public in ambiguous terms what is regarded as acceptable (Barrie 1994). Moreover Clapper (1996) mentions that a code of ethics will steer the personal morality and competence of the public official into a Public service goal oriented direction.
Hanekom (in Mafunisa 2000) states that it is important for the government, as an employer, to begin the process of educating and training people in order to ensure that they behave accordingly. He further mentions that a code of ethics has the following objectives:
- promoting and maintaining the responsible conduct of public officials;

- promoting public trust and the integrity of public officials;

- providing guidelines for the public officials in their relationships with fellow public officials, elected political office-bearers, and with members of the public; and

- providing guidelines for public officials in exercising the discretionary powers they may have.

If the public officials do not have a code of ethics according to which their actions are led, directed and guided, the result would probably be as catastrophic, as when power and authority are delegated without enforcing accountability. In addition to the above, "ethics must be seen as an ongoing activity and not as a status to be attained. Ethics is not just establishing a set of rules or a code of conduct but are an ongoing process that underpins the work of government" (Hondeghem 1998). Another possible remedy to combat inaccountable, untransparent and unethical conduct in the South African public service is *whistle blowing***.**

"Whistle blowers sound an alarm from within the very organisation from which hey work, aiming to spotlight neglect or abuses that threaten the public interest"(Bok 1981). In simpler terms whistle blowing is an overt operation and concerns making the public aware about a public official who acts on his/her own accord; therefore it concerns about complaining about other public officials. Therefore if the right ethical values and behaviour had been instilled in the public official, then whistle blowing can be a useful measure that can be used by the government in its fight against corruption (which is contrary to transparency, accountability and ethics).

IMPACT OF CORRUPTION ON GOOD GOVERNANCE

"Corruption refers to immoral, deprived or dishonest practices of persons" (Mafunisa, 2000). In simpler terms, it is the abuse of public funds and the failure of public trust. Corruption exists in different spheres, including, political, legal, economical and social, and also have different forms. Corruption is damaging to government and will subsequently hamper good governance, especially in South Africa because it is a developing country with fewer resources. Once it affects the bloodstream of any public institution, it causes severe damage to public morals. Consequently people end up losing faith in the integrity of public administration (Mafunisa: 2000). He also poses that it will eventually destroy public credibility and institutional effectiveness. It is therefore very important that democracy, good governance, and the respect for human dignity form part of the nature and culture of South Africans (Pillay: 2004). However, the principles of a democratic state and good governance cannot be sustained without a secure and steady environment and sustainability in a globalised economy is primary among the characteristics required of a nation that wishes to prosper.

CONCLUSION

Public accountability, transparency and an ethical public service strengthens the enabling environment for development. To enhance good governance, the government should strengthen citizen participation. Pope, (*in* Mafunisa, 2004) is of the opinion that an informed citizenry, aware of its rights and asserting them confidently, is a vital underpinning to a national integrity system. According to (Hillard 1998) and (Kemp 1998), the public should exercise, if necessary demand, their right to know; after all, any taxpayer has the right to know how and where his or her taxes have been spent, or for that

matter misspent. Whenever the public senses that the government wants to hide something from public purview, the alarm bells should be sounded by the whistle-blowers. To achieve this degree of vigilance, one needs a wide-awake public who are not easily intimidated and who are prepared to speak out where any wrongdoing is noted or when a public functionary steps out of line.

In the background of good public administration and governance, the main aims of the South African public service should be to advance the investigation and prosecution of corruption, rationalising the agencies combating corruption, reviewing present legislation as well as improving management systems and disciplines at all levels of government. In conclusion, an ethical code of conduct, the adherence to public accountability, transparency and the rule of law and appropriate legislature can make a difference in the ethical dilemmas of the public service. This can lead to the promotion of a positive reflection of the public service.

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