FROM BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES TO PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN BASIC SERVICES DELIVERY AT MUNICIPAL LEVEL IN SOUTH AFRICA: USING EKURHULENI METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY AS A CASE

Dr. Calvin Naidoo
UNISA Graduate School of Business Management
Pretoria, South Africa
E-mail: calvin.naidoo@ekurhuleni.gov.za

Prof. RR Ramphal
UNISA Graduate School of Business Management
Pretoria, South Africa
E-mail: ramphrr@unisa.ac.za

ABSTRACT

Batho Pele principles were introduced in South Africa to enhance community participation in developmental local governments for improved service delivery. Yet, 22 years into post-apartheid democracy, there is still a lot to be desired in the country. The purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of these principles in Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality in Gauteng province. Quantitative survey data was collected from a stratified random sample of 1429 respondents, comprising four different respondent groups of 899 (63%), 214 (15%), 208 (15%) and 108 (7%) citizens, businesses, managers and ward committee members (WCMs) respectively. Factor analysis and structural equation modelling were employed to analyse the data. It was found that the implementation of the Batho Pele principles is slow but they are positively correlated with effective municipal service delivery. The training of people including all stakeholders on Batho Pele principles should be intensified.

Keywords: Public Participation, Service Delivery, Accountability and Transparency, Communication, people centeredness, Power Struggles, Gender Representation, Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality, South Africa

1. INTRODUCTION

In order for government to strengthen its plans to create a better life for all citizens in South Africa, it introduced Batho Pele principles to serve as the acceptable policy and legislative framework for service delivery (service delivery) in the public service (Ababio, 2004). These principles are aligned with the constitutional ideals of promoting and maintaining high standards of professional ethics; providing service impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias; utilising resources efficiently and effectively; responding to people's needs; including citizens in policy-making; and rendering an accountable, transparent and development-oriented public administration.

South Africa is a constitutional democracy with a three-tier system of government, which are the national, provincial and local governments for implementation and an independent judiciary. The three arms work together based on the strong principle of intergovernmental relations in the execution of their mandates, powers and functions. All three arms of government have legislative and executive authority in their own spheres and are defined in the Constitution as "distinctive, interdependent and interrelated". National and provincial governments are primarily responsible for initiating and formulating policy while local government operationalises the policy and transforms it into tangible services. Today, local governments are facing challenges in meeting their mandate of providing basic services that meet the communities' expectations (Barnes et al., 2008; Chuene, 2012; Bhardwaj, 2016), as well as adhering to the Batho Pele principles. Twenty-two years into post-apartheid democracy in South Africa, the provision of water, electricity, sanitation, and other such services is still beset by

massive backlogs, resulting in persistent service delivery protests, often characterised by violent destruction of public property. One major reason for such protests is the exclusion or inadequate participation of the society to be served by the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) process, which results in dissatisfaction with services (such as running water and sanitation, electricity, roads, housing and schools) (Pilietinės, 2011; Petukienė, 2010; Viešasis & Smalskys, 2010; Hewlet, 2009; Eikenberry, 2009). Pillay, Tomlinson and Du Toit (2006) state that the participatory process is ineffective. This study was intended to assess the effectiveness of the Batho Pele principles framework in optimising public participation for effective municipal service delivery in Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality in Gauteng province, South Africa. The research question was: Are the Batho Pele principles effective? What are the factors that should optimise public participation for effective service delivery in Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) in Gauteng province?

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The public participation process

According to Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (2001) (DWAF), the process of public participation must involve five stages as shown in figure 1.

Referring to the figure, the public must be informed about community concerns, problems, alternatives and possible solutions; consulted on these issues and concerns, and given feedback on how the public input has influenced decisions; the community must be directly involved to ensure that issues and concerns are understood and considered; collaboration is necessary and the community must be empowered to ensure that the decisions taken by the municipal council are easily accepted by the community. According to the World Bank (in DWAF, 2001), the community can participate in three different ways, namely, passive participation, consultative participation and interactive participation. "Interactive participation" is key when a municipality intends to share a mutually beneficial rapport with both the community and local political structures (South Africa, 1996) and when it tries to build a shared developmental vision and to set communal goals.

Local government consists of municipalities, which are governed by municipal councils and it is mandated by provincial government to carry out a prescribed legislation and to implement public participation (as a mandatory requirement). A local government mayor may communicate directly with the public. Ward committees are meant to encourage public participation and to make municipal councils aware of the needs and concerns of the public, as well as keep people well informed of the activities of municipal councils (SALGA, 2011; Paradza, Mokwena &
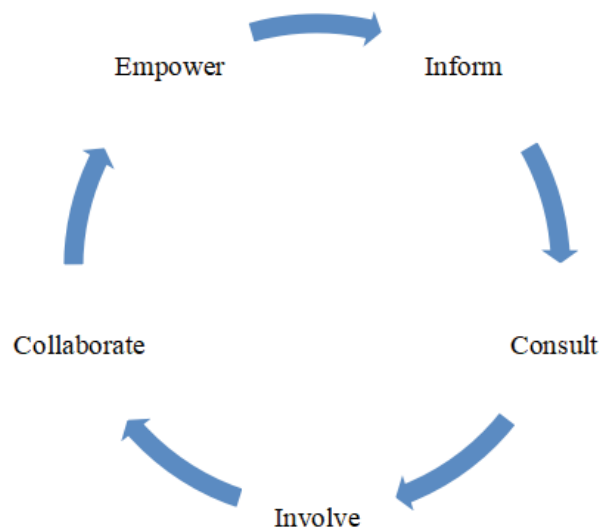

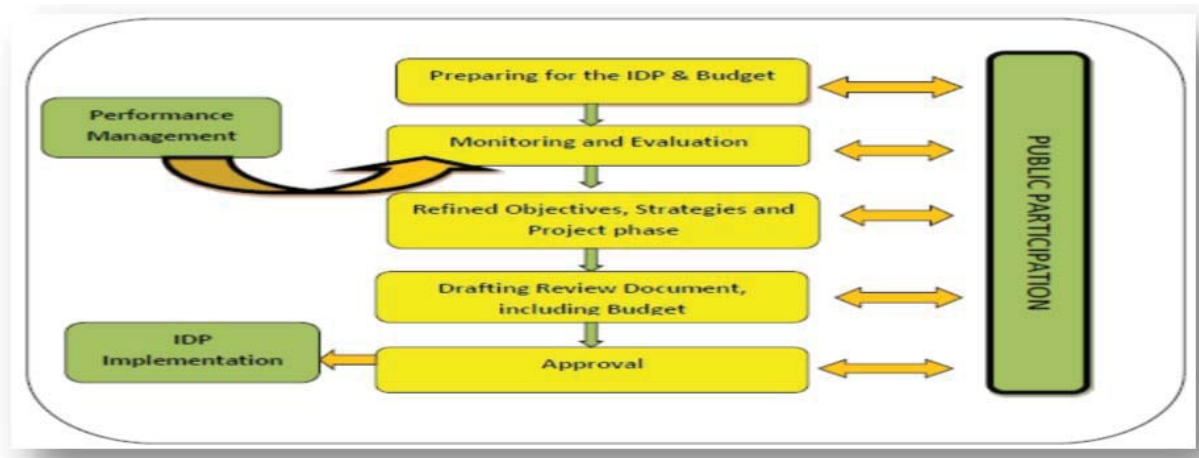**FIGURE 1: PUBLIC PARTICIPATION SOURCE: DWAF, 2001**

FIGURE 2: IDP PROCESS
SOURCE: DPLG, 2007

Richard, 2010). Municipalities implement the IDP process as shown in figure 2 (see CSIR, 2004) and must ensure that available resources are optimally utilised to promote sustainable economic and social development with the focus on viable service delivery. The value of IDP for municipalities is embedded in the formulation of focused plans that are based on developmental priorities (see Mojapelo, 2007).

The figure clearly shows that consultation must occur at every step as the participation process is envisaged to address internal and external circumstances that have an impact on the priority issues, objectives, strategies, projects and programmes of integrated planning. Figure 3 shows the interdependency between the social actors.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study was underpinned by five theories as follows:

2.2.1 Systems theory

With this theory, we view an organisation (such as the EMM) as a social system composed of subsystems which interact with one another in a holistic way. A simplistic model is to view the system in terms of inputs, throughputs and outcomes (refer to figure 4). The inputs could result from answering the question: where are we now? This would require knowledge of the basic resources and needs of the community which the local authority is providing, namely, services such as water, electricity, sanitation, infrastructure, land and housing. In addition, it requires the input of various community groups working via elected officials and hence it is political in nature. The throughputs involve the various processes

FIGURE 3: MUNICIPAL SERVICE DELIVERY PROCESS SOURCE: AUTHOR

250

involved in answering the question: how do we get to our vision of effective service delivery? Hence, the influence of the various constructs involved in service delivery need to be transformed into a whole during this process. Finally, the outputs involve the answer to the future question of effective service delivery, implying that the input is the phase where outputs such as performance in service delivery need to be determined. From these outputs one can again obtain feedback to the inputs in order to improve the functioning of the system as a whole.

To obtain stakeholder participation in a collaborative way, the researcher suggests that the throughput process should consist of the following factors: public participation, accountability and transparency, people centredness, effective communication, knowledge and social background, power struggles, and gender representation. This social system does not operate in a vacuum but takes place in an environment where various stakeholder groups including central government, citizens, businesses, policing authorities, health authorities, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), pressure groups, employees, councillors and the media are involved. In addition to these groups there are social norms and various role expectations associated with formal organisations, such as local authorities which must have been established for a specific purpose such as service delivery (see figure 5).

Although the various groups involved in the throughput process are shown separately, they should be considered as a subsystem that operates as a whole socio-cultural system. All the groups occur within an environment where social and economic forces have an impact on the system and, hence, should not be viewed as separate entities. The researcher thus views the **Input-Throughput-Output** model as a model, which is in a dynamic relationship with its environment,
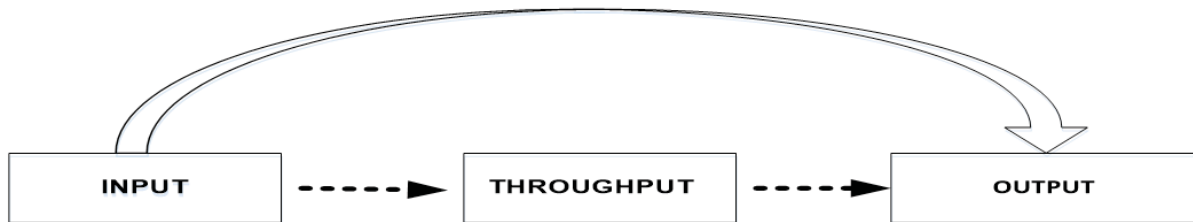

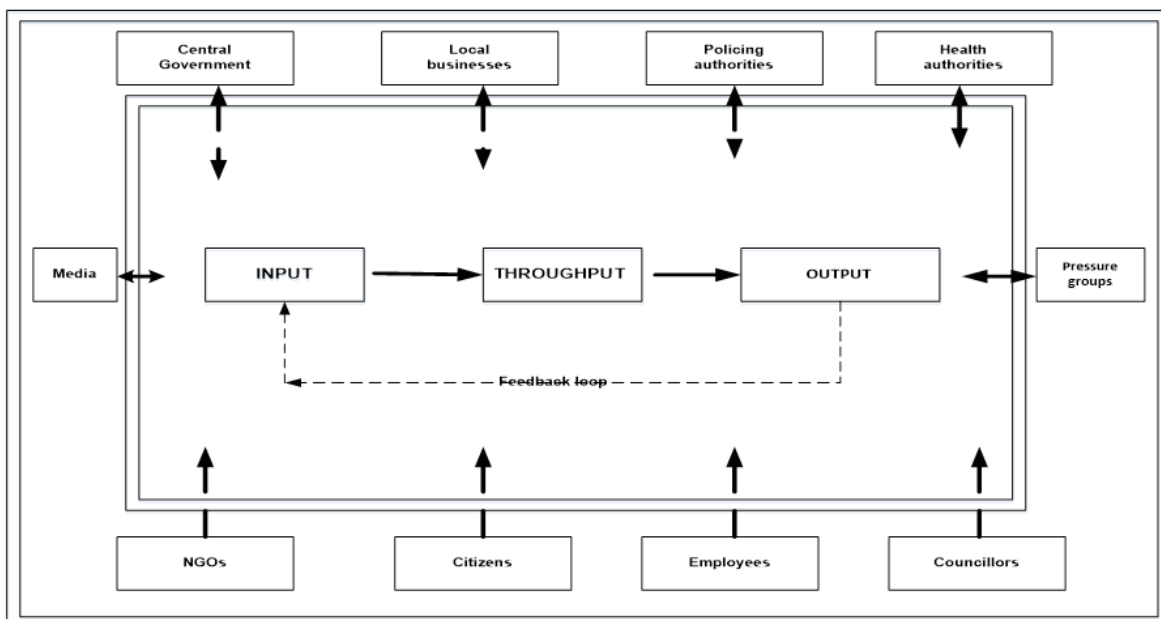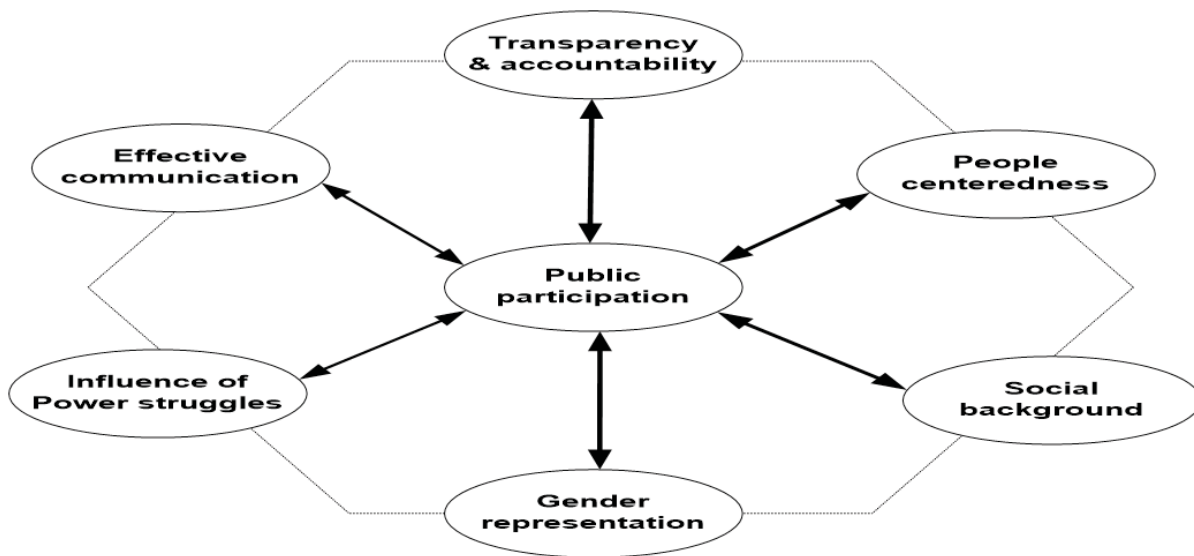**FIGURE 4: THE DIRECT EFFECT OF INPUT TO OUTPUT**
SOURCE: AUTHORS

FIGURE 5: VARIOUS STAKEHOLDER GROUPS INFLUENCING THE SERVICE DELIVERY PROCESSES
SOURCE: LOOCK, GROBLER & MESTRY, 2006

251

FIGURE 6: THE VARIOUS FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE TRANSFORMATION OR THROUGHPUT PROCESS
SOURCE: AUTHORS

and, when it receives inputs, it transforms them and exports them as outputs of some kind. The various factors that play a part in this transformation process are shown in figure 6.

These various factors probably correlate with one another, but causal influences may not be non-recursive (Arbuckle, 2007). It is thus possible that public participation has a direct influence on some of these factors and an indirect influence on others such as transparency and accountability and effective communication.

2.2.2 Participation epistemology

Participation epistemology is a theory of knowledge, which holds that meaning is enacted through the participation of the human mind. This suggests that the true meaning of something like service delivery comes only via participation. Hence, public participation is crucial to effective IDPs.

2.2.3 Stakeholder's engagement theory

Stakeholder's engagement theory (Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997; Rowley, 1997; Frooman, 1999) has been developed and adopted as a means of management by many market-based organisations. According to Kerlinger (2002), stakeholder engagement is a process in which an organisation involves those who are affected by the decisions which it makes. For effective stakeholder engagement, the organisation uses certain principles, which come from both the private and public sectors. The main idea, and the first principle, is to develop an assertive understanding of the stakeholders of the organisation, what the stakeholders care about and in what way they should relate to the goal of the organisation. The organisation must know about the stakeholders, their complexity and their scope. For effective engagement (Bovaird & Downe, 2008; Norris, 2001), the enterprise-wide programmes in the organisation need a comprehensive scan in order to identify the stakeholders with their needs and interests. Stakeholders must be engaged as early as possible for nobody likes a sudden change in their entity (Hemson, 2007). The enterprise-wide management must deliver the final plan to the stakeholders, including the supply programmes, which should be developed among themselves. The second principle is to get stakeholders involved in the programme and to encourage them to participate continuously throughout the lifecycle of the programme (see Millan, 2001). The third principle is to listen with "both ears open" for if you are in a discussion with the stakeholders, they say what they are really thinking and they may be full of mistrust and sceptical towards the programme. They will not participate if you do not give them proper guidance and ways to improve the participatory process. You must be open-minded so the stakeholders will

252

continue participating. The fourth principle is to communicate often with stakeholders and for the organisation to have a good relationship with these stakeholders (Abraham & Platteau, 2004).

2.2.4 Public participation budgetary theory.

Stones (2001) argues that a good public participation budgetary practice helps governments to be more responsive and accountable. This can develop the people's perception of the performance of the government and the services they receive. Through the planning and budgeting entity, government undertakes to provide services for the public, looking at public participation as the process of voting, being involved in political meetings, running for office, attending public hearings, as well as reading newspapers and watching the news on television to get up-to-date information. Davids, Maphunye and Theron (2003) clarify that the government must know about the purposes for the involvement of the people, approaches to eliciting people participation and the points in planning the budgeting performance cycle to approach them effectively (see South Africa, 2006). It must also get information for the decision-making process and communicate with the people regarding the news collected by them and how it was used. Efforts should be made before a decision has been taken to test the various ideas and approaches proposed by the public. In addition, government must get the public involved in all meetings to keep them up to date.

2.2.5 Project integration theory

Project integration theory explains that project integration is a collection of the tasks needed to ensure that the elements of the projects are coordinated properly (Young, 2004). It involves competing objectives to exceed stakeholder requirements and expectations. Project management is necessary as a process of directing and coordinating the material and human resources (Dzansi & Dzans, 2010) of a project by using innovative and modern management techniques to achieve the set goals and the objectives of the scope, quality, participant satisfaction and so on. The project's task must be clearly defined and the efforts of the manager of the project can be directed and guided towards the effective and efficient use of the resources by

the public. To succeed in the process of targeting the goals of organisations, the organisational structure, leadership or motivation and communication are important.

2.3 Literature review

2.3.1 The Batho Pele principles

In 1994, the newly formed democratic Government of South Africa intended to be a people-centred one, with service delivery high on the agenda. Kuye (2006) argues that for the promised quality service delivery to be realised, the public service has to be transformed to include non-discriminatory policies and the reorganisation of structures. Maphunye (2002) adds that such transformation was necessary and obligatory to undo the systematic inequalities of the past in the provision of basic services. The government not only introduced new policies and legislation to promote equity and fairness, but also engaged initiatives such as public–private partnerships that would see the private sector joining hands with the public sector in the delivery of services. The idea was that such partnerships would lead to community pilot projects that would enhance service delivery (Russell & Bvuma, 2001) and would improve communication between government and communities through community consultation, as well as engage communities particularly in decision-making processes in matters that directly and indirectly affect them. Government also introduced Batho Pele principles, aligned to the Constitution, for government officials to follow. These include to be polite, open and transparent and to deliver good service to the public. Batho Pele, which means, "people first", is an initiative that was launched in 1997 to transform the public service at all levels to meet the developmental challenges facing the country. Ashworth, Boyne and Entwistle (2010) argue that although the introduction of new processes, systems, policies, practices and structures for improving service delivery may provide an early marker of improved outputs and outcomes, they may not necessarily be an indicator of organisational efficiency and effectiveness. If not properly implemented, monitored and evaluated, these changes can yield undesired results because it is all about doing things in the right way. Despite these changes in governance to address the anomalies of the past

and the change in certain communities being visible in some basic services, generally service delivery in local municipalities throughout the country is perceived to be proceeding slowly, minimal and not adequately visible.

This transformation of the public service came into effect in 1995 to address issues identified as, among others, low productivity, lack of administrative capacity particularly in management, lack of accountability and transparency, inefficient service delivery attributed partly to a lack of motivation of appointed officials and salaries that were not market-related, as well as lack of coherent labour relations and representivity (White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service, 1995). To satisfy citizens, the provision of services as the core business of government requires efficiency and effectiveness. The transformation of the public service from a racially based one to an all-inclusive one was accomplished through the enactment of legislation that promotes equity and fair treatment of all citizens and includes the Batho Pele principles.

What is Batho Pele principles?
Batho Pele is an approach used by government to get public servants committed to serving people and to find ways to improve service delivery. Municipal service delivery is guided by the eight Batho Pele principles, namely, Consultation, Service Standards, Access, Courtesy, Information, Openness and Transparency, Redress, and Value for Money. All stakeholders should be consulted on the nature, quantity and quality of services to be provided by the local government to determine the needs and expectations of the end users. Consultation can be done through customer surveys, campaigns, Izimbizo and workshops. The public should be told what level and quality of public services they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect, and to do this, government uses service charters, strategic plans, booklets with standards and service level agreements. Citizens should be treated with courtesy and consideration. This requires that tools, measurements and systems are put in place to effect customer care, customer care units and staff's right attitude. All citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled. This involves having decentralised

offices, working extended business hours, use of indigenous languages and sign language, the display of service charters, improved service delivery to physically, socially and culturally disadvantaged persons (including infrastructure), clear and helpful signage, and all frontline staff wearing name tags. Citizens should be given full, accurate information about the public services they are entitled to receive, using, for example, Braille and functional sign language, help desks, brochures, posters and the press. Information should be readily available at service points in various official languages. There should be weekly newsletters from the city managers, frontline staff training and induction training that should be made compulsory to all new employees. The public should be told how departments are run, how much they cost and who is in charge; they should know who the head of the unit is. The management must be transparent and open to all staff members, for example, appointment of new staff and regular staff meetings with management should be held regularly. To redress the inequalities of the past, a mechanism should be established for recording any public dissatisfaction, for example the use of a toll-free number, suggestion boxes and customer satisfaction questionnaires. Each unit must have a complaints-handling system in place and staff must be trained to handle complaints fast and efficiently. Public services should be provided economically and efficiently to give citizens the best possible value for money.

2.3.2 Public participation
In this study, public participation is defined as the process by which the public's needs, values and concerns are amalgamated into government and corporate decision-making. It is a two-way communication and interaction and the overall goal is for decisions to be reinforced and supported by the public. The following are the factors of public participation:

(1). **Transparency and accountability** (see Petukienė: 2010; Meng, 2008; Glaser, Yeager & Parker, 2008; Siebert, 2008; Eikenberry, 2009; Eicher, 2009; Kranacher, Riley & Wells, 2011; Hewlet, 2009; Duffy, Vince & Page, 2008; Warner & Hefetz, 2010; Barnes et al., 2008; Albrecht, Kohlrausch & Kubicek 2008; Parker et al., 2009; Urbinati & Warren, 2008; Cornwall, 2008;

Skidmore & Bound, 2008; Creasy, Gavelin & Potter, 2008). Transparency is about being easy to understand and being open, frank and honest in all communications, transactions and operations. It is possible to be perceived as being accountable by providing a lengthy and technical explanation of every detail, but if this information is not easily understood by the audience, and if key facts are hidden by the sheer volume of information, then the information is not presented in a transparent form (Petukienė, 2010; Meng, 2008). Countries suffer corruption, for example, due to a lack of effective anti-corruption policies, laws and "checks and balances" that fail to make officials more accountable to the public at large (UN, 2010; 2011). According to Glaser, Yeager and Parker (2006), ordinary people have no control over corruption because they are never given information or control over how the money in municipalities is spent. In his view on eradicating corruption and improving accountability in municipalities across the globe, Siebert (2008) highlights raising public awareness, which in the context of this study should integrate effective communication. Raising public awareness of the corrupt behaviours of municipal officials should be allied with the promotion of ethical values and mobilisation of public interest in dealing with issues of corruption (Eikenberry, 2009). This may include the utilisation of non-governmental monitoring, anticorruption hotlines and a general civic participation (Siebert, 2008; Transparency International, 2008). These approaches have proved effective in the former British colonies, as well as in developed and transitioning economies (Siebert, 2008; Bozeman, 2010). According to Siebert (2008) and Bozeman (2010), there is a need to respect the cultural values of the public when creating a positive public attitude towards constructive participation.

(2). **People-centredness** (Glaser, Yeager & Parker, 2008 Bozeman, 2010) allows the public more involved in municipal affairs (Homsy & Warner, 2014; Glaser et al., 2008). Glaser et al. (2008) note that the size of municipal territory has a direct impact on public participation in municipal service delivery. Bozeman (2010) asserts that smaller municipalities foster people-centred practices in public participation. Thus, in order to make the public more involved in municipal affairs,

elderships for example should be established to provide their services in small areas. Homsy and Warner (2014) note that Portugal, Bulgaria and Great Britain have specific historical names like quarters, parishes, city districts and villages, which have facilitated closer service delivery to the people and a stronger relationship between municipalities and communities, as more people gain the opportunity to visit a local branch to address affairs related to their residences (Glaser et al., 2008).

(3). **Effective communication** (Dudley, 2009; Lu, 2009; Gaventa & Valderrama, 1999; Mukandala, 1998; Mannor & Crook, 1998). Neuman (2003) explains that the communication process involves the flow of information from one place to another, and one person to another; it is an activity that takes place among many people to share information about planning, doubts and controlling. Communication scholars define the term "communication" as the activity by which people interact to create, manage and sustain the meaning of something. Parnell and Pieterse (2002) argue that it deals with how you plan, lead, love, persuade, control, understand and so on. The public should know what local government is doing and local government should know what is coming from the public (see Dudley, 2009; SALGA, 2011). Dudley (2009) states that across the world the communication gap between municipal governments and members of the public have potentially hindered economic success. In ward committees and villages in Africa, India and Latin America, communication skills are deemed necessary for effective participation at all levels; and as participatory processes becomes more complex, different types of skills, knowledge, experience, leadership and managerial capabilities are demanded (Gaventa & Valderrama 1999). In developing countries in particular, many participants and ward councillors from the grassroots level have very poor educational qualifications and hence find it difficult to make any meaningful contribution to discussions and decision-making. As Mukandela (1998:46) found, they have difficulty in comprehending discussions and technicalities, and are threatened by those who are more educated and self-confident. Mannor and Crook (1998) and Gaventa and Valderrama (1999) also

found that local authority officials lack planning and technical skills, as well as experience, which is another obstacle to meaningful participation for disadvantaged groups. Another contributing barrier to communication skills is language. Countries such as South Africa have many official languages because of having several tribes, castes and sects. South Africa itself has 11 official languages and most participants are comfortable communicating in their own dialects. This is one of the major factors/gaps that contribute to failed communication in the public participatory process. Government officials and the public do not understand each other, resulting in delays and, at times, officials misunderstand the public in the planning and implementation phases but continue with the process anyway, thinking all is well, only to find out later when all planning and implementation have been finalised, that it is not what the public agreed to. Hewlet (2009) and Weiner (2013) suggest that the contribution of different sectors and interest groups should be recognised as opposed to the politicisation of the participatory space. There should also be effective dissemination of information as well as budget allocation by the municipalities for consultation and capacity building to deal with the public participation challenges from various sources (Nyalunga, 2011). Moreover, the roles and responsibilities of the various stakeholders involved in the quest for development and participation must be defined (Nyalunga, 2011). Stakeholders should further ensure clear communication channels between municipalities and community-based structures (Nyalunga, 2011). According to Nyalunga (2011), to transform the relationship of mistrust that currently exists across the world's municipalities between participatory agents, there should be a free flow of information and encouragement of outreach programmes to the public. The author further suggests that nations facing inefficiencies in public participation in local government affairs should embrace public education and network building with the public and other stakeholders.

(4). **Power struggles** (Morgan 1997; Schonwalder, 1997; Gaventa & Valderrama, 1999; Mukandela: 1998; Abraham & Platteau, 2004; Morris & Staggenborg, 2004; Leopold & McDonald, 2012). Public participation is all about power to control.

Local government is also about power to control, therefore the question which comes to mind is "who has the legitimate powers?" From this question struggles arise. Public participation is about power and how it is exercised by different actors in society for interaction between citizens and local governments (see Schonwalder, 1997; Gaventa & Valderrama, 1999). According to Mukandela (1998), although there are norms for states such as South Africa, sometimes in community participation only influential people are invited to make decisions (Mukandela, 1998). In India and Zimbabwe, Gaventa and Valderrama (1999) explain that lower level powers of control are taken away from villages when meetings are called unannounced or when residents are either busy with work or out on other important matters. In Zimbabwe, certain powers were taken away from traditional structures and were given to high-level committees causing friction among traditional leaders and democratically elected leaders. In the South African context, power is supposedly associated with the educated and the elite members of society such that if you have no or little education you are rendered powerless on many fronts. The poor rural community, or villagers, have little or no education and find it difficult to comprehend what is being said in meetings because officials speak a higher language than them, leaving a huge gap filled with misunderstanding and misinformation. Despite this limitation, some villagers go away thinking all is well until the services they are receiving are not the same as the services they expected to receive. This creates tension between local authorities and the locals (Abraham & Platteau 2004; Morris & Staggenborg 2004). However, in a democratic system the poor have the numbers to obtain the majority vote and, in this sense, they have the power to manipulate important decision-making processes in their favour.

(5). **Gender representation** (Purdon, 2008; Nanz & Dalferth, 2009; Dörr, 2008). Although a low rate of participation by women has featured in developed countries, Canada appears to have higher levels as compared to Costa Rica, Chile, Sweden, Bolivia, Finland, Ghana, South Africa and the UK (Purdon, 2008). First, the municipalities and women's networks seem not to have established working relationships.

Second, the municipalities do not generally reach out to involve women in consultation processes. Third, there is a lack of practical support for women, including childcare, transportation and timing of meetings. Fourth, there is lack of support from municipalities for more inclusive policies and practices. Lastly, marginalised women face more serious systemic barriers to participation due to their race, ethnicity, poverty, immigration status, age, sexual orientation, disability and language barriers (Purdon, 2008). It may therefore be deduced that social bias against women is a factor that has fuelled gaps in the participation of women in municipal service delivery. For example in Indonesia, slum areas tend to have more female residents than male residents, but because of the culture, the public housing officials do not take women into account for housing allocation. Although many factors could be linked to gaps in the participation of women in municipal matters, Nanz and Dalferth (2009) highlight that sustainable solutions should entail the development of policies and practices based on gender-mainstreaming tools for inclusive participation. There should also be partnerships between municipalities and women's organisations. This is because these organisations may have the expertise and tools in certain areas of consultation, inclusive participatory processes, policy development, gender and anti-racism training, leadership development and research.

Despite a higher level of female participation in the public's municipal service delivery in the developed world as compared to developing nations, studies have suggested that women's participation should be maximised to attain equal levels with men in a number of ways. First is to make gender equality in municipal consultation and decision-making processes a priority for action; second is to take coordinated action to address the systemic and practical barriers experienced by women; third is to build effective partnerships and coalitions between local governments and national and grassroots women's organisations (Dörr, 2008). In recent reforms, women have been given the right to participate in public affairs directly or through freely chosen representatives in South Africa, the Philippines, Albania, Norway and elsewhere.

(6). **Knowledge and social background**. This is the relevant knowledge of the social background in which local authorities operate.

Other factors include the (7) representativeness gap (Moreno-Torres, 2011; Powell & Kleinmann, 2008; World Bank, 2011, 2012; Devas & Grant, 2003; Hulume & Siddique, 1997; Thompson, 2008; Urbinati & Warren, 2008); (8) workforce turnovers; (9) resource gap (cost) (OECD/DAC, 2008; World Bank, 2010); and (10) trust gap (Nanz & Dalferth, 2009). According to Moreno-Torres (2011) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development and Development Assistance Committee (OECD/DAC, 2009a, b), a number of countries and their municipal governance have no comprehensive representation of various groups of people from across the social divide. In the western and eastern blocks, this is mainly because of racial discrimination against immigrants, while in Africa it is basically along tribal lines. This has resulted in a lack of the conventional sense of being a statistical mirror of society. Studies have reported that some countries need special support to enable their voices to be heard, as they have been neglected in most participatory processes in municipalities (OECD/DAC, 2010a, b; World Bank, 2012). Devas and Grant (2003) express the concept of citizen "voice" as meaning an engagement between state and citizens to move beyond consultation to direct influence over decision-making. Arguably, in many countries, the "voice" is becoming silent because the local governments are not poverty focused and the social dynamics of exclusion and inclusion at community level hinder participation (Devas & Grant, 2003). Complex community differences such as language, caste, ethnicity, age, religion and gender have also inhibited participation and, on many occasions, citizens leave meetings confused and frustrated or they are pressured into acquiescence, yet their attendance is classified as participation (Guit & Shah 1998). An observation made in Uganda by Golooba-Mutebi (1999, cited by Devas & Grant, 2003) is that authority inhibits the free exchange of ideas and renders participants unwilling to demand accountability from those in authority. Thus, instead of being fair and democratic, "participation" is often manipulated from the top with the authority

imposing decisions on others (Golooba-Mutebi, cited by Devas & Grant, 2003).

Beall (2001, in Devas & Grant, 2003) and Hulume and Siddique (1997) maintain that civil society is often identified with the "institution's solution" to people-centred participation and inclusive development. Local government engages in various ways with poverty programmes, identifying problems, prioritisation, solution finding and other contributions, but there is no assurance that the interests of the poor will be represented, thus their "voice" falls on deaf ears and formal organisations underpin the patterns of exclusion and inequality. It is easier for the authorities to communicate with the elite in society than engaging with the poor. It is costlier and taxing to work with the poorer sections of society. Therefore, local government leaders are said to rather "commandeer their own agendas" to further their acquaintances with the local elite for political gains than promote any active participation with the poor (Devas & Grant, 2003; Hulume & Siddique, 1997). On many fronts, the public "voice" is said to have a diminishing "ring tone to the ears of the policy makers", thus limiting citizen participation and community engagement with deadly repercussions. Citizens protest, burning and destroying property, with loss of life in some cases, accusing the government of either doing very little or nothing at all to improve the quality of life of the poor while the elite in society have no issues with the authorities. This is no different to the South Africa context, as the elite have a better life and the poor live in informal settlements with little to no sanitation, running water, electricity, waste removal, schools, or healthcare services, among others. There seems to be a daily occurrence of service delivery protests on a much larger scale. Representativeness can be delivered through a combination of selection approaches to participants, as well as through methods that bring all arguments into the participation process (Urbinati & Warren, 2008). According to these authors, an alternative is to create an active link between the outcomes of the participatory process and the wider public.

Moreno-Torres (2011) conducted an in-depth analysis of public protests from 2008 to 2010 in Asia-Pacific countries and Africa and established the existence of the poor performance of public representation and dysfunctional local government administrative structures as the main causal factors. The disgruntled public showed anger with ineffective service delivery in major urban places despite pledges that the councillors made during campaigns to represent them (Moreno-Torres, 2011). Ineffective service delivery brought a sense of desperation over the disconnection of local councillors. In this period, protest reasons concerned policies such as addressing the needs of the poor and their desperation, and failure to change their poverty-stricken circumstances (Moreno-Torres, 2011). This signified not only an ineffective service delivery framework, but also a lack of accountability and the misrepresentation of the disadvantaged groups. Thus, according to the public, protests were the best way to achieve people-centred governance and service delivery at the municipalities.

2.3.3. Service delivery

Since the Batho Pele initiative was first introduced by the Mandela administration on 1 October 1997, to improve the delivery of goods and services to the public, public service delivery has not improved significantly. According to Monyai (2007), the general public generally perceives the improvement as quite minimal and service delivery as being slow and not visible enough to most of the people who still live in abject poverty. Hlatshwayo (2005) states that poor South Africans who needed houses and had been on the waiting list since 1994 watched helplessly as foreigners occupied houses meant for South Africans because of unscrupulous and corrupt officials. This culminated in protests around Musina in 2005 when fifty foreigners were chased out of Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP) houses that were either rented out to or purchased by foreigners from corrupt and greedy councillors (Twala, 2014). In 2006, a survey by the Democratic Alliance revealed that of the 284 municipalities, 71% were unable to offer sanitary services to 60% of their residents; 64% failed to remove refuse from 60% of homes; 55% could not provide water for 60% of properties; 13% could not provide free basic electricity as promised; 43% could not provide electricity for 60% of homes; and 41% could not provide housing for 60% of their residents. Notwithstanding the government's

258

intent to roll out electricity to all South Africans, most indigent households "continue to use solid fuels for cooking and heating, which has a negative impact on their health and quality of life" (UNDP, 2010). Evidence from Statistics South Africa's General Household Survey (2011) shows that whereas the percentage of households living in formal dwellings increased from 53.1% in 2002 to 58.1% in 2010, only 18.9% of South African households lived in RDP or state-subsidised dwellings in 2010. The persistent reliance on solid fuels such as coal, candles, wood, wood pellets, grains, dung and charcoal for cooking and heating among poor South Africans shows that societal inequalities have persisted in the new democratic dispensation (UNDP, 2010; National Planning Commission's Report, 2011). According to the National Planning Commission Report (2011: 27), "development is being held back by too little investment in new infrastructure, and a failure to maintain existing infrastructure; and … under-invested in infrastructure for over a generation", where net capital formation as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) declined from about 18% in 1980 to 6% in 2010. Simultaneously, the gross fixed capital formation by the public sector as a percentage of GDP dropped from about 15% in 1975 to around 7% in 2010. This investment fluctuated between 4% in 2000 and 8.6% in 2009 (Gordhan, 2011). The inadequate investment raises the question of where the state invests public funds.

According to Mpehle (2012), communities are unhappy because of, among other things, the deployment of unskilled, unqualified and inexperienced cadres to municipal management positions, the accumulation of wealth by a few individuals through the abuse of the tendering system, inadequate revenue due to the centralisation of funding, and absence of proper systems for collecting revenue by municipalities. Maserumule (2011) observes that government intervention to deal with service delivery protests does not seem to be making much impact as it is a persistent occurrence that is beginning to characterise the relationship between government and society.

Challenges of service delivery

According to Johnson (2004), local government must provide services at the highest possible level of responsiveness and efficiency. However, most countries in the world are faced with poor service delivery and South Africa is no exception (Manning, 2006). In South Africa, poverty levels are still very high, health services are poor, there is an acute shortage of housing, the pace of service delivery is slow, and the quality of services being rendered is poor. There are different ways of improving the effectiveness of local governments, and one of these ways is to assess their current level of functioning by focusing on the accomplishment of their goals (see Nel et al., 2011). Makgoba (2006) states that the standard by which service delivery is assessed will always be the degree to which a local government is responsive to the needs of its customers. This implies that the quality of service delivery is vitally important and that the perceptions of customers regarding how well their needs and expectations are met, as well as their level of satisfaction, are important (Ivancevic & Matteson, 1996). According to Fourie and De Jager (2005), there is still a significant gap between the expectations and perceptions of customers about the day-to-day services that they anticipate and what they receive. The following are some of the main challenges of service delivery.

a. Effective management

Manyaka and Sebola (2015) argue that the effective management of employee performance in the South African public service is, for example, linked directly to the effectiveness of public service delivery (also see Ngwakwe, 2008; Mashigo, 2006). However, this role is hampered by uncertainty associated with asymmetric information, collateral constraints and high transaction costs. Madzivhandila and Asha (2012) argue that the service delivery challenges faced by municipalities in South Africa could be addressed if clear strategies were to be formulated to strengthen community participation and integration with other stakeholders in the IDP processes. In order for managers to perform well in fulfilling the objectives of an organisation, Nengwekhulu (2009) states that recruitment, selection and appointment of public officials

should be based on merit; that for the public service to perform optimally, there should be neutrality in the employment and placement of public servants in the higher echelons of public institutions. Political affiliation should not be used as the only criterion in such appointments.

b. Lack of proper financial and record-keeping skills

According to the report released by the Accountant-General and the Auditor-General, some municipalities received qualified financial reports in the 2006/2007 financial year. In 2007/2008 only 23% municipalities received an unqualified report, the main reason being that some municipalities were unable to keep financial records and that made it difficult for auditors to effectively conduct proper auditing (Republic of South Africa. Auditor-General, 2007).

c. Funding

Modipane and Sebola (2012) state that an improvement in the way municipalities plan and budget for their Municipal Infrastructure Grant programmes will contribute towards enhancing basic service delivery. One of the defining features of a government that is able to run itself successfully is the ability to effectively and efficiently collect revenue and use that revenue appropriately and economically for the delivery of services.

d. Political infighting

There is a concern about the level of the political and power struggles that persist within municipalities. This is crippling service delivery as the focus shifts from service delivery to job positions in municipalities. Infighting among the ruling party's councillors tends to drive a wedge between the ranks of the party, thereby affecting service delivery negatively. This might be due to intolerance within the ruling party which undermines the electoral process for councillors and interferes with their duties (Morgan 1997; Schonwalder, 1997).

e. Corruption

Outrage has been voiced that some municipal officials and politicians, especially those who recruit personnel, are corrupt. Lloyd and Mey

(2005) argue that corruption results in stagnation and institutional failure that can lead to poor service delivery. Sometimes, substantial amounts of money within municipalities go missing and services cannot be rendered because some officials are only concerned about enriching themselves through tenders and awarding themselves high salaries at the expense of service delivery. Some supply chain officials abuse the procurement system, particularly at the municipal level where there are no records of goods and services that have been procured; fraudulent practices such as kickbacks and nepotism are in place which are manifested in the growing number of court cases against officials, and at the lack of accountability that is left unattended. Despite initiatives by government to combat corruption, there is still a challenge in the implementation of policies that intend to fight corruption. If corruption is not properly controlled, it will have far-reaching effects that damage trust between citizens and politicians, constrain the economic development of the country and have an adverse impact on good governance, which may lead to instability in the country (Lloyd & Mey, 2005).

f. Lack of community engagement in decision-making processes

A communication gap exists between the elected and the electorate because some politicians think that they know what communities need, and therefore tend to introduce programmes that are irrelevant. This is partly because since the South African election system is not a constituency-based one, members of parliament are chosen from the political party list, which causes serious problems as far as the representation of constituencies and their views in parliament are concerned. This has brought about a situation where some politicians like members of parliament do not actually serve the communities they say they represent, rather serving their own interests (see Eikenberry, 2009; Lloyd & Mey, 2005).

2.3.4 Conceptual framework

The national government formulates policies and allocates funds for basic services and the delivery of public services to the members of the local community takes place either through the state/province and municipality or on behalf of
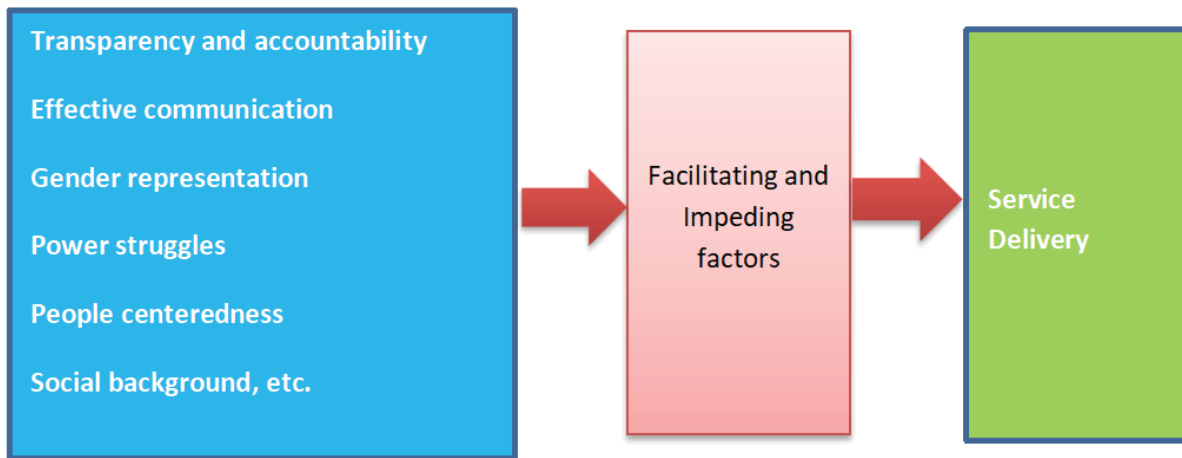
FIGURE 7: A FRAMEWORK FOR OPTIMISING BUSINESS PARTICIPATION IN THE SERVICE DELIVERY PROCESSES
SOURCE: AUTHOR

the state by a voluntary, community organisation or private company. As a bottom-up approach, the local community can influence the policy decision-making and the resources that affect them through public participation and the ward committees which represent them. Figure 7 shows the corresponding conceptual framework.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In this study, a positivist paradigm survey research design was used. A semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data, because the phenomenon of service delivery is naturally quantitative in nature. Data was collected from a stratified random sample of 1429 respondents, comprising four different respondent groups of

899 (63%), 214 (15%), 208 (15%) and 108 (7%) citizens, businesses, managers and ward committee members (WCMs) respectively. Measurements of constructs were done on a Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Descriptive analysis (including summarising data using frequency tables, mean, standard deviation, as well as diagrammatical representation of data) was done; and a chi-square test, factor analysis and structural equation modelling were used in inferential analysis. The SPSS 23.0 statistical package was used.

4. RESULTS

This section presents the findings of the study. Section 4.1 presents the descriptive analysis, section 4.2 the inferential results and
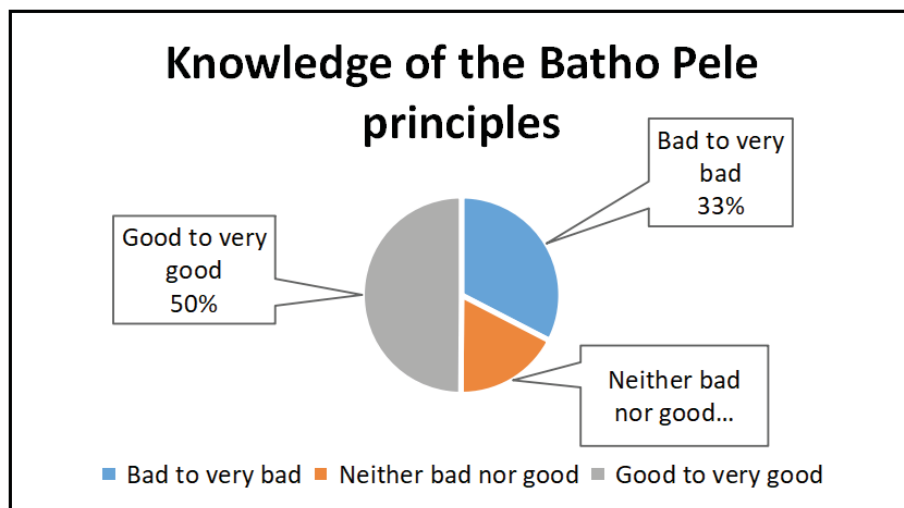

FIGURE 8: KNOWLEDGE OF THE BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES FOR CITIZENS

261

section 4.3 concludes the article and makes recommendations.

4.1. Descriptive analysis

The majority (53.08%) of the respondents were aged between 31 and 40 years, and most of these were males (57.35%). In the sample as a whole, 54% were males and 46% were females. The difference of 4% is reasonable with respect to gender representativeness. However, this possibly indicates that females are still not participating to the extent that one would wish for with respect to issues of service delivery. Blacks (47.87%), followed by whites (35.07%), were in the majority. The highest education level was generally speaking a bachelor's degree (49.29%) followed by a diploma (37.91%).

i. Citizens

The respondents indicated that knowledge of Batho Pele principles is not adequate and many (33.0%) believed that the municipality did not place "people first" when delivering services to the public (figure 8).

Cross tabulation showed that the perception of putting people first is associated with Batho Pele principles (X^2 (2) = 7.31; p < 0.05). Of the 58.1% who commented on service delivery, 5.8% were positive whilst 52.3% provided negative comments. The negative comment with the highest percentage referred to the perception that the services they receive are not up to standard and could be characterised as respondents who

feel that they are not getting value for their money (as the services are inefficient and of poor quality). Common complaints were about lack of sewerage, electricity, water, refuse removal, health clinics and upkeep of roads and infrastructure. However, one should also remember, "You get what you pay for" and if you are not paying rates and taxes then you should not be complaining. There also seems to be a sense of entitlement among many of the respondents and they want "everything free". Citizens need to be informed that differential rates apply and that nothing is free, as someone is paying for the services rendered.

The correspondence analysis indicated that poor knowledge of the Batho Pele principles is mainly associated with white respondents; good knowledge of the *Batho Pele* principles is associated with black respondents and the coloured respondents are closely associated with being unsure of the Batho Pele principles. The reasons for these results varied from 34.8% giving no response, 1.3% indicating "I do not know" and 42.6% saying they were unsatisfied.

ii. Businesses

Figure 9 shows the frequency distribution of knowledge of Batho Pele principles.

About 39% of the respondents had good knowledge of the Batho Pele principles, and blacks were associated with good knowledge compared to whites who were uncertain and Indians and coloureds who claimed to have poor
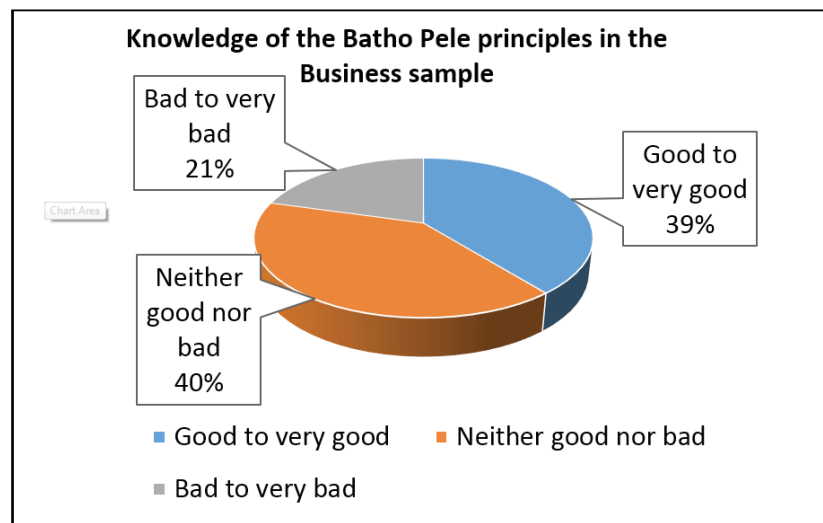

FIGURE 9: KNOWLEDGE OF THE BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES FOR BUSINESS OWNERS

262

knowledge of the principles. Like community members, business owners indicated that they were dissatisfied with putting people first. The majority of the respondents (65.4%) indicated that no meetings had been held with them within the past 12 months. Most respondents partially disagreed that the municipality practised business centredness.

A lack of redress was mentioned in 2.8% of the responses, but this mostly concerned the creation of jobs and a sense of entitlement created by people making promises in order to capture votes. It would thus seem as if government officials

may espouse the Batho Pele principles, but their behaviour certainly does not demonstrate that which they should be doing. Thus, a consultative process as suggested by Sengé (1990) could go a long way towards improving the consultative process.

The correspondence analysis indicated that black respondents were associated with good public participation, white respondents tended to uninvolved and Indian and coloured respondents with poor public participation (PP). Business respondents tended towards neither agreeing nor disagreeing that business participation was
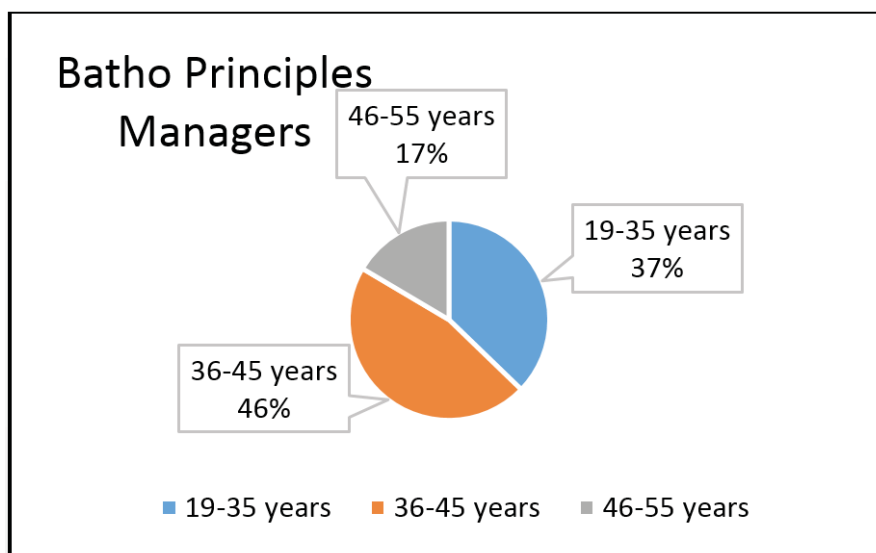

FIGURE 10: KNOWLEDGE OF BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES BY MANAGERS
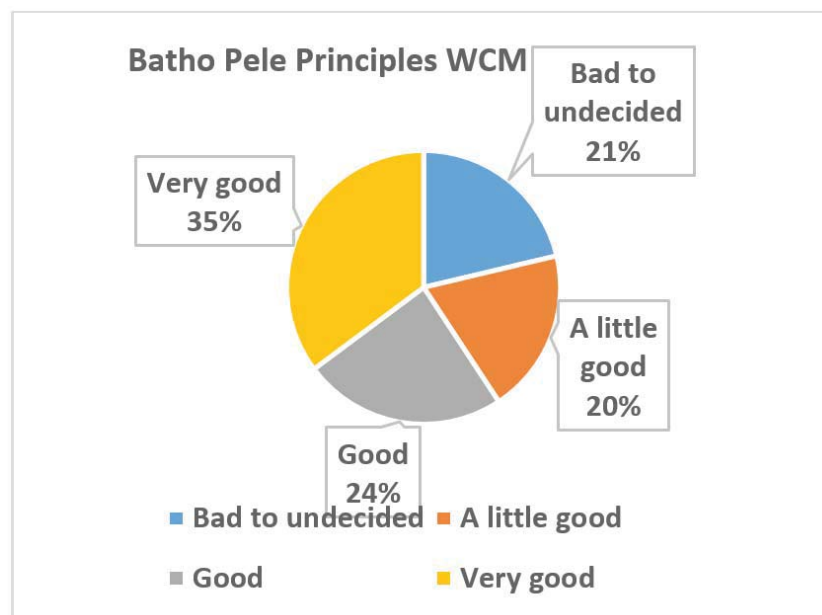

FIGURE 11: KNOWLEDGE OF THE BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES OF THE WCM SAMPLE

satisfactory.

iii. Managers
Figure 10 shows the frequency distribution of knowledge of Batho Pele principles for the managers group. Most respondents (72.6%) indicated good knowledge of the Batho Pele principles, which was expected of managers. They must have received some form of training on the Batho Pele principles as all government officials and local authorities are required to be familiar with them

The lowest mean score (3.83) of "You are regularly consulted on service delivery matters that affect you" indicates partial disagreement. This is disconcerting as it could indicate a lack of collaboration among managers – possibly hiding behind their own incompetence and not accepting responsibility for solving service delivery problems that pertain to their particular departments. The answers for "the number of meetings that were held during the last 12 months" varied from 1% of respondents who answered between 26 and 50, to 40.6% either who indicated zero or who did not answer the question.

iv. Ward committee members (WCMs)
The WCMs mostly indicated good and very good knowledge (59.3%) of the Batho Pele principles. Rather poor knowledge of the principles was acknowledged by only 21.3% of respondents (see figure 11).

v. Knowledge of the Batho Pele Principle in the merged data
Figure 12 indicates that 52% of the respondents in the merged data knew the Batho Pele principles, 27% had poor to very poor knowledge, and 21% neither poor nor good knowledge. This suggests that almost 50% of respondents need some form of training in the Batho Pele principles to better equip them on public participation and service delivery matters.

4.2 Inferential analysis
A significant association was found between the Batho Pele principles and the aspects of "facilitation of public participation for effective service delivery". The implication is that the more knowledgeable people are about the Batho Pele principles, the better participation is facilitated.

Six factors were identified as affecting public participation for optimising service delivery, namely, public participation, accountability, transparency, communication, gender representation and power struggles. While the first four factors enhanced public participation and therefore optimised service delivery, power struggles suppressed both it and service delivery. Two underlying factors were also identified: a factor that facilitates effective service delivery and a second one that impedes effective service
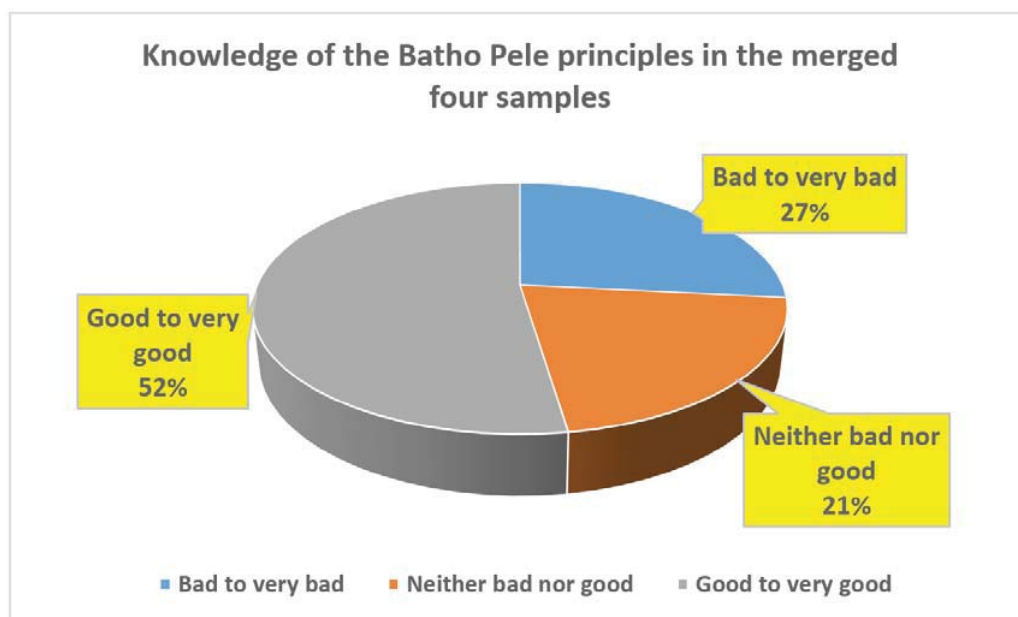

FIGURE 12: KNOWLEDGE OF THE BATHO PELE PRINCIPLES IN THE MERGED DATA

264

delivery. This means that to optimise service delivery, people centeredness, accountability and transparency, communication, public participation and gender representativeness should be enhanced, while knowledge and social background, and power struggles are suppressed. It may thus be concluded that effective service delivery is a multifactorial construct containing these two factors.

The throughput or transformation process in the systems model should thus be modified as indicated by the diagram in figure 13.

The researcher agrees with Sengé (1990) that in order to obtain public participation to optimise service delivery, the stakeholders (i.e., various community groups) involved in the service delivery processes should allow a dialogue to occur between them as colleagues.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
It has been found that knowledge of the Batho Pele principles is associated with both the facilitating factor of PP, which includes accountability and transparency, people centredness, communication and gender representation as first-order factors, and the impeding factor of PP, which includes

power struggles. The more knowledgeable a person is about the Batho Pele principles the better the PP for effective service delivery will be. It has also been found that the implementation of the Batho Pele principles is slow; otherwise, the Batho Pele principles policy is a good policy for municipal service delivery and should be encouraged.

The study calls for greater involvement in intensive training on Batho Pele principles for all stakeholders. Intensive training of these principles is called for and should be compulsory as a national requirement. The first-order factors of the facilitating factor should be promoted while those of the impeding factor, power struggles, must be discouraged.

REFERENCES

Ababio, E.P. 2004. Enhancing Community Participation in Developmental Local Government for improved service delivery. Journal of Public Administration, 39(2):272-289(18)

Abraham, A. & Platteau, J.P. 2004. Participatory Development: When Culture Creeps. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
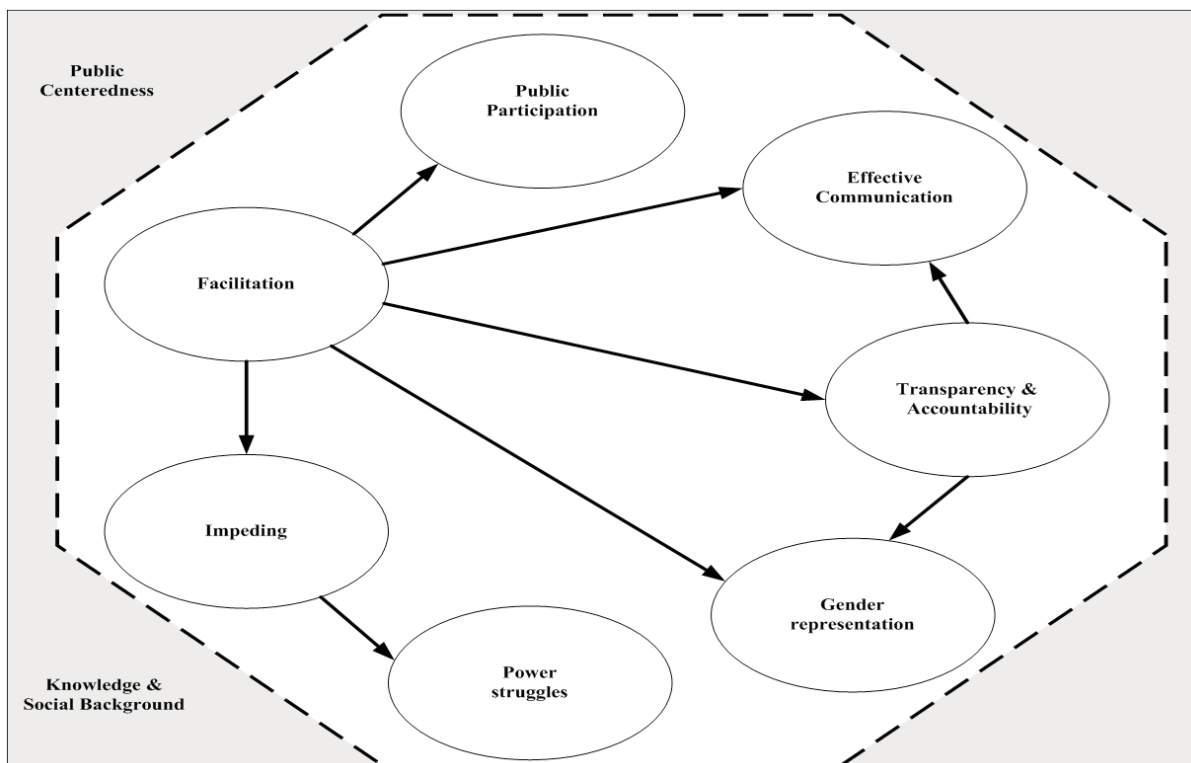
FIGURE 13: THE MODIFIED TRANSFORMATION PROCESS AS PART OF A SYSTEMS MODEL

Albrecht, S., Kohlrausch, N. & Kubicek, H. 2008. eParticipation: Electronic Participation of Citizens and the Business Community in eGovernment. Bremen: University of Bremen.

Arbuckle, 2007. Amos 16: User's guide. Chicago, IL: SPSS.

Ashworth, R., Boyne, G. & Entwhistle, T. 2010. Public Service Improvement: Theories and Evidence, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Avolio, B.J. & Gardner, W.L. 2005. Authentic Leadership Development: Getting to the Root of Positive Forms of Leadership. Leadership, 16:315–38.

Barnes, M., Skelcher, C., Beirens, H., Dalziel, R. & Jeffares, S. 2008. Designing Citizen-centred Governance. New York, NY: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

Becker, C. 2000. Service Recovery Strategies: The Impact of Cultural Differences. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 24(4):526–538.

Bekkers, V. 2001. De mythen van de elektronische overheid. Over retoriek en realiteit. Bestuurswetenschappen, 4:277–295.

Bekkers, V. 2005. The Governance of Back Office Integration in e-government: some Dutch Experiences, in Wimmer, M., Lenk, K & Traunmuller, R. (eds), Electronic Government. Heidelberg: Springer.

Bhardwaj, V. 2016. Service Delivery Protests, African Check, "sorting facts from fiction". [Online]. From: https://africacheck.org (Accessed 13 October 2016).

Blair, H.W. 2000. Participation and Accountability at the Periphery: Democratic Local Government in Six Countries. World Development, 28(1):21-39.

Blondiaux, L. 2008. Le nouvel esprit de la démocratie. Paris: Le Seuil.

Bovaird, T. & Downe, J. 2008. Innovation in Public Engagement and Co-Production of Services. [Online]. http://www.govint.org/fileadmin/ user_upload/publications/Innovation_in_Public_ Engagement_and_Co-Production_of_Public_ Services.pdf (Accessed 20 February 2017).

Bozeman, B. (Ed.) 2010. Public Values and Public Interest: Counterbalancing Economic Individualism. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Buskens, V. & Raub, W. 2002. Embedded Trust: Control and Learning. In S.R. Thye & E.J. Lawler (Eds). Group cohesion, trust and solidarity, (pp. 167–202). Amsterdam: Elsevier Science.

Chuene, T.B. 2012. What are the challenges facing municipalities in financing the water service infrastructure? Case study: North West province, University of Stellenbosch.

Clarkson, M. 1995. A stakeholder framework for analysing and evaluating corporate social performance. Academy of Management Review, 20(1):92-117.

Connor, T. 2003. Politics of planning and participation. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE.

Cornwall, A. & Schattan, V.P.C. (Eds). 2008. Spaces for Change? The Politics of Participation in New Democratic Arenas. London: Zed Books.

Cornwall, A. 2008. Democratising Engagement. London: DEMOS.

Creasy, S., Gavelin, K. & Potter, D. 2008. Everybody needs good neighbours? London: Involve.

CSIR. 2004. Municipal IDP-Targeted and direct support for implementation and review of IDP plans. Pretoria: DPLG.

Dauskardt, R.P.A. 2004. Financial improvement planning in Local Government in Southern Africa, with special reference to Zambia. Development in Southern Africa, 21:329-351.

Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG). 2007. National Policy Framework for Public Participation. SA Department of Water Affairs and Forestry. 2001. Stakeholders Participation. Pretoria: DWAF.

Department of Water Affairs and Forestry. 2001. Stakeholders Participation. Pretoria: DWAF.

Devas, N. & Grant, U. 2003. Local government decision making – citizens participation and local accountability: some evidence from Kenya and Uganda. Public Administration and Development, 23(4):307-316.

Devenish, G. P. 1998. Commentary on the South African Constitution. Durban: Butterworths.

Develtere, P. 2005. The Emergence of Multilevel Governance in Kenya. Working Paper No.07. Leuven: LIRGIAD.

Davids, I., Maphunye, K.J. & Theron, F. 2005. Participatory Development in South Africa. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Dibben, P. & Higgins, P. 2004. New Public Management: Marketisation, managerialism and consumerism, in P. Dibben, G. Wood & I. Roper (eds). 2004. Contesting public sector reforms: Critical perspectives, international debates. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Dzansi, D.Y. & Dzans, I.L.W. 2010. Understanding the impact of human resource management practices on municipal service delivery in South Africa: An organizational justice approach. African Journal of Business Management, 4(6):995-1005.

Donaldson, T. & Preston, L.E. 1995, The stakeholder theory of the corporation: concepts, evidence and implications. Academy of Management Review, 20(1):65-91.

Dörr, N. 2008. Deliberative Discussion, Language, and Efficiency in the World Social Forum. Mobilisation: An International Journal, 13(4):395-410.

Dudley, L. 2009. Communication and Economic Growth. European Economic Growth Review, 53:595-619.

Duffy, B., Vince, J. & Page, L. 2008. Searching for the impact of empowerment. London: Ipsos MORI Social Research Institute.

Du Toit, D.F.P. 1998. Public Administration and Management for effective governance. Cape Town: Juta & Company.

Edwards, S., Makunga, M., Ngcobo, S. & Dhlomo, M. 2004. Ubuntu: a cultural method of mental health promotion. International Journal of mental health promotion, 6 (1):16-21.

Eicher, S. 2009. Corruption in International business: The challenge of cultural and legal diversity. Surrey: Ashgate Publishing.

Eikenberry, A.M. 2009. Philanthropy, voluntary association and governance beyond the state: giving circles and challenges for democracy. Administration & Society, 38(9):915-919.

Engelbrecht, A. S., van Aswegan, A.S. & Theron, C.C. 2005. The Effect of Ethical Values on Transformational leadership and Ethical Climate in Organizations, South African Journal of Business Management, 36:19–26.

Etzo, S. 2010. The unfinished business of democratization: struggles for services and accountability in South African cities. Democratization, 17(3):564- 584.

Fairholm, G. W. 1991. Values leadership: Towards a new philosophy of leadership. New York: Praeger.

Fitzsimmons, J.A. & Fitzsimmons, J.M. 2001. Service Management. 3rd ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Fourie, L. de W. & de Jager, J. 2005. Increasing customer satisfaction through enhancing service delivery: an internal marketing approach. Journal of Public Administration, 40(3.1): 229-246.

Frooman, J. 1999. Stakeholders influence strategies. Academy of Management Review, 24(2):191-205.

Gaventa, J. & Valderrama, C. 1999. Participation, Citizens and Local Governance. Institute of Development Studies.Glaser, M.A., Yeager, S.J. & Parker, L.E. 2008. Involving citizens in the decisions of government and community: neighbourhood-based vs. Government-based

Citizen engagement. Public Administration Review, Summer:177-217.

Gordhan, P. 2011. South African Budget. Retrieved March 25, 2011, from http:// www. oldmutual.co.za/documents/budgetspeech/2011/ BudgetHighlights.pdf

Golooba-Mutebi, F. 2003. Local government decision-making-citizens participation and local accountability: some evidence from Kenya and Uganda. UK Wiley and Sons.

Guit, I. & Shah, M.K. 1998. The myth of community, gender issues in participatory Development. London: ITDG Publications.

Hall, C.M., 2008. Tourism planning: policies, processes and relationships. Pearson Education.

Hall, D., Lobina, E. & Terhorst, P. 2013. Re-municipalisation in the early twenty-first century: Water in France and energy in Germany. International Review of Applied Economics, 27(2):193–214.

Hemson, D. 2007. Can Participation Make a Difference? Prospects for People's Participation in Planning. Critical Dialogue – Public Participation in Review, 3(1).

Hewlet, G. 2009. Expanding Participatory Democracy. Conflict Management and Governance, IDEA.

Hlatshwayo, M. 2005. The tale of two movements: social movements and trade unions. Khanya Journal, (8):34–38.

Homsy, G.C. & Warner, M.E. 2014. Intermunicipal Cooperation: The Growing Reform. in The Municipal Yearbook 2014. Washington, DC: International City County Management Association.

Hood, C. 1995. The New Public Management in the 1980s: Variations on a Theme, Accounting, Organizations and Society, 20 (2/3):93-109.

Holton, J.A. 2001. Building trust and collaboration in a virtual team. Team performance management: an international journal, 17:36-47.

Hulume, D. & Siddique, N. 1997. Central-local relations and responsibilities in Bangladesh: experiments with the organisation, management and delivery of services ESCOR Research Project. [Online]. From: http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/ groups/public/documents/cpsi/unpan019290. pdf (Accessed 25 February 2015).

Ivancevic, J. M. & Matteson, M. T. 1996. Organizational Behaviour. (4th Ed). Chicago: Irwin.

Johnson, K.R. 2004. The Huddled Masses – Myth: Immigration and Civil Rights. Temple University Press. Philadelphia.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, F. P. 2003. Joining together: Group theory and group skills. New York, NY: Pearson Education.

Kerlinger, L. 2002. Governing at local level. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.

Khoza, V.L., Du Toit, H.S. & Roos, J.H. 2010. Implementation of the 'Batho Pele' (People First) principles in one public hospital in South Africa: Patients' experiences. Africa Journal of Nursing and Midwifery 12(2):58–68.

Kranacher, M., Riley, R. & Wells, J.T. 2011. Forensic accounting and fraud examination. New York, NY: ACFE.

Kuczmarski, S. S. & Kuczmarski, T. D. 1995. Values-based leadership. Paramus, Nj. Prentice-Hall.

Kuye, J.O. 2006. Public sector reforms: The case for South Africa – 1994–2005. Journal of Public Administration, 41(2.2):290-309.

Leopold, E. & Mcdonald, D.A. 2012. Municipal Socialism Then and Now: some lessons for the Global South. Third World Quarterly, 33(10):1837-1853.

Levy, N. & Tapscott, C. (eds) 2001. Intergovernmental Relations in South Africa, The Challenges of Co-operative Government. Cape Town: Institute for a Democratic Alternative in South Africa (IDASA).

Loock, C.F, Grobler, B.R.& Mestry, R. 2006. Human resource management in Education: Rebalancing the scales. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Lloyd, H. & Mey, M. 2005. An ethics model to create and sustain an ethical organisational culture. Port Elizabeth: Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.

Lu, Y. 2009. Challenges for China's international Communication. UK: University of Nottingham.

Madzivhandila, T.S. & Asha, A.A. 2012. Integrated Development Planning process and service delivery challenges for South Africa's local municipalities. Journal of Public Administration, 47(1.1):369-378.

Makgoba, S. 2006. Service delivery in district management areas: the case of district municipalities. Journal of Public Administration, 41(2):144-162.

Managa, A. 2012. Unfulfilled promises and their consequences: A reflection on local government performance and the critical issue of poor service delivery in South Africa. Policy Brief: Africa Institute of South Africa, 76:2.

Manala, M.J. 2010. A Better Life for All': A Reality or A Pipe-Dream? A Black Theology Intervention in Conditions of Poor Service Delivery in The Democratic South Africa Scriptura, University of South Africa.

Manning, T. 2006. Delivering the dream: Designing and implementing strategy in the public sector. Cape Town: Zebra Press.

Mannor, J. & Crook, R.C. 1998. Democracy and Decentralisation in South Asia and west Africa – Participation, Accountability and Performance. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mangaliso, M. P. 2001. Building a comparative advantage from ubuntu: management lessons from South Africa. The Academy of Management Executive, 15 (3):23-33.

Manyaka, K. & Sebola, M.P. 2015. Performance management in the South African Municipalities: Issues, trends and challenges. Journal of Public

Administration, 50(3):674-686.

Maphunye, Kealeboga J. 2002. The Features of South Africa's post-1994 Civil Service and the Challenges it faces in the New Dispensation, African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development. [Online]. From: http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/CAFRAD/UNPAN017987.pdf (Accessed 08 September 2018).

Mashigo, P. 2006. The debt spiral in the poor households in South Africa. The International Indigenous Journal of Entrepreneurship, Advancement, Strategy and Education. Tshwane University of Technology, Theresa Park Akasia, 0155, South Africa.

Maserumule, M.H. 2011. Good governance in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD): A Public Administration Perspective. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Mbigi, L. 1997. Ubuntu: The African dream in management. Pretoria: Knowledge Resources.

Mbigi, L. & Maree, J. 1995. Ubuntu: The spirit of African transformation management. Randburg: Knowledge Resources.

McFarlin, D. B., Coster, E. A., and Mogale-Pretorius, C. 1999. South African management development in the twenty-first century. Journal of Management Development, 18 (1):63-78.

Meng, B. 2008. Pathways towards citizen participation: insights on community planning in Cambodian cities. Journal of Contemporary Easter Asia, 7(2):49-55.

Millan, N. 2001. Administrative behaviors at local government. New York, NY: Free Press.

Ministry of Justice. 2008. A national framework for greater citizen engagement. London: Ministry of Justice.

Mitchell, R., Agle, B. & Wood, D. 1997. Toward a theory of stakeholder identification and salience: defining the principle of who and what really counts. Academy of Management Review,

22(4):853-858.

Modipane, M.H. and Sebola, M.P. 2012. 'South African Municipal Infrastructure Grant: Operational Planning and Budgeting for Basic Service Delivery'. Journal of Public Administration: Special Issue 1, 47(1.1):394 – 406.

Mojapelo, M. 2007. The effectiveness of the Integrated Development Plan as a tool to accelerate service delivery: Case Study of the Aganang Local Municipality in Limpopo Province. MA(SW) dissertation. Potchefstroom: North-West University.

Monyai, K.E. 2007. An African face of Christianity: A theology of five African initiated churches in Botswana, Unpublished PhD thesis, North West University, Potchefstroom.

Moreno-Torres, M. 2011. Service Delivery in a Difficult Environment: The Child-Friendly Community Initiative in Sudan. London. DFID

Morgan, G. 1997. Images of Organisation. London: SAGE.

Morris, A. & Staggenborg, S. 2004. Leader in Social Movements. Oxford. Blackwell Publishing.

Mpehle, Z. 2012. Perceptions of Hostel Dwellers– The Conversion of Hostels into Family Units. Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 3(12):214-224.

Mukandela, R.S. 1998. Decentralisation and democratisation in Tanzania, in Barkan, J D, (Ed.) Five Monographs on Decentralisation and Democratisation in sub-Saharan Africa. Iowa City: University of Iowa.

Nanz, P. & Dalferth, S. 2009. Making their voice heard–and listened to. Some thoughts on public participation in Europe, in J-C Ruano-Borbalan (ed.), Presse de Sciences Po, Paris.

National Planning Commission Report. 2011. National Development Plan 2030. Our future – make it work. Executive Summary. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Nel, P. S., Van Dyk, P. S., Haasbroek, G.D., Schultz, H. B., Sono, T. & Werner, A. 2011. Human resources management. (8th Ed). Southern Africa: Oxford University Press.

Nengwekhulu, R.H. 2009. Public service delivery challenges facing South African public services. Journal of Public Administration, 44(2).

Neuman, W.L. 2003. Research method: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. Boston, MA: Allyn.

Ngwakwe, C. C. 2008. Environmental Responsibility and Firm Performance: Evidence from Nigeria.

World Academy of Science. Engineering and Technology International Journal of Economics and Management Engineering, 2, 10.

Nkuna, N.W. & Nemutanzhela, T.L. 2012. Locating the role of service delivery within powers and functions of local government in South Africa. Journal of Public Administration, 47(11):355-368.

Norris, P. 2001 Civil Engagement, Information Poverty. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nussbaum, B. 2003. African culture and ubuntu: Reflections of a South African in America. World Business Academy, 17(1):1-12.

Nyalunga, D. 2011. An enabling environment for public participation in local government. International NGO Journal, 1(5):2-6.

Nzimakwe, T. I. & Mpehle, Z. 2012. Key factors in the successful implementation of Batho Pele Principles. Journal of Public Administration, 47(1.1) 279 – 290.

OECD/DAC. 2008. Service Delivery Concept Note, Fragile States Group, OECD, Paris.

OECD/DAC. 2009a. The Challenge of Capacity Development: Working Towards Good Practice. Paris: OECD.

OECD/DAC. 2009b. Synthesis Paper on Good Practice: The Challenge for Donors. Draft paper, September. Paris: OECD.

OECD/DAC. 2010. Whole of Government Approaches to Fragile States. Paris: OECD.

OECD/DAC. 2010a. Enhancing the Delivery of Justice and Security in Fragile States. Paris: OECD.

OECD/DAC. 2010b. Whole of Government Approaches to Fragile States. Paris: OECD.

Overbeek, L. 2001. Values, communication and leadership. An organizational perspective on their relationship. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.

Paradza, G., Mokwena, L., Richard, R. 2010. Accessing the role of councillors in Service

Delivery at Local Governemnt level in South Africa: Research Report No. 125, SA

Parker, S., Spires, P., Farook, F. & Mean, M. 2009. State of Trust: how to build better relationships between councils and the public. London: DEMOS.

Parnell, S. & Pieterse, E. 2002. Developmental Local Government, in Parnell, S. Democratizing Local Government. The South African experiment. Lansdowne: UCT Press.

Petukienė, E. 2010. Klientų dalyvavimo viešosiose paslaugose valdymas Lietuvos seniūnijose. Kaunas: KTU. Daktaro disertacija.

Pilietinės galios indeksas. 2011. [Online]. From: http://www.civitas.lt (Accessed 3 May 2011).

Pillay U, Tomlinson R & du Toit J (eds), 2006. Democracy and Delivery: Urban policy in SA, HRSC Press, SA.

Pollitt, C. & Bouckaert, G. 2000. Publicman agementreform:Aninternationalcomparison. Oxford,UK: Oxford University Press.

Poovan, N., Du Toit, M. K. & Engelbrecht, A. S. 2006. The effect of the social values of ubuntu on team effectiveness. South African Journal of Business Management, 37(3):17-27.

Powell, M. & Kleinmann, D.L. 2008. Building citizen capacities for participation in nanotechnology decision-making: the democratic virtues of the consensus Conference model. Public Understanding of Science 17:329-348.

Provan, K.G. & Milward, H.B. 2001. Do networks really work? A framework for evaluating public sector organizational networks. Public Administrative Review, 61:4.

Purdon, C. 2008. Bridging the Gender Gap in the 21st Century. Strategies to Increase Women's Participation in Municipal Consultation Processes. The IULA Worldwide

Raipa, A. & Petukienė, E. 2009. Klientų dalyvavimas viešosiose paslaugose: bendrasis paslaugų kūrimas. Viešoji politika ir administravimas, 27:54-62.

Rethinking the Middle East. 2013. Local Councils in Syria A Sovereignty Crisis in Liberated Areas. Menapolis.

Republic of South Africa. Auditor-General. 2007. Annual Report 2007-08. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Ritzer, G. 2008. Sociological Theory, 7th ed. Boston, MA: Mc Graw-Hill.

Robbins, S. P. 1999. Organisational behavior (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Robbins, H. & Finley, M. 2000. Why teams don't work: what went wrong and how to make it right. London: Texere.

Robison, M. 1998. Democracy, Participation, and Public Policy: the policy of institutional Design, in Robison, M. & White, G. (Eds). The democratic development state. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rowley, T. 1997. Moving beyond dyadic ties: a network theory of stakeholder influences. Academy of Management Review, 22(4):887-910.

Russell, E.W. & Bvuma, D.G. 2001. Alternative service delivery and public service transformation in South Africa, International Journal of Public Sector Management, 14(3):241-64.

SALGA. 2011. A handbook for Municipal Councillors. Waterkloof: SALGA.

Sangweni, S. & Balia, D. (eds). 1999. Fighting corruption: Strategies for prevention. Pretoria: Unisa Press.

Savivaldybių organizuojamų viešųjų paslaugų teikimo analizė. 2010. Studija. Vidaus reikalų ministerija. Vilnius.

Schlechter, A. & Maritz, F. 2001. Achieved performance excellence by practicing leadership effectively. Management today, 17 (3):42–45.

Schonwalder, A.G. 1997. New democratic spaces at the grassroots? Popular participation in Latin American local governments. Development and Change, 28(4):753–770.

Scott, J. 1998, Seeing Like a State. New Haven: Yale University Press

Scott, R. 2009. An analysis of public participation in the South African legislative section. MA(PA) dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.

Sengé. P.M. 1990. The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the Learning Organisation. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Siebert, H. 2008. Economics of the environment: Theory and policy. Berlin: Springer- Verlag.

Skidmore, P. & Bound, K. 2008. Everyday Democracy Index. London: DEMOS.

Smith, P. K. 2012. Cyberbullying: Challenges and opportunities for a research program–A response to Olweus (2012). European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 9(5):553-558.

South Africa. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Government Gazette, 378(17678).

South Africa. 2006. Municipal Finance Management Act (No. 56 of 2003): Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan. Government Gazette, 464(26019), February.

Stats SA (2011) General Household Survey. Pretoria: Stats SA.

Stiftung, H.B. 2014. Participation in Urban Climate Protection Answers of 'European' Municipalities. [Online]. From: http://www.actlife.eu/medias/189-pucenglish.pdf (Accessed 29 November 2014).

Stones, A. 2001. Citizen Science: a study of people. London: Routledge.

Theletsane, K.I. 2012. Ubuntu management approach and service delivery. Journal of Public Administration, 47(1.1):265-278.

Thompson, D.F. 2008. Deliberative Democratic Theory and Empirical Political Science. Annual Review of Political Science, 11:497-520.

Transparency International. 2008. Corruption perception index. [Online]. From: http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/cpi/2008 (Accessed 28 November 2014).

Tutu, D. 1995. In the right hope: Global problems, global vision. New York: Earthscan Publications.

Twala, Chitja. 2014. The Causes and Socio-political Impact of the Service Delivery Protests to the South African Citizenry: A Real Public Discourse, J Soc Sci, 39(2):159–167

United Nations. 2011, 2012. Good Governance Practices for the protection of Human Rights. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights.

UNDP. Annual Report 2010.

United Nations. 2010. Good Governance Practices for The protection of Human Rights. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights.

United Nations. 2011. Good Governance Practices for the protection of Human Rights. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights.

Urbinati, N. & Warren, M.E. 2008. The Concept of Representation in Contemporary Democratic Theory. Annual Review of Political Science,

11:387-412.

Van Niekerk, D., Van der Waldt, G. & Jonker, A. 2002. Governance, Politics and Policy in South Africa. South Africa: Oxford.

Viešasis, V. & Smalskys, V. (Eds). 2010. Vilnius: Mykolo Romerio universiteto leidybos centras.

Warner, M.E. & Hefetz, A. 2010. Service Characteristics and Contracting: The Importance of Citizen Interest and Competition, in The Municipal Year Book 2010. Washington, DC: International City County Management Association.

Warren, M.E. & Pearce, H. (Eds). 2008. Designing Deliberative Democracy: The British Columbia Citizens' Assembly. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Weiner, E., 2013. Expanding Participatory Democracy. In Urban Transportation

Planning in the United States (pp. 217-244). Springer New York.

White, G., and M. Robinson. 1998. Towards synergy in social provision: civic organizations and the state. In Beyond the New Public Management. Changing Ideas and Practices in Governance., edited by M. Minogue, C. Polidano and D. Hulme. Cheltenham & Northampton: Edward Elgar.

White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service, 1995. [Online]. From: www.dpsa.gov.za/dpsa2g/documents/acts&regulations/.../white-papers/wpstoc.pdf (Accessed 05 October 2018).

Willer, D., Borch, C. & Willer, R. 2002. Building a model for solidarity and cohesion using three theories. In S. R. Thye & E. J. Lawler (Eds), Group cohesion, trust and solidarity. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science.

World Bank Group. 2013. World Bank Group Work in Low-Income Countries under Stress: A Task Force Report, in Rogers, P.N. (Ed.), World Bank Group Work in Low-income Countries under Stress: A Task Force Report. World Bank.

World Bank. 2010. World Development Report 2010: Development and the Next Generation. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. 2011. World Development Report 2004: Making Services Work for Poor People. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. 2012. Community Service Recovery, background paper for World Development Report 2013. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Van der Colff, L. 2003. Leadership Lessons from the African Tree. Management Decision, 41 (3):257–261.

Young, F. 2004. Local government finance. New York, NY: Basic Books.