

ISSN: 2789-2298

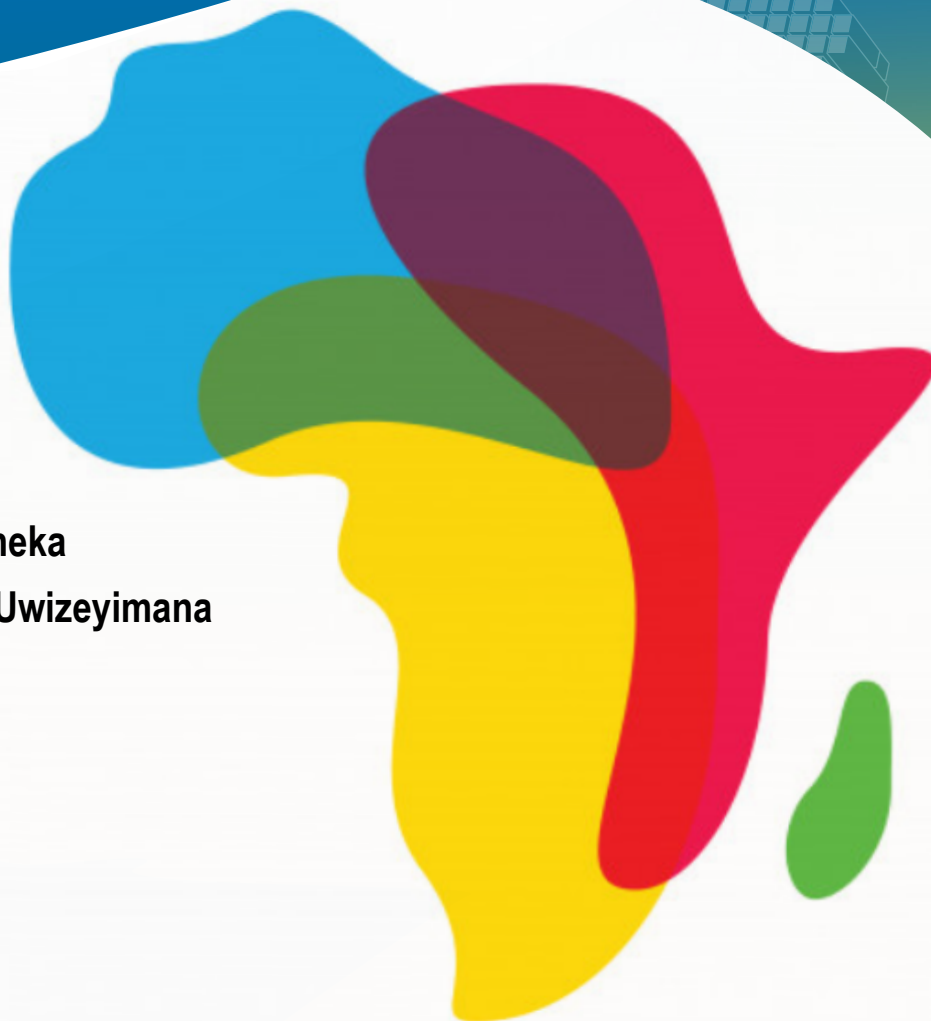
Volume 2. Issue 1  
Sept. 2023

*African Journal of*  
**GOVERNANCE AND  
PUBLIC LEADERSHIP  
(AJoGPL)**

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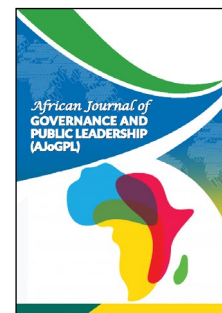
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AJoGPL  
ISSN: 2789-2298

Vol 2. Issue 1.  
pp. 3 - 6, Sept. 2023  
<https://ajogpl.kab.ac.ug>

## EDITORIAL

# Public sector measurement and stakeholder involvement: An unending deficit for sound public management in Africa

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The human race has cherished its existence on the assumption that those mandated to handle public sector affairs demonstrate accountable leadership and a zeal for serving nothing but the public interest. The concept of public interest attracts divergent meaning from public administration scholars. But its literal meaning is simply the service that protects the broader society interests as opposed to individual self-interest. Public sector organizations while they operate in a complex environment with a wide range of stakeholders, each with their own interests, demands an enviable focus on attainment of goals and objectives that serve the public interests. Public sector organizations have both internal and external actors whose interests are expected not only to be nurtured but strategically considered in any decision making that involves the use of public resources.

The world has conveniently been classified into developed and developing countries within public administration discourses and the UN nomenclature. Within public administration discourse, some developed countries tend to be associated with good governance practices while developing countries have bad governance-poor involvement of stakeholders, corruption, poor accountability, etc. Stakeholder involvement in developing countries is considered to be much better compared to developed countries where the involvement of stakeholders such as citizens in public sector organisations is rather limited (Graves *et al.*, 2002; and Splettstoesser, 1998). Some authors like Batley (1999) suggested that internal stakeholders such as public sector officials and civil servants are powerful groups who have sometimes crafted the art of giving selected external stakeholders more involvement than the citizens. Some of the external stakeholders with high involvement in many developing countries are (international) donors, such as funding agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs).

There are several features that, in varying degrees, are true for organizations that operate in the public context (Chenhall, 2003). Public sector organisations in developing countries tend to have specific characteristics which may influence the demand for and supply of performance information (Cavalluzzo and Ittner, 2004; Rainey *et al.*, 1976).

One of these characteristics concerns the nature of their objectives. Public sector organisations usually have multiple and conflicting objectives. Secondly, it is commonly believed that public sector organisations in developing countries still have a limited institutional capacity (Cassels and Janovsky, 1998). The limited institutional capacity is reflected in weaknesses in regulatory practice, a low level of public accountability, administrative inefficiencies, limited human resources, a lack of facilities, and insufficient funding (Nsouli, 2000; Van Crowder, 1996). These characteristics lead to situations in which it takes long bureaucratic procedures, with a lack of transparency, to deliver goods and services to the citizens (Henderson, 2001), in which the volume and quality of these goods and services is inadequate (Haque, 2003), and in which stakeholders have little information.

Public sector organisations in developing countries tend to operate in more informal ways than the formal ways. Informality is found in all countries but in developing countries it is often a main tenet of the economic system, including the private as well as the public sector (Schick, 1998). To address some of the challenges of public sector, many countries have subjected the public sector to numerous reforms. These came under the ideology of New Public Management (NPM) which is a paradigm that was applied extensively to the public sector reforms in developing countries (Basheka, 2018, Larbi, 1999). Public sector organizations rely increasingly on Public Management systems (Gerrish, 2016), fueled by the New Public Management movement (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011).

Hood (2007) distinguishes three types of PM: target systems, which measure performance against a standard, ranking systems, which measure performance against comparable units, and intelligence systems, which measure performance for background information. In this issue, four papers, each with a different focus on the broader subject of public sector performance are presented. The papers have different contexts of a public sector performance area but all converge on the primary goal of an efficient and effective public sector and a public sector that is driven by a need to meet the interests of stakeholders. Basheka and Kihamba in a comparative approach from Uganda and Tanzania generally present their evaluation of public sector organizations (PSOS) in the two countries. Their paper is based on the evaluation of the literature and synthesis of information concerning the public sector in the two countries. They conclude that the failure of the public service to effectively realize their performance from the early post-independence period to date are in most cases attributed to inadequate adherence to public service code ethics among the employees and inadequate capacity in terms of both financial and human resources which always affect performance of the public service. In addition, public service organizations performance has been affected by donor dependence syndrome in terms of planning and designing of implementation modalities, which in many cases lack local ownership and content.

Article two entitled '*The efficacy of government strategies to improve informal settlements in Rustenburg local municipality*' by Unathi. R Sishawu and Nokukhanya N. Jili from South Africa walks reader through a practical experience of public sector measurement in a local government context. The author gives readers a background on how there has been a growing global focus on the need to address the emergence and growth of informal settlements in the world's cities (Ziblim, 2013) and how millions of people have continued to live in informal settlements. The author calls for the attention of the public sector to address this challenge is the various stakeholders like citizens are to have genuine faith that the public sector works efficiently and effectively for the common persons. The author reminds us of how improving informal settlements is critical to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly

SDG 1 (no poverty). He calls upon government to re-evaluate some of the challenges which have been used to address the issue of settlements.

Selestina Pius and Denis Kamugisha present another article '*Understanding the Strategies Street-Level Bureaucrats Develop to Deal with Inclusive Secondary Education Restraints in Selected Schools in Tanzania*'. Through adopting an interpretative case study methodology that covered in-depth interviews, documentary reviews and observation and which analyzed data using content analysis, the findings revealed that, SLBs face limitations in service delivery due to various reasons including a lack of cooperation between policy makers and implementers. The authors also from the study confirmed that SLBs use pre-teaching, creaming, additional hours, simplifications, routinizing and referral as coping strategies, SLBs have little discretion and authority over inclusive educational service delivery. Therefore, policy makers and SLBs need to work jointly for a successful delivery of inclusive secondary education services in Tanzania. inclusive secondary education is not being effectively delivered at Mlingano and Tanga Technical Secondary Schools. The research recommend that the government should take action to heighten the delivery of inclusive secondary schools by allocating sufficient funds to buy essential equipment's needed in teaching inclusive classes for ensuring efficient and effective provision of inclusive education. Teachers, as frontline bureaucrats, should have a voice in policy making from the start. This is because they are the people who ultimately are implementing the plan. Possible benefits include improved communication and a more collaborative atmosphere among all parties involved. Finally, the study recommends delegating decision-making authority to local bureaucrats to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of providing inclusive services.

This issue is clothed by an article on '*an evaluation of the practice of constitutional basic values and principles of public administration in the Zululand district, Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa*', by Nokukhanya N. Jili. The author presents his findings on how Zululand has incorporated the values and principles of public administration with local government objectives. Zululand Municipality emphasises the importance of these values and principles to all its employees, encouraging them to continue using them in executing their daily tasks. The findings from the study indicate to readers how fundamental values and principles of public administration produce good governance in Zululand. The author concludes that Zululand district municipality (ZDM) has significantly applied the code of ethics, the values, and the principles of public administration as they are stipulated in the Constitution although they are implemented not in full capacity, according to the participants. These are useful lessons for other public administration systems in Africa.

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# Evaluating the performance of Public Service Delivery Organizations (PSDOs) in Uganda and Tanzania

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AJoGPL  
ISSN: 2789-2298

Vol 2. Issue 1.  
pp. 7 - 19, Sept 2023  
<https://ajogpl.kab.ac.ug>

## Abstract

There is a plethora of academic literature on the nature of public sector organizations. Generally, all public sector institutions exist to deliver certain services to the population. An assessment of their performance thus serves a primary purpose of checking how these institutions stand on their legal mandates. Undeniably, the public service institutions have since 1980s been candidates for a myriad of reforms and these reforms have been intended to make the public service organizations work better. This paper is about such efforts in Uganda and Tanzania. In both countries, governments have implemented a myriad of public service reform programmes to increase efficiency and effectiveness of the public sector. The extent to which these efforts have yielded substantive results is hardly examined. This paper through a comparative approach examines the performance of public service organizations in delivery of public services in both Uganda and Tanzania. Data for this assessment was obtained through an evaluation undertaking which relied on both secondary and primary sources. The findings overall suggest that there are some areas where public service organisations have performed well due to the reforms. The evaluation points out of an unfinished business as there remains a number of public service areas where performance has been doubted.

**Key words:** Civil Service, Public Service, Public Service Reform and Service Delivery, Uganda, Tanzania

## Introduction

Debates on the exact role of the state has tended to focus on assessing the efficiency and usefulness of public sector activities (Afonso, Schuknecht, & Tanzi, 2005, Basheka, 2018). This debate has scaled up to a growing dissatisfaction and mistrust by citizens of government services (Peters, 2004; Ngowi, 2007). Some scholars however even question what should constitute organizational performance or effectiveness (Selden and Sowa, 2004). The entry of other providers in service delivery like the private sector and the non-state actors generally has sometimes led to a questioning of the role of the state. The question is whom should the citizens hold accountable for the lapses in service delivery-government or the non-state actors? Basheka (2018:2) intimates that the debate on whether public services should be provided by the government or the private sector became a battle ground of scholarly and policy arguments at the time when governments were being accused of inefficiency by the 'old public administration' philosophies.

Public management relates to public sector organizations unlike private management whose domain is the private sector. The two are differentiated based on the degree to which direct state intervention in the delivery of services is involved. From a democratic perspective, government is an agent of the state and is charged with the responsibility of delivering public services through tax payer's money. Public sector reforms have tended to favour private sector involvement in the delivery of public goods and services. Rosenbloom, Kravchuk and Clerkin (2009:9) have guided that the government obligation to promote the public interest distinguishes public administration from private management.

Performance management in government has received increasing interest since the late 1980s and early 1990s when the role of the state in service delivery was under attack (Basheka, 2018). Most reforms were supported and implemented as a result of the 're-inventing government' agenda (Osbourne and Gabler 1992, Hood, 1991, Hughes, 2003) that prioritised the use entrepreneurial models in delivery of public services. With this debate came an idea of shared public service delivery between state and non-state actors. Of particular importance was the responsibility between government and the private sector as far as delivery of public services was concerned (Basheka, 2018, Hughes, 2003). It is clear from the literature that most developing countries emerged from independence with government playing a major role in society and economy (Hughes, 2003:220) but towards the 1980s this role was seriously questioned (Basheka, 2018).

The most important argument in favour of government role in service delivery has been efficient nature of organization which relies on Weber's ideal type of bureaucracy (Breton & Wintrobe, (1982: 33). Weber's model emphasizes rigidity yet, one of the inherent characteristics of public sector organizations is their innate ability to undergo reforms in order to respond to the internal and external dynamics and demands that evolve in countries overtime (United Republic of Tanzania, 2013:36). This attribute enables public sector organizations to undertake innovations that lead to adoption of new systems, processes, tools and structures for carrying out their mandates responsively, effectively and efficiently (URT, *ibid*:36). Public service organizations are dynamic, adaptive, responsive and transformational entities and are always striving to imbue with necessary values, additional strictures, management, tools, skills, among others (Olaopa, 2010: 110).

This paper reports on a study whose purpose was to:

- i. Examine and analyse the performance of public service organizations in Uganda and Tanzania using both secondary and empirical data to understand the state of reform interventions success or failure
- ii. Examine the possible explanatory factors for the performance of public sector organizations in both Uganda and Tanzania
- iii. Examine the most likely critical success factors needed for public sector organizations to achieve their intended objectives

## **Theoretical and Conceptual issues**

### **New Public Management theory**

Theoretically, the new public management theory offers an appropriate theoretical frame for a discussion on the performance of the public sector. This theoretical stance compares the role of government in service delivery *visa vis* other non-state actors. This theoretical perspective dubbed the 'New Public



Management Perspective' (NPM) is associated with the idea of reinventing government, re-engineering, revitalization and re-energizing of the public sector. This argument is scaled to the need for organizational transformation, applying certain private sector driven models like total quality management, entrepreneurship, empowerment, result oriented processes, downsizing/rightsizing, lean and mean management, contracting out, steering rather rowing, empowering rather than serving and earning rather spending (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, Hughes, 2003).

NPM focuses on decentralizing management and disaggregating the public sector. NPM theory focuses on improving efficiency, horizontally specialization in the public service organizations, marketization, adoption of private sector management style, explicit performance standards and output/outcome control (Christensen, 2012). NPM theory guided public sector reforms in Uganda and Tanzania and the reforms tended to be driven by the 'one-size fits all' prescription.

### **Public Service Reforms: Meaning and Purpose.**

Reforms in public service organizations have been inevitable but this calls that such reforms need to be consciously planned and effectively managed in order to achieve their intended results (URT 2013:36). The imperfectness of human arrangements and the nature of human beings to continuously search for performance improvement make reforms a characteristic feature of organizations, hence an inescapable routine (Bana and Ngware, 2006:205). Public Service Reform Programme (PSRPs) envisions fundamental changes in the way Government implement its planned activities to enhance efficiency and effectiveness overtime. Introducing reform programmes in the public service is however a complex process requiring support at the highest levels and great internal management confidence and skill (Corkery, *et al.*, 1998:1). Public service reforms basically have two official aims: (i) to adjust the functions and roles of the state in society to fit current government visions-issues of "what to do", (ii) to improve the efficiency, effectiveness, legitimacy and accountability of the state in carrying out those functions-issues "how to do it" (Kiragu and Mukandala, 2005).

Public service reforms are undertaken in order to restore the public to a path from which it had derailed, while at some other times public service reforms are borne out of the need to restructure it to handle challenges that may arise in the nearest future (Olaopa, *ibid*: 108). The concept of public service/civil service means the administrative machine that is established to assist those who exercise supreme political authority within a given state (Ademolekun, 2005:17). Public service is the main instrument of governments charged with the responsibility of translating national development policies and strategies into action. By virtue of its unique role as the engine for growth (Kikwete, 2008: i), it enlivens and keeps the machinery of government running effectively (Bentil, 2004: xiii). Thus, a functioning public service makes government of the day implements its plans smoothly, thus fulfilling what it promised to its citizens (Kikwete, 2008: i). However, the public service in any country is never static (Kuye, 2005:175), denoting "induced" systematic permanent improvement in the structure, process and management in order to attain efficiency and effectiveness.

The research problem is a both a conceptual and a theoretical one. Whereas governments in Africa have implemented reforms since the 1980s with a view of improving the performance of the public sector, limited knowledge remains on how the sector has performed. There is a general lack of studies intended to assess the performance of the public sector and offer useful lessons on what has worked and what has not worked. This scenario creates not only a knowledge gap in the area of practice but also scholars are denied

a chance to share experiences in the academic fora. Moreover, attempts which have been made to address this challenge do so only from a single country perspective. Comparative studies are limited and this has led to lack of understanding the differences and similarities in the state of public sector performance. This study used a comparative approach to address this challenge.

## **Methodology**

This paper builds on both primary and secondary sources. Primary data is used for the case of Uganda while the study on Tanzania relies on the secondary data. In Uganda's case, the findings are derived from several evaluation studies regarding the performance of various public sector organisations. The studies were intended to examine the efficiency, effectiveness, impact, and sustainability of public sector organizations. The assessment evaluated the existing reports from agencies of government like Auditor General as well as findings obtained from a self-administered questionnaire for the case of Uganda. The emerging findings were analysed alongside the thematic areas aligned to the evaluation criteria.

The findings from the studies are synthesized along the secondary report findings to identify a general state of evaluative performance of the PSOs in the country. The study used a deductive approach to review the literature and identify the main issues associated with performance or underperformance of PSOs in Uganda and Tanzania. In each country an attempt was made to map out in detail the nature of the reform interventions and the how the process was undertaken. We then use selected reforms to undertake an evaluation of the successes and failures. We describe, analyse and outline major success stories and sad stories in regard to the performance of the public sector in the two countries. We also examine some similarities and differences of reform interventions in these selected countries. Each of the countries has different classifications of PSOs and the assessment use a sample from the different classification categories.

### **Public Service Reforms in Uganda and Tanzania: The nature of the Reforms.**

The Public Sector Reforms (PSRs) in Africa often have similar aims and contain surprisingly similar components (Therkildsen, 2006). In Uganda and Tanzania in particular, there is little heterogeneity of public service reforms in terms of plans, designs, contents, periodization and implementation modalities. In both countries, the reforms can structurally be traced to the work of the Public Sector Review and Re-organization Commission (PSRRCs) of early 1990's. The adopted reform interventions were in the framework of the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) and many of the operational tools and processes, approaches and systems were externally generated (Corkery, *et al.*, 1998).

The major thrust of the reform interventions in both countries was cost containment through downsizing and rightsizing the public service delivery organizations whereby 153,000 and 91,000 employees were retrenched from Uganda and Tanzania public service organizations (Moti and Vambe, 2009; Mutahaba, *et al.* 2017, Mukandala, 2008). The reform interventions also focused on decentralizing government functions to Local authorities and streamlining and rationalizing ministerial structures and functions in both countries (Issa, 2019; Moti and Vambe, 2009; Mukandala, 2008:71) and addressed the issue of low pay, and capacity issues for improved service delivery (Mukandala, 2008:71). A number of reform initiatives were implemented and their outcomes largely depended on the support from donors and top political leadership of Uganda and Tanzania.

In the early 1990s, the presidents of Uganda and Tanzania declared themselves to be committed to transforming the administrative and raise performance of the public sector organizations. In Tanzania for example, from 1995 to 2005 the pace of restructuring, retrenchment and pay reform were among the focus of the then political leadership (Kiragu and Mukandala 2005). The reform also; (iii) contained uncontrolled growth of size of the size of the public service by monitoring new hiring and wage bill expenditure using a fully integrated Human Resources Management and Payroll System (Mutahaba, *et al.*, 2017; URT, 2013:39; Mukandala, 2008:71). And (iv) enhanced salary levels in the public service in real terms and made the pay structure more transparent, and consolidated.

### **Pay Reforms: the Politics on Payment of Living Wages in Uganda and Tanzania.**

By its nature, public services pay is inherently complex and political due to the fact it is determined and constrained by political leaderships (Mukandala, 2008). Political leaderships determine and approve how much governments should pay staff salaries without affecting other obligations. Public servants need to be adequately compensated to raise their morale and meet their living and other obligations (Basheka and Tshombe, 2018). However, wages need to be kept low, but not to the extent of endangering the survival and production of the labor force. Pay is a crucial to sustaining motivation, performance and integrity of public servants (Kiragu and Mukandala, 2005).

Across African countries evidence show that government employees either cut back their productivity or hours of work when salaries are low and the reduction in production is greater as the compensation diminishes (Kiragu and Mukandala, *ibid*). Government in Africa do not pay minimum living wage to their employees, remuneration is so low as to lead to “institutionalized corruption”, laxity and general lack of discipline (Kigundu, as cited by Kiragu and Mukandala, 2005). In addition, the public service pays levels in Sub-Saharan African were too low and uncompetitive which led to depletion of scarce motivational capital in the public service giving rise to: demotivation of civil servants at all levels; reduced work efforts; declining levels in performance; weakening of accountability and control mechanism and reduced commitment to the public service (Mutahaba, 2005).

In order to address these deficiencies associated with demotivated employees, governments in Africa and in particular Uganda and Tanzania introduce pay reforms as one among the public service reform interventions. The pay reform intervention aimed at increasing pay levels of the public servants a motivation for them to improve performance in service delivery. Before reform of 1990s public service salaries were extremely low in Uganda and Tanzania (Robinson, 1990; Mukandala, 2008). The public service delivery organizations in Uganda and Tanzania soon after independences in 1960s to 70s were lean, efficient, well-paid and highly motivated and served to the expectation of political leadership and citizens (Lumbanga, 1995). However, in the late 1980s and early 1990s, it was revealed that the public service delivery employees were extremely demotivated with abysmally low salaries and wages (Mukandala, 2008). The reform initiatives aimed enhancing pay level as a critical component of increasing employee morale and improve performance in service delivery.

The reform intervention enhanced salary levels in the public service in real terms and made the pay structure more transparent, and consolidated the pay structure by reducing 196 grades and 36 allowances to, respectively 45 grades and 7 allowances; (v) Launched the decentralization programme, created executive agencies, contracted out non-core activities such as security, cleaning, etc to the private sector, and instituted measures to re-engineer service delivery by the “quick wins scheme; (v) enhanced the

government capacity by injection of needed competencies and expertise through contract recruitment and ‘crash’ training programmes, which enhanced government capacity to implement reforms; (vii) improved policy and legislative environment for sustaining reforms (URT, 2013:39). The public service delivery organizations in both countries aimed at paying living wages to their employees as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1:** PSO salaries for the Year 1993 and 1997 for Uganda and Tanzania.

|                               | Uganda                    | Tanzania                  | Uganda                    | Tanzania                  | Uganda                       | Tanzania |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|----------|
| Categories of Public servants | Monthly pay in 1993 US \$ | Monthly pay in 1993 US \$ | Monthly pay in 1997 US \$ | Monthly pay in 1997 US \$ | Percentage Increase US\$ (%) |          |
| Primary Teacher               | 7.41                      | 25                        | 68.90                     | 91.52                     | 930                          | 366.08   |
| Nurse                         | 7.41                      | 22                        | 87.05                     | 76.27                     | 1,175                        | 346.68   |
| Policeman/woman               | 6.61                      | 20                        | 66.39                     | 76.27                     | 1,004                        | 381.35   |

Source: Kyarimpa, 2009; Kiragu and Mukandala, 2005; Lukumai, 2006.

The data above shows the first phase of public service reforms of Uganda and Tanzania where the two countries made some increase in pay levels as compared to the situation before reforms. The successes recorded from this reform intervention were short-lived in both countries since no minimum living wage (MLW) was achieved despite the pay rise in nominal terms. Service delivery did not therefore improve and in some cases, it was followed by reversals (Mukandala, 2018). At the end of 1990s CSRPs did not substantively achieve what it was expected particularly improved public service delivery (URT, 2013: 39). Accordingly, the reform initiatives did not improve performance in service delivery as it largely focused on cost containment than strengthening institutional capacity of the civil service (Mukandala, 2018:9).

In 2000 the Government of Tanzania launched the PSRP whose strategic drivers, included (i) a strong focus on service delivery improvements; (ii) institutional pluralism in public service delivery; (iii) shifting primary implementation responsibility to ministries, departments and agencies; (iv) a strong monitoring and evaluation mechanism; (v) strengthening links with other public sector reforms; and (vi) improving staff incentive framework under severe budgetary constraint. The scope of the programme was broader, wider and comprehensive, aimed at total transformation of the public service into a vibrant/robust, efficient, and effective and outcome-based institution (Mutahaba, *et al*, 2017). PSRP I involved two major thrusts: (i) the installation of Performance Management Systems in MDAs, involving adoption of strategic planning and programme budgeting methodologies, carrying out service delivery surveys, and client service charters; and (ii) modernization of the management of public service personnel (URT, 2013; Mutahaba, 2017). It had also seven interdependent components, namely (i) Performance Improvement Systems; (ii) Restructuring and Re-engineering; (iii) Human Capital Management; (iv) Leadership, Management and Staff Development; (v) Integrity and Diversity in the Public Service; (vi) Information Technology and Systems; (vii) Policy development, programme coordination, monitoring and evaluation (Mutahaba, 2017).

## **Performance of Public Service Organizations in Uganda and Tanzania: An Evaluation.**

### **Uganda**

Findings from the literature and primary sources suggest that Uganda’s public service organizations have achieved some notable positive results. For example, a number of the public sector organisations have

developed evidence-based policies, have improved the use of performance management systems and have improved management of public service through Human Capital Management (Kihamba, 2018). Through the public sector transformation evaluation, Uganda has identified the missing gap as being implementation of the policies. The same is reported in the case of Tanzania. Despite the positive results reported in some areas of the public sector, a crisis of under performance in other public service delivery organizations has been reported. The under performance is attributed to incompetency, poor accountability and declining service standards have continued to bedevil Uganda's public service and Tanzania (ESID, 2016; Issa, 2019). Poor Policy implementation, weaknesses in coordination of government, incompetence and uncommitted leadership, corruption, political patronage, and general lack of accountability from citizens.

Uganda Vision 2040 and NDP 2010/11-2014/15 cite weak public sector management and administration as the most binding constraint to economic growth and a key challenge to Uganda's development. According to the National Service Delivery Survey Report (2016), the general performance of civil servants was ranked as good by only 35.3% of the respondents. This shows the concern of the respondents on the performance gaps. The report notes that only 32% of the respondents ranked the attitude of public servants as good. When respondents were asked to rank government on utilisation of government resources, 88% of respondents believed that government buildings were for example appropriately utilised and 61.6% believed that government vehicles were appropriately utilised. There were reports of corruption where 17% of households had recorded incidences of corruption tendencies.

According to the Policy Paper on the Transformation of the Uganda Public Service (2013), the public service was characterised by inflexible procedures, long and manual processes, weak strategic linkages in planning and implementation of government intervention poor performance management practices, inflexibility in management, manual public management systems, inadequate funding and inadequate public service pay, poor work attitudes, insufficient leadership capacity, inadequate application of modern methods, a feeling of apathy, general lack of ethical values, ineffective complaints handling mechanisms amongst several. Within this environment, the reforms targeting the coordination function in the public sector which have been among the most recent in Uganda have been affected. In 2003, cabinet approved a coordination framework under the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) to ensure that all government programmes were monitored and evaluated in a rational manner. In practice, however, this role has remained shared among three other institutions: The Office of the President; the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED) and the National Planning Authority (NPA). This has created a state of 'uncoordinated coordination' that is functional to the members of the ruling inner circle.

The existing performance appraisal methods in PSOs have not adequately linked individual staff or departmental performance with performance of the PSOs. Instead, the appraisal methods have intended to evaluate personal traits and attributes rather than performance of tasks of the individual and the department. As a result, the extent to which outcomes of performance appraisal have been applied in decision making as a human resource practice has remained questionable. The performance of public sector organisations is also affected by poor oversight by the respective Boards. Moreover, the appointment of the board members of almost all the PSOs has remained a key governance area of concern as those who fail in elections and are aligned to the ruling establishment tend to be the candidates for appointment to such boards. Their competences and exposure in corporate governance are hardly considered.

The implication of this is that most of such PSOs fail to align their objectives with the new development agenda of the country (Vision 2040).

The Leadership question of the PSOs remains a key matter affecting the performance of these organisations (Basheka,2018). Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of Public Sector Organizations tend to lack mastery of the environmental factors and context in which their PSOs operate. This is demonstrated by their inability to mobilise diverse resources for implementing planned activities. A tendency to rely on state financing of most activities has been characteristic of most public sector organisations in Uganda.

A diagnostic review of the efficiency and effectiveness of public service organisations (PSOs) in Uganda conducted in 2009 found that there was lack of a comprehensive and coordinated monitoring and evaluation system for the PSOs in the country. PSOs then were not included in the National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation System (NIMES) under the Office of the Prime Minister and Government lacked a central data bank of information about PSO performance and how they contributed to the overall national social-economic performance. The study found several issues including the governance challenges which hindered promotion of efficiency and effectiveness. Out of 119 PSOs assessed, the study found that only 19 (22.6%) had Board Audit Sub-committees although 68 PSOs (80%) were found to have an operational internal audit function. These are key governance structures for efficiently managing public resources. Only 66 (78.5%) had then submitted audited accounts for up to 2006, 14 up to 2005, 13 up to 2004, and 6 up to 2003.

Regarding staffing, PSO sector establishment had total of 21,539 approved posts, whereas the actual number of persons employed was 24,149, indicating that there was 2,610 persons occupying unapproved posts. At the same time there were 3,081 vacancies against the approved positions, this implied that some PSOs were understaffed. The total annual wage bill was shillings 230 billion. The average gross expenditure on personnel was 30% (Shillings 409 billion) of the average annual budget (Shillings 1, 620 billion). There were questions of continued sustainability of PSOs. Out of one hundred nineteen PSOs, nine depend on donor support for over 60% of their annual budgets and thirty financed their annual budgets by over 70% from internally raised revenues.

## **Tanzania**

Tanzania has been recording encouraging economic growth during the last 17 years. For instance, from 2001 to date Tanzania has sustained an average annual growth rate of 6.7 to 7% as compared with 3.0% in the preceding decade (Mukandala, 2018). In addition, public service organizations in Tanzania have made improvements in policy making by making evidence-based policies using the standard guidelines; improved use of performance management systems by MDAs and their linkages to service delivery, (Kariuki,2017 as cited by Mukandala, 2018).

In addition, the performance of the public service organizations such as executive agencies and local government authorities and the education sector is on the lower side (Kihamba, 2018;2014; URT, 2012; Kihamba and Kamugisha, 2016; URT, 2018; 2019; Mutahaba, *et al.*, 2017). The reasons for this state affairs associated to: failure to internalize public service reform initiatives, shortage of financial resources, poor coordination of activities and low level of capacity of staff to undertake their core function as well as low morale and corruption (Mutahaba, *et al.*, 2017). On the education sector, poor performance was attributed to absenteeism of public servants or present at workstation while performing un-related works

(Mukandala, 2018). For example, the 2015 and 2016 TWaweza studies revealed that, 31 percent teachers were absent from workstations while 34 percent were present but not teaching and only 35 percent were teaching (Mukandala, 2018). The World Bank report also shows students received roughly 39 percent of the scheduled teaching time, which is equivalent to 2 hours and 46 minutes per day instead of official 5 hours and 56 minutes (WB, 2015).

The underperformance of the public service organizations was contrary to the expectation of the political leadership and the public at large in Tanzania since the government adopted the Malaysian's Performance Management Delivery Unit model branded the Big Results Now (BRN) in 2013. The BRN was expected to be strong and effective system that the government could use to oversee, monitor and evaluate the implementation of national development plans and programmes (The Commonwealth Secretariat, 2016:25). BRN reform initiative aimed at transforming Tanzania's public service delivery systems in six key ministries and it was wholly financed by donors (Mukandala, 2018). However, this reform initiative (BRN) was expensive, unpopular outside the six selected areas, attempted to short-circuit the formal civil service, and was abandoned by the fifth phase government leadership (Mukandala, 2018). The fifth phase government focused more on achieving results and curbing inefficiency and corruption within the public service (Issa, 2019). As a result performance of the public service organization to some extent improved. For example, in the sectors of health, water supply, electricity, and education service delivery were relatively improved (Issa, 2019). Accordingly, petty corruption and bribes were reduced and public service performance in service delivery rose from 49% to 58% (Issa, *ibid*). However, these notable improvements are not attributed to institutionalized performance culture with the public service organizations rather on a created fear of being terminated from the public service by the political leadership. The failure to institutionalize performance culture within public service undermines sustainability of the achieved performance records. Public service employees have remained demotivated due to inadequate/no salary increase for six years from 2016 to 2021 which affect their morale and commitment to public service delivery.

### **Critical Success Factors (CSFs) for public service organizations performance.**

From the primary and secondary sources, a synthesis of the critical success factors for performance of public sector organisations is discernible. Public service organizations need to have clear vision, mission and values which describe their existences and where they intend to go or be. In order to achieve these, all public service organizations need to have highly motivated, accountable and professional staff, adequate number of staff and financial resources. Almost all of the public service organizations are operating with shortage of staff, demotivated due to low salaries and other benefits. The presence of these is a critical requirement for accelerated performance. The need for high level of political commitment and civic competence among the citizens are a critical requirement for improved public sector. Dwindling accountability and corruption which are common in public service organizations (Mutahaba, *et al.*, 2017) need to be addressed for substantial progress to be made.

The other factors that could account for the performance of public service organizations include; quality of services, accountability of public officials, increased access to public services, increased pay levels and reduced incidents of corruption among others. A number of reform interventions were implemented and to a great extent, they have strengthened institutional capacity and legal frameworks, increased access to social services such as; health facilities, water facilities, education, and increased public awareness of corruption and its consequences (Mutahaba *et al.*, 2017).

## Conclusion and Policy Implications.

A well-functioning public service in any country is one that perform better and deliver quality public services consistent with citizen expectations. Public service organizations exist to deliver services to the populace and assessment of their performance serves a purpose of assuring various stakeholders how these institutions stand on their legal mandates. The results of evaluation suggests that Uganda and Tanzania public service organizations have achieved some notable positive results in terms of formulation of evidence-based policies and the use of performance management systems across MDAs. However, in many areas of their operations, the performance has not improved as was expected due to the incompetency of public service's staff, poor accountability and declining service standards. Many of the public service organizations have variously been accused of unsatisfactory performance and often demonstrating dysfunctional governance and management systems devoid of promoting the ideals of an efficient and effective public administration. Some have exhibited inefficient systems, poor behavioural attitudes and weak accountability structures as well as lack of an institutionalized performance culture. To deal with these concerns, public service organizations have to improve the working condition, improve salary levels and provide more opportunities for employees to increase their level of competences. In order to improve performance in service delivery, public service organizations need to have clear vision, mission and values which set direction. In addition, all public service organizations have to motivate their employees, raise their morale and commitments as well as enhance integrity.

The failure of the public service to effectively realize their performance from the early post-independence period to date are in most cases attributed to inadequate adherence to public service code ethics among the employees and inadequate capacity in terms of both financial and human resources which always affect performance of the public service. In addition, public service organizations performance has been affected by donor dependence syndrome in terms of planning and designing of implementation modalities, which in many cases lack local ownership and content.

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# The efficacy of government strategies to improve informal settlements in Rustenburg local municipality

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AJoGPL  
ISSN: 2789-2298

Vol 2. Issue 1.  
pp. 20 - 34, Sept. 2023  
<https://ajogpl.kab.ac.ug>

## Abstract

Various terminologies have been used to define informal settlements. Although definitions differ, they all have one thing in common, they are illegal and lack access to basic services. Nonetheless, the improvement of informal settlements has been a matter of discussion and critically important in recent years. It has been demonstrated that informal settlements are not a problem, but rather a solution to housing delivery shortages not only in South Africa, but worldwide. South African government has responded with a variety of strategies and policies, including Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and Breaking New Ground Initiative (BNG) to upgrade informal settlements. However, despite the existence of these strategies, informal settlements continue to grow and suffer from deplorable conditions.

Qualitative approach was used in this article and semi-structured in-depth interviews to investigate the efficacy of government strategies to informal settlements in Rustenburg Local Municipality. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with eighteen participants, including two municipal officials in Rustenburg Local Municipality. Findings indicate that the strategies implemented to improve informal settlements are ineffective; this was evident from the responses of participants who indicated that these settlements lack access to basic services. The lack of access to basic services in these settlements is a reflection of ineffective strategies. Hence, it is recommended that a review of the strategies that have been implemented will result in greater transformation.

**Key words:** Informal settlements, Informal settlement strategies, Rustenburg local municipality

## Introduction

Over the last two decades, there has been a growing global focus on the need to address the emergence and growth of informal settlements in the world's cities (Ziblim, 2013). According to Vahapoglu (2019), millions of people live in informal settlements around the world, and this number is expected to double in the coming years. This is due to an increase in the number of immigrants from rural areas to urban areas, as well as refugees fleeing armed conflict and climate change seeking safe havens. Though informal settlements provide some opportunities for residents, they also lack services such as infrastructure to support health and wellness, such as clean water and sanitation (Vahapoglu, 2019).

To localize the improvement of informal settlements, several developing-world countries, including Kenya, India, and Brazil, have launched national slum-upgrading programs (Ziblim, 2013). Along the same lines, the South African government revised its housing policy in 2004 to include an understandable national program dedicated to the upgrading of the country's informal settlements (Ziblim, 2013). In other words, governments in several developing countries have responded to the problems of informal settlements for several decades with a variety of measures and approaches, including denying their existence and reacting with various approaches such as eviction and demolition of settlements in various parts of settlements.

However, despite the existence of these measures and instruments implemented to improve informal settlements, Rustenburg is facing challenges of inadequate houses. As a result, the city experiences rapid growth of informal settlements. People in Rustenburg's informal settlements do not have access to adequate housing, and they continue to live in settlements with a poorer quality of life and standard of living. According to Vahapoglu (2019), eviction and demolition strategies have failed to address the cultural and material realities that drive the creation and growth of informal settlements. Failure to address these realities has resulted in an energizing and growing interest in improving informal settlements and attempting to formalize land tenure for residents of these informal communities (Vahapoglu, 2019).

Given this context and aforementioned problem statement, the purpose of this article is to identify the strategies used by the Rustenburg Local Municipality to improve informal settlements. Its aim is to assess the efficacy of the developed strategies and to highlight the ground realities of the adopted strategies.

## **Literature Review**

### **Theoretical review**

The sustainable livelihood and social development approaches were used to gain a better understanding of the phenomena under investigation. According to Ojo (2018), the sustainable livelihood approach helps the poor understand how to live by implementing self-sufficiency measures. This strategy aims to identify and develop assets, strategies, and poor groups in order to improve the livelihoods of informal settlements dwellers (Farrington, 2001).

In contrast, a social development approach is a theory developed to guide the government through social development strategies implemented through the exchange of ideas or knowledge. It seeks to enhance human well-being in society (Julliet, 2010). According to Patel (2015), this approach was intended to inform programs aimed at redressing historical imbalances, discrimination, and exploitation, one of which was the RDP for housing. In this article, these theories were useful in understanding the research questions and the importance of providing sustainable livelihoods and social development through effective strategy implementation.

### **Defining informal settlements**

Various terms have been coined and used to define informal settlement. Many scholars and reports, including The Global Report Revived on Human Settlement (2010), define "informal settlement" as a broad range of low-income settlements and low living standards that characterize the most visible manifestations of poverty and vulnerability. These settlements are illegally constructed on land that has not been designated for residential use. The existence of informal settlements is a result of urbanisation, which has grown faster and wider than the government's ability to provide land infrastructure and housing (Adlard, 2020).

The definitions of informal settlements provided do not take into account the complexity and heterogeneity of informal settlements. They make no recommendations for specific indicators for identifying and measuring them (UN-Habitat, 2015). Thus, the UN-Habitat Environmental Monitoring Group (EMG) in Nairobi agreed that informal settlements or slums should be defined as a group of people living under one roof who lack access to water, sanitation, secure tenure, housing durability, and adequate space (UN-Habitat, 2006).

According to the definitions provided, the term "informal settlement" is defined differently from one point to the next; it is defined in terms of attributes such as individuals, legality, structure, conditions, and service delivery. Hence, Informal settlement is defined in this article as the illegal use of land, particularly on the urban outskirts, by those forced by circumstance to occupy vacant lands they find convenient, available, and suitable for residential purposes. Access to basic services and social infrastructure is limited in these settlements. These settlements can be found both in rural and urban areas.

Furthermore, they are becoming more common and are becoming increasingly associated with the world's largest cities, particularly in Africa, America, and Asia (Jones, 2017). The findings obtained on the literature indicate that informal settlements are developed on land that is not designated for building houses in the city's master plan. Jili (2012) attests that informal settlements are built on illegally occupied land through self-help. Self-help housing is a project in which households construct their own homes using only their own hands and skills.

According to Ngetich, Opata, Mwasi, Obiri, and Meli (2015), informal settlements are caused by a variety of factors, including poverty, unemployment, corruption, and poor housing policies. Poverty and underlying global and national macroeconomic factors, particularly wealth distribution and job creation, play a critical role in determining the informal development process (Ngetich *et al*, 2015). Ngetich *et al*. also claim that corruption, as well as the context and nature of government housing policies, have a significant impact on the growth of informal settlements.

### **Improving informal settlements**

The right to adequate housing and a decent standard of living is a fundamental human right enshrined in article 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Dept. Of HS, 2019). However, the international Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights has limited this right (ICESR). Article 11 obligates state parties to the covenant to recognize everyone's right to an adequate standard of living and to continuous improvement of their conditions (SAHRC, 2020/21).

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which was adopted in 2015 by all United Nations Member States, including the South African government (South Africa), provides a shared blueprint for peace and prosperity for people and the planet now and in the future. The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are at the heart of it, and they are an urgent call for action by all countries, developed and developing, in a global partnership (Arora & Mishra, 2019). They recognize that strategies to improve the lives of slum dwellers by 2030, improve health and education, reduce inequality, and spur economic growth must coexist with efforts to improve environments, combat climate change and protect our oceans and forest (Arora & Mishra, 2019). On the same line, the Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development and the Plan of Implementation, adopted in 2002 at the World Summit on Sustainable Development in South Africa, reaffirmed the global community's commitments to poverty eradication and

environmental protection, and expanded on Agenda 21 and the Millennium Declaration by emphasizing multilateral partnerships (Arora & Mishra, 2019).

This reveals that the concept of informal settlement improvement implies that the government has recognized that informal settlements are not going away; they are here to stay, and the residents have the right to live there. In other words, the improvement of informal settlements has been recognized and accepted as a significant component and a relevant approach to addressing the housing crisis. This is conquered by Ziblim (2013), who conquered that informal settlements should not be viewed as a housing problem, but as an embodiment of a fundamental social change, the solution to which requires a "multi-sectoral partnership, long-term commitment, and political fortitude."

Satterwaite (2012) argues that the South African government endorsed the improvement of informal settlements because the first democratic government believed that improving informal settlements will resolve housing problems by supporting new housing for low-income groups. This is evident by various policies, strategies, and measures such as RDP, BNG and UISP, that were developed by the government to indicate the acceptance and betterment of informal settlements.

However, despite the existence of these instruments and programs, informal settlements continue to be plagued by deplorable living conditions. Evidently, by the inhumane conditions endured by residents of informal settlements. Letsoko (2020) confirms that various eradication strategies, such as RDP, have failed to prevent the growth of informal settlements and improve those that already exist.

### **Upgrading informal settlements: global interventions**

Satterwaite (2012) contends that informal settlement instruments and initiatives are important for addressing some aspects and elements of deprivation faced by large segments of the low-income population. They become the most important part of ongoing national and local government investment and management programs, with strong partnerships with residents of settlements being or to be upgraded, so that they are more effective on a larger scale. This is also supported by (Tissington, 2011), who maintains that there are several pieces of legislation and initiatives in place both nationally and locally that firmly support the provision of adequate housing and the upgrading of informal settlements. The South African Constitution of 1996, the National Housing Code, and the Breaking New Ground initiative are among them. With the South African Constitution being dubbed the most "progressive" in the world in terms of guaranteeing individuals' socioeconomic rights in relation to adequate housing (Tissington, 2011)

In Indonesia, the Kampung Improvement Programme was the first large-scale upgrade program, beginning in 1969 with the upgrading of unserved, village-like, low-income settlements in Jakarta and Surabaya. Its evolution saw it go through various phases and aspects, as well as being expanded and extended to other metropolises. Initially, the focus of the program was on providing services such as roads, paths, water, sanitation, and drainage. Satterwaite (2012), on the other hand, claims that this program was designed and developed by professionals with little input from local citizens. This implies that there was a lack of citizen participation in the development of this program. Local residents were excluded from the program's development and implementation. As a result, this program was a failure because it was insufficiently effective in protecting all residents of informal settlements from eviction.

According to Bermina (2012) and Ali (2014), the Egyptian local government implemented a redevelopment strategy to deal with informal settlements. In response to the failed attempt of the Maspero Triangle, this strategy aimed at evacuating people and relocating them to decent settlements suitable for human habitation. Similarly, Chirisa and Matamanda (2019) state that the eviction and demolition strategy was used in Zimbabwe as an urban renewal strategy. Millions of people became homeless as a result of this strategy, as the government launched the operation "Murambatsvina," which translates to "remove filth," in 2005. On July 7, 2005, official government figures revealed that 92 460 housing structures were demolished, directly affecting households (Chirisa and Matamanda, 2019).

In addition, an estimated 700,000 households were impacted, and over a million people lost their livelihood as a result of the operation (Amnesty International, 2010). Because of the negative effects on people, these strategies/practices are ineffective; they do not solve problems, but rather create new ones (Khalil, EL-Aaal, Quintero, Aayash, El-Warab, Ibrahim, & Marei, 2016). Chirisa and Matamanda (2019) contends that Zimbabwe's policies forced those affected to live with relatives, while others were left homeless in overcrowded and health-threatening conditions.

Ogu (1996) and Ogu and Ogbuozobe (2001) reveal that the Federal Housing Programme, which involved slum clearance and dweller resettlement and in which the World Bank (WB) assisted with settlement upgrading and site services schemes implemented in Nigeria over the last six decades, was a failure. In Lagos, Nigeria, 300,000 people were forcibly evicted without adequate resettlement arrangements (Agbola and Jinadu, 2002). The study confirms the oppressive "bulldozer" eviction policy that prevailed in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. With the official state's intention only of eradicating informal settlements and relocating people elsewhere, most likely in public housing (Khalifa, 2015). This policy or strategy was centred on land acquisition, land banking, and traditional housing projects.

As a result of the consequences of these programs/strategies implemented in Nigeria, most families became homeless, and as a result, women were forced into prostitution for survival (Anyigor, Giddings, & Matthews, 2017). The emphasis of the programs adopted to deal with informal settlements was on environmental transformation while ignoring the consequences and vulnerability that the programs would bring to the people. They were not in favour of the urban poor; rather, they were concerned with environmental issues rather than social and economic concerns. Furthermore, the adopted programs, approaches, and strategies did not contribute to the improvement of urban living standards.

### **Informal Settlement Upgrading: policies and strategies in South Africa**

In South Africa, informal settlements received national attention. This was when the Department of Housing placed informal settlements on the national agenda, recognizing and admitting that "informal settlements are the result of failed policies, ineffective governance, and corruption, poor urban management strategies, dysfunctional and inequitable land markets, a discriminatory financial system, and a profound democratic deficit" (Mbandla, 2004 as cited in Nkoane, 2019).

Since the discovery of informal settlements as the result of failed policies, the government has attempted to address the issues surrounding informal settlements by developing legislation, policies, and initiatives, such as the provision of subsidized housing and the upgrading of informal settlements. According to Nkoane (2019), one of the informal settlement interventions in South Africa is the capital subsidy scheme, which began in 1994. The subsidy entailed relocating residents of informal settlements to land



that is suitable and convenient for residential use, where they will receive freehold units (Huchzermeyer, 2003). Furthermore, RDP was used to develop this subsidy scheme.

RDP aimed to alleviate poverty and address massive disparities in social services across the country (Mamba, 2006). The *BORGEN Magazine* adds that RDP establishes a government-funded housing program to house low-income residents. Between 1994 and 2001, the government built over 1.1 million low-cost houses, housing nearly one million of South Africa's estimated 12.5 million homeless people (Mamba, 2006).

However, RDP was later called into question after numerous concerns were raised about it. The trajectory of this program has shifted dramatically in recent years; the government was unable to meet the demand for RDP housing, resulting in the growth of large informal settlements with low living standards and a large population (Masiteng, 2013). Poor housing delivery is a common criticism of RDP; most houses built are of poor quality and are collapsing. Concerns and criticism of RDP resulted in a policy shift in 2004 that gave birth to the Breaking New Ground initiative (BNG).

### **Breaking New Ground**

Van Horen (2000) maintains that the Department of Housing's unveiling of the BNG in 2004 created a direction that includes a program aimed specifically at improving informal settlements. The goal of this policy is to increase the delivery rate of suitable quality housing in well-located areas through a variety of innovative, demand-driven housing programs and projects (Tissington, 2011). Tissington (2011) goes on to say that this policy aims to achieve the following goals:

- Accelerate the implementation of a housing strategy for poverty alleviation.
- Combat crime, promote social cohesion, and improve the poor's quality of life.

This approach, if properly implemented and practiced with political will, has the potential to eliminate the need for formalisation by providing a sufficient supply of quality housing at an affordable cost to the poor. It will reduce the disparity between the lower classes, the poor, the regulations, and their requirements. Moraba (2013) contends that the outcomes of this initiative do not always correspond with the original policy intentions. The standard of living in informal settlements does not correspond to what is proposed in the BNG initiative. According to BNG, all informal settlements should have access to sustainable human settlement conditions, including basic services such as water, electricity, and sanitation (Chikoto, 2009).

### **Upgrading Informal Settlement Programme**

The modification of the National Housing Policy resulted in the BNG initiating a number of new areas of focus for the housing program (Charlton, 2009). As a result, the BNG incorporated a UISP with a dedicated subsidy mechanism (Huchzermeyer, 2006). According to Mbunjana (2017), the UISP is the primary tool used by municipalities in South Africa to guide informal settlement intervention. The primary goal of the ISUP, as stated in the South African Housing Code (2004), is to facilitate the structured upgrading of informal settlements.

UISP is a program that has shifted the way informal settlements are perceived in South Africa. It was implemented in 2004 as a result of a significant shift in housing policy (Nkoane, 2019).

This program allows for on-site upgrading of informal settlements while causing as little disruption to residents' lives as possible (Huchzermeyer, 2009).

Furthermore, ISUP is a program that provides grants to accredited municipalities that undertake sustainable housing development projects aimed at improving slum community conditions. This program supports in-situ upgrading and opposes relocation, except in unchangeable circumstances where in-situ cannot be used for different and legitimate reasons, such as where the land is unsuitable and unstable (Zimblim, 2013). According to Housing Code Part 3 (2009), UISP promotes informal settlement improvement in order to achieve three complex and interconnected policy goals: tenure, security, health and safety, and empowerment of informal inhabitants through a participatory process.

It is critical to note that certain in situ involvements include the provision of interim services, such as water through communal water taps, and intermission waste collection and sanitation (Misselhorn, 2010; Crous, 2014; Adegun, 2014 as cited in Nkoane, 2019). The HDA, National Planning Commission, Medium-Term Strategic Framework, and Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act No.16 of 2013 all support the improvement of informal settlements through UISP.

According to the Housing Development Agency (HDA), housing departments in all levels of government (national, provincial, and local) identified the need for a multifaceted approach to addressing the challenges of informal settlements in South Africa after recognizing that providing subsidized housing is not sustainable for a variety of reasons, including relocation. HDA (2014), also contends: that "the shift is toward a more rapid, participatory, and broad-based response, led in most cases by the provision of basic services to informal settlements (in-situ) along with basic, functional tenure."

Providing low-income housing will merely constitute a small fragment of the informal settlement response attributable to the gradual time frames coupled with expensive cost, thus the new upgrading approach is incremental and infrastructure-led. (HDA, 2014) Formalization may be impossible because this is intended to prioritize interim services in the government's service delivery program.

Some of the initiatives developed to improve informal settlements include the GreenShack (Touching the Earth lightly), I-Shack (University of Stellenbosch), Butterfly House (Elemental Housing Solutions), and Empowershack (Khayalam and ETH) (Cirolia, 2017). Simiyu *et al.* (2018) also reveal that several projects, such as the ESIS project in Cape Town, were launched in South Africa to improve informal settlements. The project's goal was to provide basic services such as water, sanitation, and waste collection to all informal settlements.

Furthermore, the Emergency Housing Programme (EHP) is a significant government initiative addressing issues related to informal settlements. The EHP aims to enable local governments to provide emergency relief to people in urban and rural areas by providing land, engineering services, relocation assistance, and housing. This program has designated evictions and the threat of eviction as emergencies (Tissington, 2012). The Social Housing Foundation (2010), on the other hand, claims that local and provincial governments misused this program. Despite its potential utility in addressing the temporary housing needs of those evicted in both rural and urban areas.

As previously stated, improving informal settlements is not a novel concept; several countries have used this approach to address issues related to informal settlements (Khalifa, 2015). According to Marais and Ntema (2011), the failure of a policy in South Africa in the mid-1980s that focused on informal settlements, prioritizing eradication with limited upgrading, resulted in a large number of people from low-income groups invading open land across the country in the 1990s. This movement resulted in the establishment of the Independent Development Agency (IDA). In the 1990s, IDA was the first large-scale informal settlement in South Africa (Marais and Ntemba, 2011).

Furthermore, Marais and Ntema (2011) state that: "The IDT used a capital subsidy of R7500 per household to provide water, sanitation, electricity, and formal ownership. Approximately 100000 households in informal settlements were provided with housing opportunities as a result of the process, which included site-and-services and settlement upgrading."

According to the context provided, upgrading informal settlements is not a radical concept, even in South Africa. The upgrading of informal settlements did not begin with the end of apartheid; even before that, policies and interventions such as IDT were developed to address informal settlements.

## **Methodology**

### **Rustenburg and Informal Settlements**

Rustenburg was founded in 1851 as an administrative centre for the Afrikaner farming area (Unknown Online, 2019). RLM is a Category B municipality and one of five municipalities in Bojanala Platinum District. It is one of the largest municipalities in South Africa with a rapidly growing population due to mine industries within it, making it the most populated municipality in North West.

Rustenburg has a strong local economy due to various establishments such as restaurants, and it is home to the world's largest platinum mines, which have a greater value than gold (Motaung, 2016). In terms of education, the system is a three level system: primary, secondary, and tertiary.

It is important to note that this article focuses on three informal settlements: Freedom Park-Phase One, Freedom Park-Number Nine and Fourteen. Freedom Park was founded in 1986 by a group of women who set up shacks to sell liquor to mineworkers (Unknown Online, 2013). While, others were drawn by the prospect of employment in nearby mines. These settlements have little or no public infrastructure, people lack access to adequate housing, water and sanitation and electricity.

In this article, a qualitative approach with semi-structured in-depth interviews was used to collect and analyse data. According to Royse (2004), Creswell (2014), and Maree (2016), qualitative researchers use in-depth interviewing and observations to understand phenomena and allow participants to talk about their experiences, concerns, and worldview. This method is more concerned with deciphering the meaning of the phenomenon and focusing on the connections between a large number of qualities across relative cases (Sarantakos, 2013). This means that it was possible to obtain the opinions, behaviour and experiences of people about the phenomena (directly from them) when they were the subject of research through this method.

The nature of this article demanded a qualitative research design, thus, a phenomenology research design was used. The nature of the data to be collected and the problem statement addressed necessitated the selection of this research design (Helao, 2015). Rich, detailed data was produced and obtained directly from the participants using the phenomenology research design, while their perceptions remained unchanged. The adoption of semi-structured in-depth interviews resulted from the solicitation of phenomenology research design. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with a sample of 18 participants (who are given pseudo names for confidentiality purposes) from various informal settlements (Freedom Park-Phase One, Freedom Park-Number-Nine, and Fourteen), as well as municipal officials from the Department of Housing within the Rustenburg Local Municipality. Field notes were taken during interviews, and recording was used where permission was granted. Some participants prohibited the use of recordings, while others stipulated that recordings be deleted after data unpacking/analysis.

Questions were interpreted or translated into the participants' native languages, Setswana and IsiXhosa. Prior to the interviews with the officials, the interview questions were distributed to the municipal officials, who enthusiastically participated. The findings in the section below are analysed qualitatively through the use of a thematic analysis.

## Results and Discussion

The findings indicate that the municipality is implementing strategies to improve the conditions of informal settlements. These strategies, according to municipal officials, include the UISP. According to the opinions expressed by participants, the municipality employs five strategies, all of which are related to UISP. The UISP, according to the findings, is implemented using an in-situ approach. Participants A and B confirmed that the municipality is providing interim services to informal communities, such as gravel roads, communal water taps, and Jojo tanks in some parts of the settlements, particularly in F.Park-Phase One and F.Park-Number Nine.

Both participants A and B stated that: “**Strategy 1:** is the interim services. This strategy entails providing clean water and solid waste removal. The municipality is making use of this strategy because some settlements, such as Freedom Park, are built on privately owned land. Moreover, it is perilous and expensive for a municipality to invest in land privately owned land because the owner may come and claim the land back. Hence, this strategy is used to ensure that dwellers of informal settlements have access to basic services”

Other strategies divulged by the participants A and B are as follows:

- **Strategy 2:** involve conducting community engagement with the affected community and the plan on how the process will unfold. Participants were not fluent in how the municipality is engaging with the settlements.
- **Strategy 3:** is the security of tenure.
- **Strategy 5:** is the placing of infrastructure services. Participants A and B shared similar perceptions that the municipality created gravel roads in some parts of settlements. These findings are similar to the sentiments of participants FNN05 and FP06 who mentioned that some parts of Freedom Park-Number 9 and Freedom Park-Phase 1 have gravel and paved roads.
- **Strategy 4:** involves the building of homes for all qualifying beneficiaries. According to the participants the municipality was using this strategy for a long time; for instance, some of the dwellers (qualifying beneficiaries) from Freedom Park-Number 9 were relocated to Freedom Park-Phase 1.

Ziblim (2013) confirms the preceding findings. According to Zimblim, UISP is an informal settlement intervention that promotes in-situ upgrading and opposes relocation, except in unchangeable circumstances where in-situ cannot be used for different and legitimate reasons, such as where the land is unsuitable and unstable. The Housing Code Part 3 (2009) also triumphs, confirming that the UISP promotes informal settlement improvement in order to achieve three complex and interconnected policy goals: tenure, security, health and safety, and empowerment of informal inhabitants through participatory processes. On the other hand, fifty percent of participants believe that no visible strategies are being developed to improve informal settlements. According to one of the participants in FP-Number 9, "there are no strategies that are used, the filthy environment characterised by rats eating children, is enough evidence that there are basically no programs set to ensure the improvement of these areas".

The gist of this assertion is that if there had been action plans to improve these settlements, there would have been visible changes in these settlements. Adding to the sentiments, some participants acknowledged that great strategies have been developed within local government; however, poor implementation of these strategies and corruption have undermined their effectiveness. Heydenrych (2016) testifies extensively on the poor implementation of strategies, emphasizing the importance of producing good policies in any democracy. They must be produced because they are necessary for a democracy to function.

It is also critical to consider that well-written policies without proper implementation serve no purpose. Heydenrych's reports support the findings that the government has beautiful strategies; the problem is corruption, poor communication, and execution. Corroborating the views of participants, A and B, 40% of the participants stated that the municipality used infrastructure placement as a strategy to improve informal settlements. Moreover, it appears that the municipality has provided gravel roads in some parts of the settlements, particularly in Freedom Park-Number 9 and Phase 1. Some parts of Freedom Park-Phase One have pavement roads, according to participant FP04 in FP-Phase One.

Others raised that the government employs a poverty-to-poverty strategy. . Participants reinforced their assumptions by observing that instead of improving, residents are becoming poorer and government officials are becoming wealthier. Relocation is another strategy that emerged from participant responses, such as Participant FP04. According to the findings, the municipality relocated people to better houses in recent years; for example, some of the residents (qualifying beneficiaries) of Freedom Park-Number 9 were relocated to RDP houses in Freedom Park-Phase 1. Participant FP04 in FP-Phase One confirmed that she was one of the beneficiaries relocated from F-Number 9 in F-Phase 1.

38 years ago, Martin (1983) discovered that relocation is socially disruptive and often less favourable, resulting in higher transportation costs and less access to economic opportunities. However, the findings discovered that some people enjoy and prefer relocation. Participants' observations bolstered the findings by indicating that relocation can sometimes mean relocating to better opportunities, a better life, and a social and healthy environment.

### **Efficacy of interventions and strategies adopted to improve informal settlements**

One of the objectives of this article is to determine the effectiveness of adopted strategies and/or interventions for improving informal settlements. These strategies are ineffective, according to the findings, as confirmed by participants (A & B). Participants A and B stated that "these strategies are not assisting much in curbing the growth of informal settlements within the RLM." Instead, the laborious

processes that are followed during formalisation result in the formation of new settlements”. Participants clarified that the augmentation and contraction of informal settlements is used to measure and monitor the efficacy of these strategies. In Rustenburg, there is an increase in informal settlements. This indicates that the strategies are not slowing the growth or development of informal settlements. Others have observed that these strategies are ineffective in addressing the needs of the settlements. The findings also indicate that poor implementation and execution are the main factors impeding the efficacy of these initiatives. Participants came to the conclusion that these strategies are improperly communicated and executed.

According to the participants, the inaccessibility of services in these settlements is an indication of ineffective strategies. These findings confirm the social development. Social development approach seeks to improve human well-being in society (Julliet, 2010). This implies that the government should make investments in people's health, education, and employment opportunities. To improve these strategies, some positive comments from the participants suggested the improvement of communication and consultations mediums by the municipality.

Participants expressed how the poor relationship and lack of communication influenced the strategic outcomes. Participant A believes that the relationship between the municipality and the settlements is both good and bad. The Municipal Systems Act remarks that for municipalities to improve their accountability, strengthen their relationships, and provide effective outcomes for their programs. Citizens, including informal dwellers, must be involved in the planning, implementation, and strategic decisions. A developing society necessitates inclusivity; developing informal settlements is one of the key elements for the country's faster economic growth and poverty reduction. The social development approach emphasizes the importance of social development by implementing appropriate strategies to improve communities.

According to Norman, Byambaa, De, Butchart, Scott, and Vos (2012), a lack of community projects has left people in informal settlements vulnerable to poverty and with few options in their communities. Furthermore, while projects in communities, particularly in rural areas and informal settlements, are established as a strategy to create jobs and reduce poverty, some fail and others are not economically sustainable (Norman *et al.* 2012).

In recent years, community participation has become an essential component of democratic practice. Consultation is one of the Batho Pele principles; this principle requires all government objects to consult the communities whenever changes or plans affecting the communities are implemented. According to Myeni (2014), this principle is the foundation of the community participation process. Conversely, effective community participation ensures long-term human development. These findings support Ziblim's (2019) findings, confirming that community participation is an effective way to empower slum communities to transform their livelihoods. Lack of effective community participation can stymie timely and successful project implementation. The findings confirm the importance of community participation in the completion of IDPs and budget allocation.

Matsie (2019) expresses that: "participatory processes ensure that service provision and infrastructure development are context-specific, responsive to various vulnerabilities (social, economic, and environmental), and representative of diverse needs and aspirations. Residents' localized knowledge of

the settlement and lived experience in the community are used in the processes”.

The essence of Matsie's expressions highlights the importance of participatory, communication, feedback, and settlement inclusion in local affairs.

### **Ground realities**

The findings of this article show that the efficacy of these strategies is governed and determined by ground realities. Participants emphasized social, economic, and environmental challenges as the ground realities of these strategies. Participants agreed that the ineffectiveness of the strategies in place is reflected in these challenges. According to the findings, poor access to water, sanitation, and poorly managed waste collection is a challenge that contributes to informal settlements serving as infection hotspots. Poor waste collection maintenance harms both the health of poor households and the environment. These settlements according to the sentiments of participants lack secure dumping areas; as a result, people dispose of their garbage anywhere. Water and sanitation facilities are inadequate and poorly managed, failing to meet the needs of the people and the conditions of the settlements. Msimang (2017) affirms that living in informal settlements exposes people and the land they occupy to environmental risks. In informal settlements, there is a lack of basic services such as water and sanitation, as well as pollution, overcrowding, and ineffective waste management. These characteristics have a negative impact on the environment and increase the risk of health problems associated with informal settlement (Msimang, 2017).

This implies that people in informal settlements are exposing their health by drinking contaminated water, using pit latrine toilets, and defecating in forests and other open spaces. Participants also stated that these settlements are overcrowded and impoverished, and that they require all forms of government assistance. These findings are similar to and consistent with those of Matsie (2019), who agrees that informal settlements are frequently overcrowded and impoverished areas.

Concerning housing, dwellings were of mediocre quality in terms of construction. Some RDP houses in Phase 1 were reported to be tracking, which was identified as a challenge. People built self-contained houses out of poor and old materials, which resulted in leakage and water flooding inside the shelter when it rained. Inadequate quality housing in informal settlements is also a challenge and a common phenomenon in several countries, including Tanzania, Nigeria, Mozambique, Ghana, and South Africa (Simiyu *et al*, 2018; Daniel, 2015; Govender, 2015).

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Improving informal settlements is critical to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly SDG 1 (no poverty). This article looked at the effectiveness of government strategies for improving informal settlements. Following the results, the findings reveal that there are strategies being developed to upgrade informal settlements in Rustenburg. Based on these findings, it is possible to conclude that the strategies used are ineffective. They are not responding to the needs of the settlements, nor are they environmentally upgrading these settlements. To improve these strategies and/or the municipality's performance, the municipality should use a variety of methods to address the shortcomings of the existing strategies. A review of the strategies that have been implemented will result in greater transformation. Some initiatives, projects, and programs fail due to a lack of skills among government officials in charge of implementation. To combat strategy failure, specific implementation programs, specifically for policy implementers, must be implemented and made mandatory for them to attend.

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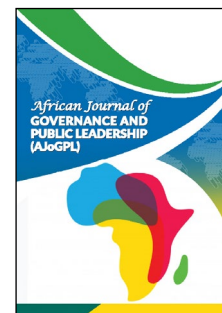
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# Understanding the strategies street-level bureaucrats develop to deal with inclusive secondary education restraints in selected schools in Tanzania



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AJoGPL  
ISSN: 2789-2298

Vol 2. Issue 1.  
pp. 35 - 50, Sept. 2023  
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## Abstract

Currently there are voluminous public administration readings suggesting that a robust service delivery is the result of myriads of actors' concerns, including policymakers, service recipients, and street-level bureaucrats (SLBs). However, this notion is likely to be contested because service delivery, particularly inclusive secondary education in Tanzania is still at a snail's pace due to lack of mutual interface between aforementioned actors as the central government dominates decisions regarding service delivery. Normally such restraints have resulted in new means for street-level bureaucrats to execute their own de-facto policies. This stance is covered in street-level bureaucracy theory, which supposes that at the end of the policy chain, SLBs develop practices to deal with the status quo. Arguably, since the way SLBs respond to diverse contexts when faced with some hardships in executing service is diverse, unpacking the manner inclusive secondary education delivery restraints are dealt with is imperative to contribute to existing Tanzanian literature. In trying to close this gap, the paper analyzed inclusive secondary education delivery in selected schools in order to unveil the techniques SLBs create to unearth restraints and unveil whether such techniques comply with public policy implementation or not regarding the delivery of inclusive secondary education. To get relevant insights, this paper used an interpretative case study methodology covering in-depth interviews, documentary reviews and observation and analyzed data using content analysis. The findings revealed that, SLBs face limitations in service delivery due to various reasons including a lack of cooperation between policy makers and implementers, SLBs use pre-teaching, creaming, additional hours, simplifications, routinizing and referral as coping strategies, SLBs have little discretion and authority over inclusive educational service delivery. Therefore, policy makers and SLBs need to work jointly for a successful delivery of inclusive secondary education services in Tanzania.

**Key words:** Street-Level Bureaucrats, Inclusive Education, Policy Implementation, Coping Strategies

## Introduction

The efforts towards the implementation of Education for All (EFA) owe their origin to the Universal Declaration for Human Rights in 1948 and the Joemtien World Conference in Thailand in 1990 which focused on increasing access to education services for all citizens across the globe. Due to its importance, both developing and developed countries adopted the EFA policy by modifying and formulating the

country's educational policies. The aim was to promote quality and equality in accessing education services without judging people's backgrounds, sex, race, economic status, religion, disability and ethnicity (URT, 1995). In enhancing effective implementation of the policy, the government and non-governmental organizations devoted a lot of work to special needs education for impaired children in order to ensure effective accessibility and participation in education. Special needs education is focused on students with disabilities, in consideration of their individual educational needs, which aims at full development of their capabilities and at their independence and social participation. This type of education could be carried out in various forms, like special classes, resource rooms, and in special schools, let say 'Schools for Special Needs Education'. Among other things, this type of education aimed to enhance the motivational patterns of the handicapped so that they would achieve the goals of the school, develop realistic self-concepts, achieve the highest level of efficacy in academic subjects, and pursue curricular topics that strategically determine effective living for articular types of handicapped children. Its goals were to make handicapped schoolchildren's mental and physical wellbeing better and to encourage the handicapped to engage in activities with people who are not handicapped (Barik, 2011). In the due course of implementing this agenda, numerous scholars such as Iquraini (2010) noted that the implementation stage of special education was discriminatory in nature because students with disabilities were frequently educated in segregated settings where they were unable to interact with their peers who were typically developing in inclusive settings, which could have improved their social, communication, and academic skills. In both industrialized and developing nations, removing these barriers to education for students with disabilities resulted in the adoption of inclusive education around the 1990s. Regardless of their varied backgrounds and skills, inclusive education enables all children, teenagers and adults to enroll in, actively engage in, and succeed in conventional schools and other educational programs (URT, 2017). Although inclusive secondary education seemed as a panacea of integrating people with disability together in accessing education as opposed to special needs education as a response to international protocols which Worldwide focused on Education for All (EFA) put emphasis on inclusive secondary education programs as a means of giving students with special needs access to high-quality instruction.

Additionally, other scholars indicated that inclusive education is the right of human beings to get quality and equitable basic education despite their physical, intellectual, emotional, social and linguistic disabilities (Kayagula, 2019; Macmbinji, 2017; Kirschner, 2015; Moyi, 2012; Mafuru 2011). By emphasizing development-related issues, inclusive education has compelled nations to make adjustments in response to the problems of the economic, social, and environmental elements based on current global regulations and standards. The fourth Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) of the 2030 agenda focused on inclusive education to ensure opportunities for lifelong learning for all children. In enhancing the ratified protocols are thoroughly executed, the Government of Tanzania tried its best to create a conducive learning environment covering renovating educational facilities that are considerate of children with disabilities and offer a secure, nonviolent, inclusive and productive learning environment for everyone in order to achieve aforesaid quest or objective (Simon, 2020).

Showing its commitment, the Tanzanian government, as a member of the United Nations, has been responding to these international calls by investing in several education strategies and policy reforms to ensure that all people receive education equally despite their disparities. One of the programs that have been introduced was as a response to this call is the National Strategies for Inclusive Education (NSIE) of 2009-2017 and 2018-2021 which focused on improving infrastructure and facilities, employing qualified teachers, supplying teaching and learning materials and modification of curriculum to tape and address

learners needs (Tungaraza, 1994). The essential idea of inclusion is promoted by the NSIE as a crucial tactic for obtaining high-quality and equal access to education. The NSIE's overarching objective was to ensure that all citizens, youth and adults in Tanzania have equitable access to high-quality instruction by making sure educational policies and programs embrace inclusive values and practices which accommodate various students' requirements in teaching and learning environments. Despite all strategies put forward by the Tanzanian government toward delivery of inclusive secondary education, some scholars found restraints in the implementation of inclusive education by showing that instructors face deficiencies in teaching and learning leading them to adjust goals (Macmbinji, 2017; Moyi, 2012; Mafuru 2011). This poses various questions, how inclusive secondary education is accorded in selected schools? How street-level bureaucrats develop strategies to deal with the state of the affair or incapacity in the due course of providing inclusive secondary education in selected schools in Tanzania mainland.

## Literature Review

### Theoretical Framework

The provision of inclusive secondary education is guided by Street Level Bureaucracy theory, which was developed by Michael Lipsky in 1980. Michael Lipsky (1969) had proposed the SLBs theory which analyzed the manner how street-level bureaucrats make de-facto policy decisions (Gilson, 2015). According to Lipsky (1980), street-level administrators like doctors, police, nurses, teachers, and judges who are usually on frontline regarding policy implementation are public servants who communicate directly with service beneficiaries who in this context can be viewed as people with disabilities or their parents or guardians. In this context, street-level bureaucrats are educational officers and secondary teachers who normally interact with service recipients. Lipsky (1980) advanced this notion further to say street-level bureaucrats are policymakers, not implementers until public servants deliver the services to clients, and that enacted policy improvements are only a paper. Apart from that, public officials can execute policy as it is (de jure) or modify it (de facto) to suit the status quo (Lipsky, 1980). It is imperative to comprehend that street-level bureaucracy theory sheds some light on the circumstances and the limitations public servants face when serving the public, something that affects public policy implementation. Standing on the shoulders of Lipsky (1980), street-level bureaucrats who engage in inclusive secondary education delivery face limited resources like qualified teachers, appropriate infrastructures to support delivery of inclusive education but also to support the beneficiaries, particularly the students with various types of disabilities, a lack of knowledge, a heavy workload, continual pressure to make decisions fast, and a lack of field experience.

Furthermore Lipsky (1980), asserts that quality services cannot be increased with limited resources and a heavy workload. Even if street-level administrators have resources, they have to operate as if there are none so that they can allocate scarce resources adequately and address the challenges. Concerning how the theory helps street-level officials function under restrictions, street-level officials create procedures that streamline their work. Street-level bureaucrats determine policy and routine matters as well. These routines are put up to handle work responsibilities, but in actuality, they represent the agency and build up to policy (Lipsky, 1980). The idea describes four routines: service rationing, client control, resource conservation and regular practice management (Lipsky 1980). This helps them offer services in any supportive or turbulent environment.

Teachers as street-level administrators have the potentiality of establishing and administering routines to streamline their duties. These routines have to represent the organizations (Ministry of Education and schools) that make up the education policy. These routines organize education services, govern customers and manage the implications of normal activities in service delivery. Street-level bureaucracy theory guides the study because it explains how street-level bureaucrats as policy implementers may cope with contextual or dynamic problems (May and Winter, 2007). In this regard, due to increased demand for people with disabilities to access quality education, the delivery of inclusive secondary education led to an increased teacher workload, demand for a good number of qualified teachers, teaching and learning materials (Haki Elimu, 2017). Despite several attempts done by the government to address the matter, problems of incapacity regarding delivery of inclusive education persisted to a great deal compelling street-level officials to devise strategies of coping with inclusive secondary education delivery restrictions.

### **Policy Implementation**

Generally this means a series of activities undertaken by the government and others to achieve the goals and objectives articulated in policy statements (Birkland, 2016). Implementation can be viewed primarily in terms of the type and extent of control applied to how a project, programme, or policy is carried out. It may as well entail a process of creating goals and directing actions toward reaching those goals (Mbelu, 2011). In this view, those who are in authority (principal) are the ones who are setting goals and their instruction goes down with a chain of command to their subordinates (agents) in this context street-level bureaucrats mainly referring to secondary teachers. At the implementation stage is where teachers as street-level bureaucrats face restraints resulting from shortage of resources, inadequate skills and lack of mutual interaction among key actors such as policymakers (principals), service providers (agents) and service recipients (clients) in delivering inclusive secondary education that enforces SLBs to develop strategies to cope with the state of affairs. This goes to show that either developed strategies may comply or not with policy intentions; if the developed strategies do not comply with the policy intentions it may result in slowing down the policy goal. Therefore, for the inclusive education policy to be implemented thoroughly as intended, every key actor particularly the central and local governments in the Principal-Agent relationship need to be committed. Mutual interface is needed for previously mentioned key actors to address the quandaries taking place at the local level and thus limit robust interaction. The experience shows that the central government usually hijacks local government substantial autonomy. Cementing a mutual interface between actors, there must be a set of rules and regulations and clear enforcement mechanisms to guide the operations of service providers so that they can deliver services with great zeal. Additionally the delivery of inclusive education can be enhanced by providing; incentives schemes such as good salaries to teachers, teachers' houses and any other kind of conducive working environment that can raise workers' morale and increase citizens demand for accountability as supported by Ringold in 2012

### **Empirical Review**

Many studies, which used street -level bureaucracy theory did not wholeheartedly cover inclusive secondary education services. Eriksson and Johansson (2021) evaluated strategies taken by street-level bureaucrats' in the introduction of programme-client centered and authority-centered strategies to handle challenging work conditions among employers in Sweden. The study used mixed methods and it found that street-level bureaucrats labor in tough settings, which affects service delivery. Further, it was indicated that SLBs tackle challenges by adopting coping mechanisms within two patterns of practice; under the client-centered pattern, SLBs exercise discretion to help clients according to their needs by doing more than the official assignment requirements. Within the authority-centered pattern, SLBs used a formal

and rule-oriented understanding of their assignment, focusing on maintaining programme functionality, delimiting caseload by referring clients to other organizations and denying discretion, emotional and psychological detachment from the client, differentiating clients and routinizing work by assigning all clients to the same activities.

Diarra and Oussein (2014) explored Nigerian doctors' coping strategies. A poll found that street-level officials have trouble delivering health services. Frontline workers eased the situation. Some dealt with management tools, drug stock out, free exemption, cost recovery, supply management (ordering from private companies, and issuing makeshift prescriptions) clientelism, regulation circumvention, and resource exploitation by street-level officials. The nature of coping strategies reflected the nature of the services and context. The study by Sunyehzi (2019) posed a concrete methodological stance. Sunyehzi (ibid) used a qualitative approach and case study design to explore street-level bureaucrats' coping methods and public service delivery in Ghana. The study revealed that workload, working circumstances and organizational culture affected healthcare street-level officials. According to Sunyehzi, street-level bureaucrats provide new coping methods in public and commercial institutions. Organizational behavior, interests, resources, and culture affect social service clients' street-level coping mechanisms. As Sunyehzi observes, private street-level bureaucrats are client-focused, that is, they prioritize clients' interests.

Mengsitu *et al.* (2014) on inclusive Ethiopian education revealed that most street-level administrators in inclusive secondary education in Ethiopia confront obstacles, such as limited resource rooms for special needs pupils. The study also found that although the surveyed schools possessed abacus, slate, and stylus, tape recorders and textbooks are not suitable for such youngsters, street-level administrators urge students with special needs to enroll in private schools. SLBs recommend students use the resource room as a library due to a paucity of braille reference resources. Further, Mutereko (2009) conducted a study on the application of South Africa school policy, as well as the discretion, independence, and coping mechanisms of street-level administrators. The poll found that administrators on the ground struggled to provide educational services. They used creaming, setting personal goals, and rubber stamping as coping mechanisms.

According to Oosero's (2015) study, street-level officials in Nyamila, Kenya, encountered difficulties in implementing inclusive education. The study found that Kenya's schools faced tremendous workload, financial constraints, lack of facilities and bad attitudes from instructors. SLBs introduced remedial lessons, group discussions with normal and impaired students, pair work, and other activities to change the status quo. According to the study, teachers occasionally slowed down when teaching to assist pupils to grasp the concepts. Further Mumbi (2021) researched inclusive education in Nyeri in Kenya. According to research, a lack of training and expertise affects special education implementation and insufficiency of SLBs' training to teach special needs pupils were cited as limitations. Further Macmbinji (2017) contrasted Kenya and Tanzania's inclusive education and found that many street-level administrators in inclusive schools lack inclusive education skills and must administer the policy under tough conditions. Untrained instructors cooperate alongside trained special education teachers to provide inclusive education in a regular atmosphere.

Kayagula (2019) revealed that for quality education in inclusive settings, schools have to accommodate learning styles which meet the needs of the students, the ratio of learners within the classrooms, appropriate curricula, organizational arrangement, teaching and learning strategies and resources used. Macmbinji

(2017) observes, students with disabilities are faced with some challenges in accessing education, there are no ramps for disabled children, a lack of learning resources, and unfriendly doors for disabled children. According to Moyi (2012), it is challenging to achieve the goal of inclusive education in inclusive schools since there are few classrooms for students with special needs, the environment is not adjusted, and the learning resources are insufficient. According to Gaede (2016), low-level bureaucrats are likely to lack the necessary skills or expertise for the positions they are hired to perform because of a lack of resources. Additionally, frontline workers report having insufficient personal resources, which is blamed on the nature of the work rather than a personal failing (Lipsky, 1980:31).

## **Methods**

This paper used the data from a study conducted in Tanga region, specifically Tanga City and Muheza District Councils in Tanzania. The region covers an area of 26,667 km<sup>2</sup>, it is located in Northeast Tanzania, and the region is bordered by Kenya and Kilimanjaro region to the North; Manyara region to the west; and Morogoro and Pwani regions to the South. According to 2022 census data the region has a population of 2,615,597, additionally the region depends on agriculture, livestock keeping and fishing. Tanga Technical secondary school and Mlingano secondary school were used as case studies for this study. Qualitative research approaches with a case study design were employed. The rationale of using this approach and design was to gather in depth information from participants' interpretation on how street-level bureaucrats employ different strategies to cope with the restraints of inclusive secondary education delivery. The two councils varied in terms of location, income, socio-economic activities and population size, whereas Tanga City has a population of 393,429, Muheza population is approximately 238,260. The income of Muheza District Council is relatively lower compared to that of Tanga City (CAG Report, 2019). It is imperative to note that based on the available data the selected educational institutions are the first inclusive secondary schools in Tanga City and Muheza District Councils (URT, 2012).

In line with that the education system of Tanzania consists of 02 years of pre-primary education, 7 years of primary education, 4 years of secondary education, 2 years of advanced secondary education and 3 or more years of tertiary education. The language used in teaching is bilingual which means students can be taught in both Kiswahili and English. However, kiswahili is more used in primary education while English is more used in secondary schools onwards. Different methods of data collection were employed, whereas an in-depth interview with 24 respondents, documentary review and physical observation were employed as well. Non-probability sampling techniques were used which involved purposive and snowball sampling techniques. This technique was employed because there was a need of gathering information from participants who have more experiences, background and skills of inclusive secondary education. During interview data were recorded using tape recorder and note taking, informants were requested their consent to give their willing on giving relevant information related to the phenomenon under study without any force, other issues adhered during data collection process were maintaining dignity, privacy and keeping confidentiality of data provided by participants, being honest as well as transparency.

Data were analyzed using content thematic analysis and coded for simplifying the analysis. Data recorded in tape recorders were transcribed through writing notes, followed by organizing them into themes and interpretation supported with quotations. Finally, multiple reviews of the transcriptions were cross-checked for accuracy and completeness of the data.



## Results and Discussion

There are numerous aspects the paper intended to unearth one of the areas was social demographic characteristics of study participants. The aim was to unveil the manner local administrators devise tactics for dealing with obstacles in order to deliver inclusive secondary covered education, and work experience in selected schools. Some aspects of social demographic characteristics interrogated were the quality of staff employed to deliver inclusive education. Using documents available, the results showed that the majority of teachers serving as street-level bureaucrats in this situation are well qualified and have expertise in implementing inclusive education policies as summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1:** Education level of participants in selected schools.

| School                    | Educational level | n(%)  |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| Mlingano secondary school | Diploma           | 3(13) |
|                           | Degree            | 7(29) |
|                           | Master            | 1(4)  |
| Tanga Technical School    | Diploma           | 2(8)  |
|                           | Degree            | 9(38) |
|                           | Master            | 2(8)  |

Source: Field data 2022

The data above shows that the majority of teachers, street - level bureaucrats have sufficient education, where 67% have bachelor degree, 21% diploma and 12% master degree meaning that have the needed skills. This tallies with what Mbunda (2017) asserted that workers who have a high educational level have more skills in arranging internal environments to overcome challenges related to their work. Focused on this assertion, street level bureaucrats with master and bachelor degrees may have high knowledge in making their arrangement well with service recipients when they encounter difficulties in delivering inclusive secondary education.

Regarding working or teaching experience, it was imperative to unveil the number of staff with adequate teaching experience, which involves culmination of skills, exposure or training acquired over time that enables one to perform an existing job better or prepare learners performing certain assignments better as summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2:** Working experiences of participants in delivering inclusive education.

| School                    | Educational level | n(%)  |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| Mlingano secondary school | 0 – 4 years       | 1(4)  |
|                           | 5 – 9 years       | 6(25) |
|                           | 10 and above      | 4(17) |
| Tanga Technical School    | 0 – 4 years       | 1(4)  |
|                           | 5 - 9 years       | 6(25) |
|                           | 10 and above      | 6(25) |

Source: Field data, 2022

Table 2 shows that the majority of the teachers in Mlingano secondary school and Tanga technical secondary school have adequate experiences in inclusive education delivery, where 50% of them have working experience which ranges from 5 to 9 years, 42% have working experience ranging from 10 years

and above. and 8% of the teachers have working experience ranging from 0 to 4 years. This observation indicates that street-level bureaucrats who deliver inclusive education have adequate experience which entails that they have a large amount of knowledge to enhance effective learning and due to their expertise, have the potentiality of developing appropriate strategies to address the restraints such as inadequate physical, human, and financial resources. Moreover, this observation was supported by experience explored from one teacher at Mlingano Secondary school during interview who had this to say;

I have been working here for thirteen years, this made me have enough experience in teaching as well as being able to manage some difficulties because they are same each year, during working epoch have gathered enough materials of almost all subjects. So during staff shortage I can teach many classes because I have all the necessary materials (One teacher from Mlingano Secondary School, 4th April 2022).

Apart from this, another participant demonstrated that working for quite long time made him/her accumulated great knowledge that helps him/her handle number of difficulties, by commenting that;

...now I have nine years of working experience in teaching in inclusive schools though in this school I have been here for three years. Being in this field for more than eight years made me have a high ability in handling difficulties when teaching students in inclusive classes (One teacher from Tanga Technical School, April 2022).

The above excerpts imply that long-term experience helps teachers give inclusive instruction. As required and also, street-level officials with many years of teaching in inclusive schools can use earlier experiences to construct their internal working environment, as opposed to those with few years in the sector.

**Inclusive Education Restraints.**

The reviewed documents revealed that services delivery at Local Government Authorities (LGAs) is still at low pace, particularly inclusive education which is accorded under limited resources, inadequate facilities, lack of adequate teachers and adequate trained human resources (Mbunda, 2017: Mmbaga, 2002: MoEVT, 2009: Nydal, 2008). Moreover, the interview conducted to the City secondary Educational Officer/District Secondary Educational Officer, heads of schools and other teachers show that infrastructures such as classrooms are not enough compared to the number of students enrolled every now and then as summarized in Table 3.

**Table 3:** Student Classroom Ratio of Mlingano and Tanga Secondary School.

| School                           | Required teachers | Available teachers | Students required | Students available |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Mlingano Secondary School        | 06 (1:35)         | 03 (1:65)          | 105               | 193                |
| Tanga Technical Secondary School | 08 (1:35)         | 04 (1:70)          | 140               | 279                |

Source: Field data 2022

Table 3 reveals that classrooms are overcrowded, according to inclusive education policies and strategies one classroom is supposed to carry 35 students (1:35) comprising 5 disabled students and 30 abled ones, but the classrooms had 193 and 279 students in Mlingano Secondary School and Tanga Technical Secondary School respectively beyond the required threshold. Apart from that, the study findings observed shortage of human resources (teachers) and lack of trained teachers about inclusive education. Report from Tanga Technical Secondary school shows that there were 131 special needs students while there were only two (02) special needs teachers, which makes the ratio (TSR) 1:66 which is contrary to the inclusive policy of teacher-student ratio (TSR) 1:35 or (1:40). Furthermore, the majority of teachers who were available in

the selected schools had insufficient knowledge of special education, particularly in 'sign language'. Table 4 shows the number of street-level bureaucrats in this context teachers required and available in sciences, arts and Technical subjects in chosen secondary schools.

**Table 4:** Teacher Status Number in Mlingano and Tanga Technical Secondary School.

| School                           | Subject    | Required teachers | Available teachers | Variation |
|----------------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------|
| Mlingano secondary school        | Science    | 16                | 12                 | 04        |
|                                  | Arts       | 24                | 21                 | 03        |
| Tanga Technical Secondary School | Science    | 23                | 17                 | 06        |
|                                  | Arts       | 16                | 14                 | 02        |
|                                  | Technician | 36                | 23                 | 13        |

Source: Field data 2022

Teaching and learning materials (Textbooks) in the selected secondary schools were not enough compared to the number of students. URT, 2014 book-student ratio (BSR) supposed to be 1:1, while the data from Tanga Technical secondary school shows that BSR 1:9 in arts subjects and 1:5 in science subjects while in Mlingano Secondary School BSR 1:6 in arts subjects and 1:10 in science subjects. Again, in Arts and Science subjects the shortage was 03 and 04 respectively at Mlingano secondary school. The same shortage was noted at Tanga Technical Secondary School with the variation of 06, 02, and 13 for Science, Arts and Technical subjects respectively. This implies that street-level bureaucrats in this context, teachers, deliver inclusive secondary education in a very difficult environment with incapacity in terms of resources. Since there is no immediate action to take to resolve the problem, they try to develop some strategies to cope with the status quo.

### **Coping with Inclusive Secondary Education Delivery Restraints.**

The findings from selected schools shown that these street-level bureaucrats used their discretion to construct different strategies to cope with the restraints in deliver inclusive education, this study unpacks some of these strategies based on Tanzanian selected context like pre-teaching, creaming, working for extra hours, simplifications and routinizing and referral. It was noted that, some of the strategies SLBs use to address restraints regarding the delivery of inclusive education contradict public policy and other protocols like the Education and Training Policy of 2014; the National Strategy for Inclusive Education (2009-2017 and 2018-2021); the Disability Act of 2010; the Educational Sector Development Programme (2008-2017 & 2016/17-2020/21); Secondary Education Development Plan (2004-2009 & 2010-2014); Ordinary Secondary Education Curriculum (2013); and Education Act of 1978 as accorded in details below.

#### **Pre-teaching**

It was found through interviews that SLBs used pre-teaching to make up for a shortage of instructional materials in inclusive secondary school delivery. Teachers at Mlingano Secondary School use pre-teach and give students notes because there are no enough textbooks, teachers, or other teaching and learning resources as one of the interviewee commented that:

When a teacher has a session, let's say tomorrow morning, s/he uses the extra time to sit with students with hearing impairment and teach them to enable them to be aware of the normal session lessons. Teachers normally give notes after pre-teaching to the hearing impairment students to internalize the lessons before the normal session (Teacher, Mlingano secondary school, 4th April 2022).

During the interview, it was learned that instructors as street-level bureaucrats teach and talk with pupils before the classes to make them aware of what they would be taught. They believe that through pre-teaching, students can be in a good position in understanding the subject matter, and when they are in the classroom, the teacher teaches them the lesson to all students, those with hearing impairment understand the lesson taught from pre-teaching, and after class, the teacher uses post-teaching to remind the students about the lesson taught in the classroom to have a wide understanding of the subject matter. Mlingano Secondary School attendee said,

In my Kiswahili lesson, I often tell students when they are free, please come and see me to have ample and extra time to teach them to internalize the lessons taught in the class (Teacher, Mlingano secondary school 4th April 2022).

### **Creaming**

This is a form of rationing, which is viewed as decreasing service availability, attractiveness, or expectations. It is directly related with scantiness of resources and this relationship may be moderated by breadth of parental involvement in their children's education. During the interview, the study found that instructors use creaming to cope with the lack of human resources in delivering inclusive secondary education in selected schools to ease the burden of 'sign language teachers'. The study found that many teachers complained about the workload as one participant from Mlingano said that;

When it comes to providing one-on-one assistance to students, teachers select those who are intelligent and assist them; those students come to me. It is hence by self-selection. Everyone cannot be treated equally (Teacher, Mlingano Secondary School 5th April 2022).

These findings are similar to what was presented by Lipsky (1980) who revealed that when street-level bureaucrats have more clients than they can handle, they frequently select (or skim off the top) those who appear to have the best chance of succeeding according to their standards. Despite the formal obligation of the policy to treat all students equally, such an environment occurs, where not everyone can be treated the same, Lipsky (1980) refers to this situation as 'creaming'. Further, teachers practice creaming by paying additional care to slow learners with unique needs. During the interview, the participant said that the school provides a unique program for learners with 'sign language' challenges to guarantee all kids communicate using sign language.

Another attendee said that they also conduct school clubs for sign language for teachers and kids. Despite the dearth of sign language teachers, students are taught under one roof. One participant from Mlingano Secondary School said that;

In our school, we have clubs which deal with imparting skills on using sign language for both teachers and students. We have introduced this to overcome the challenges of the inadequacy of qualified sign language teachers in our school (Teacher, Mlingano secondary school, 4th April 2022).

### **Working for Extra Hours**

Street-level bureaucrat's use this technique to offer inclusive education. Through interviews at Mlingano Secondary School, teachers confirmed that since there are few of them and the number of students is high, teachers have to teach and wait for the interpretation of the subject matter using sign language to ensure that all students understand the lessons. They do this to ensure services provided as required. This was vindicated by one participant during the interview who reported by commenting that;

In our school, teachers can work from morning to evening, we sometimes work extra hours and delay going back home to ensure all students are taught and understand the subject matter (Teacher, Mlingano Secondary school 4th April 2022).

### **Simplifications and Routinizing**

Due to a lack of resources, SLBs find a way of easily performing work. For instance, due to lack of physical resources like furniture in inclusive schools' resource rooms, instructors utilize classroom chairs and tables as a coping method while making pupils use the same room. This goes to show that teachers adapt to their constraints. Through interviews, documentaries, and school inspections, most participants reported using classroom chairs and tables in the resource room. One participant from Tanga Technical schools during an interview confirmed this by saying that;

Due to the lack of furniture in the resource room we normally use other classes' chairs and tables when we need students in the resource room to address the challenge (Teacher, Tanga Technical secondary school, April 2022).

Talking about this issue an interviewee from Mlingano Secondary School said that 'in our school, we don't have a resource room, we use classes as an alternative' (Teacher, Mlingano Secondary School 5th April 2022). Further the findings revealed that disabled students are regularly supported by able-bodied students. Students with physical disabilities are routinely carried out to their classrooms, and those with severe physical impairments are assisted to use their wheelchairs, and arrive on time. Their classmates carry them to classes from ground floor to upstairs classes. This view was echoed by another teacher from Tanga Technical school by saying that;

Last year there was a student who could not walk properly and seemed always to delay her classmates to attend or arrive in class punctually so in order to address the concern, the students decided to carry their colleague to class (Teacher, Tanga Technical Secondary school, 7th April 2022).

The study also indicated that when instructors had limited resources such as textbooks, they may make copies of required materials to meet the demand. During the interview, one participant from Tanga Technical School reported that incident by saying that;

My subject has few textbooks compared to the numbers of students as you know one book for one student is recommend in an inclusive classroom but in this school one book is share to 21 students, however, due to critical shortage I decided to produce more copies to alleviate the situation (Teacher, Tanga Technical school 7th April 2022).

In line with that, it was also found that teachers in selected schools solicit learning materials from online sites. This ensures excellent teaching and learning, despite the limited resources. One participant from Tanga commented on this by saying that;

We go online and download materials, which are relevant to our learners and print them and distribute them to students with special needs. They read the materials before the normal lessons period to understand the materials beforehand (Teacher, Tanga Technical secondary school 7th April 2022).

Additionally, teachers apply co-teaching when there is a shortage of materials, as one of the participants during the interview commented that;

Due to the current shortage of materials, we use co-teaching. This helps to reach many students despite the shortage of the materials (One of the educational officers, Tanga City Council, 8th April 2022).

Relying on fellow teachers was another strategy, as one of the participants reported that due to a lack of sign language dictionaries, teachers rely on fellow teachers who know sign language to help them translate. This incident was verified by one participant from Mlingano Secondary School when s/he reported that;

I am a Mathematician teacher but I do not know sign language so I have to go with another teacher who knows sign language. By doing so, we thoroughly deliver and complete lessons on time (Teacher, Mlingano Secondary school, 5th April 2022).

Co-teaching method was also reported by numerous teachers, for instance one participant during an interview presented that;

When the class is large and has a large number of students, we use co-teaching methods to complete the session on time and to achieve the goals significantly because the method helps to provide additional information if another teacher fails to provide explanations (One of the educational officer, Tanga Technical Secondary School; 8th April 2022).

The sign language was several time reported by numerous participants from Mlingano Secondary School where one during an interview arguably commented that;

Due to a shortage of sign language, all students having difficulty in hearing are placed in one stream for each form. For example, form one A is the one that has the combination of all students, students having difficulty in hearing are in the same class with those without any disabilities. Those students having difficult in hearing tend to sit in front of the classroom to make it easier for them to see when the teacher is interpreting the lesson in sign language, so they are not seated at the back of the classroom because they need to see the teacher interpreting the subject using sign language closely but other students with special needs apart from hearing difficult tend to mix themselves with others with no special needs and even in classes with other streams (Teacher, Mlingano Secondary school 5th April 2022).

### **Referral**

During the interview, it was observed that when instructors meet situations requiring particular attention, notably, children with disabilities, refer the problem or difficulty to other teachers with special needs education to address the limitations they experience. For instance, one participant during the interview said;

We are very cooperative in our school. I didn't attend any course related to special education but I am teaching the class with disabled students. When it comes to difficult cases related to students with disabilities, I used to refer the cases to our coordinator, she knows how to settle their problem because she has specialized in inclusive education (Teacher, Tanga Technical secondary school 7th April 2022).

According to Lipsky (1980), this happens when naïve managers ask experienced personnel to handle difficult consumers. This coping method occurs not because situations contradict a teacher's competence to handle them, but because they disrupt class routines. This paper shows that teachers as SLBs use diverse techniques to achieve policy goals. This is also mirrored in Street-Level Bureaucracy theory, which states that SLBs use their discretionary clout as a coping strategy to guarantee good service delivery. Designed coping mechanisms may sometimes conflict with public policy.

### **Coping Mechanisms with the Implementation of Inclusive Education Policy**

The study examined how street-level bureaucrats implement the policy of inclusive education. Previous sections illustrate the worsening situation in inclusive school service delivery. According to the findings,

teachers adopt various techniques to address the challenges. The study found that street-level bureaucrats sometimes devise methods that comply with governmental policies. These tactics become institutionalized rules, norms, and values using parent or staff meetings. During interviews, the study indicated that SLBs employed bright students to educate other students. One participant had this to say,

...so a school does not have a hired interpreter but we use students who have studied sign language for three years to translate the lesson...(Teacher, Tanga Technical secondary school 7th April 2022).

Using brilliant students to teach others sign language when shortage is really as one of the participant from Mlingano Secondary School put it as follows;

I am teaching science subjects in this school but I did not attend any training concerning special education. I don't even know how to communicate with the students in class by using sign language, and here we don't have a sign language teacher for basic Mathematics. We have a few for Kiswahili and other Arts subjects, therefore, I use students who score high marks in the class to translate what I am teaching by using sign language". (Teacher, Mlingano Secondary school 5th April 2022).

These techniques conflict with government laws, legislation, and regulations. According to Tanzanian Education and Training Policy (1995:2014), professional instructors for secondary schools must have attended a two-years diploma or three-years degree education courses. The inability to follow government orders and directives weaken goals.

The study also revealed that street-level officials, who are secondary instructors, employed other teachers to interpret the course, which is not their specialist. Kiswahili professionals may translate Biology, Chemistry and Physics lessons. This practice was observed in Mlingano Secondary School as one participant clearly said that;

...I am specialized to teach the English language, but here I am also translating science content in sign language which is not my specialization, sometimes it is difficult to know the appropriate and correct sign in some content because it is not my specialization...(Teacher, Mlingano Secondary School 5th April 2022).

This strategy was agreed upon at staff meetings and became an institutional rule. The practice seems to contradict the National Strategy for Inclusive Education and government policies, especially the Education and Training Policy (1995:2014), but the policies and National Strategy for Inclusive Education (2009-2017: 2018-2021) reveals that teaching is facilitated by professional teachers according to their subject of specialization. The government also increased the number of specialized teachers through Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDEP) I and II of 2004-2009 and 2010-2014 respectively to promote secondary school education. Non-specialized instructors compromise inclusive education since they fail to teach students with specialized teachers to meet policy objectives.

The study indicated that teachers' overtime teaching affects policy implementation. Teachers teach during weekends and nights. This technique violates educational circulars, rules, and the Ordinary Secondary Education Curriculum (OSED) (2013). The OSED (2013) recommends teaching from Monday to Friday. This caused most students to miss weekend lessons (Saturday and Sunday). Those who do not attend weekends and night classes perform poorly. The study also found that teachers employ remedial programs to teach low-performing students. This implies that street-level bureaucrats, in this case, secondary teachers, might discriminate or favor students when exercising discretion, which is unethical

to the Inclusive Education Policy's purpose of eradicating student discrimination. This can undermine public trust, hence affecting policy implementation.

The current study shows that the coping mechanisms used by SLBs affect public policy intention. SLBs employ some coping mechanisms when they face difficulties in delivering services, but the employed mechanisms sometimes comply or do otherwise with the public policy objectives. This reflects the limitation of Street-Level Bureaucracy theory on coping mechanisms that not in all situations street-level bureaucrats can apply their discretion well.

## **Conclusion**

Since there are limited insights on how street-level bureaucrats cope with restraints regarding inclusive secondary education delivery in Tanzania, it was imperative to unveil insights from Tanzania particularly on selected cases. Insights from selected cases were linked with street-level bureaucracy theory in order to shed some light on the theoretical tenets. The key tenet of the theory is that street level bureaucrats' work under an uncondusive environment which compel them to come up with de-facto policies to address the status quo particularly that is associated with incapacity in various aspects. De-facto policies in difficult encounters may mean strategies street-level bureaucrats (SLBs) develop to address quandaries they face in the due course of implementing inclusive secondary education services. The findings from studied schools reveal that street-level bureaucrats have the opportunity of developing strategies to cope with service delivery disincentives particularly those related with inclusive secondary education delivery in the context of Tanzania. Usually strategies SLBs put in place hamper effective execution of public policies in a semi-autonomous social field the reason being that rules and norms are socially critical in shaping mankind actions. The bottom line of the theory in question is that, the way street-level bureaucrats use their own discretion (de facto) to address people's concerns in a difficult environment may either comply with or deviate from public policy intentions. This can be shown by how SLBs manage substantial inclusive secondary education workloads, rationing inclusive education material resources, modifying inclusive education work to achieve envisioned objectives.

The fact that insights from the field reveal that when SLBs encounter some quandaries related to incapacity in terms of limited resources come up with some mechanism to arrest the situation revealing that the theory in question works in Tanzanian context. In selected cases we have learned that SLBs develop ways to deal with service delivery challenges such as a lack of special education teachers, insufficient teaching and learning resources, and outdated classroom facilities for children with disabilities and that the developed coping methods also become the institutional social rules, norms and values. This goes to vindicate that street-level bureaucrats' behaviors in a semi-autonomous social field are more shaped by their desires to deliver services than meeting their own interests (Kamugisha and Eliza, 2023). In this regard, the government is urged to motivate SLBs and address resource constraint issues to raise SLBs working morale without conditions. Even though SLBs experience scarcity of resources in due course of rendering essential services, they can still deliver quality services and meet their responsibilities or duties.

## **Policy Implication**

The experience from studied areas acknowledges the application of the street-level bureaucracy theory in the delivery of inclusive secondary education. The study area shows that service delivery is hampered by inadequate resources such as qualified teachers, financial resources to buy essential equipment, and



limited infrastructures to support the delivery of inclusive secondary education delivery. Due to staff shortage teachers use pre-teach and give students notes as a result of inadequate textbooks, teachers, or other teaching and learning resources; creaming has been used to cope with shortage by teachers selecting student who are intelligent to assist slow learners; working for extra hours and delay going back home to ensure all students are taught and understand the subject matters due to limited time as staff are not enough with growing number of students; simplification and rationing are used to address limited resources. For instance, due to limited physical resources like furniture in the resource room, teachers normally use other classes' chairs and tables when students need to attend the resource room. Other aspects include use of co-teaching, referral by referring an issue to a coordinator who can assist them to solve cases and students as interpreters because schools do not hire interpreters but use students who have studied sign language for three years to translate the lessons.

These practice seems to contradict the National Strategy for Inclusive Education and government policies, especially the Education and Training Policy (1995:2014), but the policies and National Strategy for Inclusive Education (2009-2017: 2018-2021) reveals that teaching is facilitated by professional teachers according to their subject of specialization. This goes to show that using students who are not professional is not acceptable. To address this problem the government has to increase the number of specialized teachers through Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDEP) I and II of 2004-2009 and 2010-2014 respectively to promote secondary school education. This is done in an understanding that the use of non-specialized instructors compromise inclusive education because they fail to teach students and not meet policy objectives.

## Recommendations

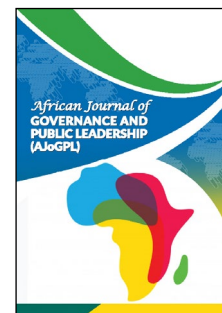
Based on the results of this research, inclusive secondary education is not being effectively delivered at Mlingano and Tanga Technical Secondary Schools. The research recommend that the government should take action to heighten the delivery of inclusive secondary schools by allocating sufficient funds to buy essential equipment's needed in teaching inclusive classes for ensuring efficient and effective provision of inclusive education. Teachers, as frontline bureaucrats, should have a voice in policymaking from the start. This is because they are the people who ultimately are implementing the plan. Possible benefits include improved communication and a more collaborative atmosphere among all parties involved. Finally, the study recommends delegating decision-making authority to local bureaucrats to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of providing inclusive services. This includes the power to hire and train staff members who lack certain skills and to raise funds when they encounter inadequacy.

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# An evaluation of the practice of constitutional basic values and principles of public administration in the Zululand district, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa



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ISSN: 2789-2298

Vol 2. Issue 1.  
pp. 51 - 67, Sept. 2023  
<https://ajogpl.kab.ac.ug>

## Abstract

The fundamental values and principles of public administration—embodied in the Republic of South Africa Constitution (1996), stipulate a set of rules governing public administration in all spheres of government. The aim of this paper is to evaluate whether local municipalities in the Zululand District practice the democratic values and principles of public administration. The paper also examined how the practising of democratic values and principles of public administration stipulated in the South African Constitution can improve governance and service delivery in Zululand. A qualitative research method was adopted by this paper where purposive sampling was employed. Data was collected through virtual and physical interviews 45 municipal officials from the Zululand district were targeted. The findings of this paper revealed how Zululand incorporates the values and principles of public administration with local government objectives. Zululand Municipality emphasises the importance of these values and principles to all its employees, encouraging them to continue using them in executing their daily tasks. The paper revealed how fundamental values and principles of public administration produce good governance in Zululand, for example transparency, accountability, fairness, developmental oriented are some of the values and principles that promote effective governance in Zululand district municipality. In conclusion, it appears that Zululand district municipality (ZDM) significantly applies the code of ethics, the values, and the principles of public administration as they are stipulated in the Constitution although they are implemented not in full capacity, according to the participants.

**Key words:** Constitutional values, public administration, local government

## Introduction

Public administration as a set of the activities performed by public officials focuses on the management and implementation of the complete set of government activities on law implementation, regulations and government decisions and management providing public services, finance, health, education, sanitation, housing, and social security. Public administration delivers services using the principal legislation (Ijeoma, Nzewi & Sibanda, 2013). Coetzee (2012), indicates that public administration is a wide-ranging and distinctive area of activity, comprising several public officials operating in public institutions, providing goods and services in the community's interests. These activities or functions can be classified into three groups:

- The generic administrative activities or tasks of policymaking, financing, organising, staffing, determining work procedures and creating control means;
- Functional activities peculiar to precise services, including education, nursing, public works, or defence; and
- The auxiliary functions, such as decision-making, data processing, planning, programming, and communication, are obligatory to simplify or accelerate executing the generic administrative functions and the functional activities (Coetzee, 2012).

In South Africa, public administration is based on its government system with three spheres, indicating the national, provincial, and local sphere. Similar to other states, South Africa, has a fundamental body of principles and laws governing the country, such as the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Brynard, 2015). Section 195 of the Constitution of RSA (1996) conditions that public administration must be governed by a set of democratic values and principles applied to administration in all spheres of government, organs of state, and public enterprises. National legislation must promote these values and principles (RSA Constitution, 1996). The practice of public administration is highly action oriented as it brings administrative and political participants to the forefront and tests constitutional values for implementation (Sebola, 2018).

Moreover, according to The Citizen (2020), there has been over 10 violent service delivery protests in Zululand between 2016 and 2020. These protests occur in various areas within the district, with some directly by the district municipality. These protests occur in multiple locations and at different times, but they have similar traits. Citizens complain about the insufficient service provision, inadequate financial administration and management, alleged corruption, and inadequate governance. Zululand district encounter challenges, such as maladministration, corruption, and service delivery backlogs, leading to service delivery protests mostly violent, encompassing illegal acts of vandalism. Residents accuse municipal authorities of not following their constitutional obligations regarding governance and service delivery. Reports from news publications, such as The Citizen (2020), Excelsior (2020), and Zululand Observer (2019), remark that Zululand encountered more service delivery protests than any district municipality in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province in the past five years. Citizens claim municipal officials are not following their constitutional obligation by promoting and enforcing the fundamental values and principles of public administration.

Furthermore, the 2016 Auditor-General (AG) report also discloses rural-based municipalities' challenges, such as Zululand, include inadequate skills and inadequate accountability, while local government is observed as the entry-level for self-enrichment. Hence, this paper evaluates whether Zululand District and its local municipalities practice the democratic values and principles of public administration as stipulated in the Constitution and how they implement them to improve governance and service delivery. The public administration activity is intensely action-oriented, significant for governmental and political leaders while assessing fundamental principles for enforcement (Sebola, 2018). Public administration practice was stagnant in shifting cultural values and political trends; the material needed consistency with these complexities. Public administration increased in size, structure, and obligations substantially from the former; therefore, public administration is a complex environment where values and ethics are maintained with difficulty (Curry, 2014).

It is practising public administration where diverse unethical decisions are made, although the theory is learnt in the discipline, in opposition to known decisions. Constitutional principles are broken without reasonable justification in administrative and political terms. The lack of ethics and principles by public authorities has undermined not only politics and administrative issues but also the legal and ethical concerns (Sebola, 2018). Zululand established this since the area had frequent community protests regarding service delivery, governance, and alleged corruption. Rural municipalities, such as in Zululand, still encounter several challenges regarding public administration and service delivery.

This paper attempted to evaluate Zululand district municipality (ZDM) and its local municipalities' on how they promote and enforce the fundamental values and principles of public administration in their daily operations and how they use these values and principles to improve governance and service delivery. The paper considered steps to enable the South African public service to enhance ethical compliance between government officials and government agencies, public properties, policies, and resources management at an institutional level.

## Literature review

### **Values and principles are essential in a democratic state.**

The RSA's Constitution (1996) remarks that the Republic is a single, sovereign, democratic state with distinct national, provincial, and local government domains interdependent and interrelated. The RSA Constitution (1996) further specifies that the norms and principles regulate public administration in Section 195(1) of the Constitution and government administration in all spheres of government. The Constitution mandates that the Republic's government be effective, transparent, responsible, and coherent to ensure the people's well-being and gradual realisation of their fundamental rights (the RSA Constitution, 1996).

In exploring the significance of values and principles in a democratic state, Muller and Cassim (2014) observe them as related ideas. Values and principles of public administration are about the real-world application of ethical standards in governance. Zikhali (2005) emphasises that values reflect universal beliefs that a specific norm of action or state of life is superior to an opposing mode of actions or state existence, personally or socially. Those values and principles involve an aspect of judgement because they hold a person's opinions on what is true and desirable. The human is the only living being capable of distinguishing between noble and evil or correct and incorrect. The term value, therefore, means the definition of what is appropriate by the human (African Union, 2011).

According to Masango and Mfene (2017), values have substance and sound qualities. The content attribute indicates it is essential to have a code of conduct or end-state life. The attribute of strength determines just how critical it is. Values are a customary practice for organisations in the public and private sectors. Of paramount importance is that institutions follow a set of values and principles in their conduct (Masango & Mfene, 2017). Zikhali (2005) indicates that the values' presence and importance must be understood in the public authorities, under varying conditions. Principles are essential and solid, derived from values and norms (Kooiman & Jentoft, 2009). They are simple human behavioural guidelines shown to have long-standing and standing validity. According to Levin (2018), values and principles support choices and empower persons to consider and make informed decisions about diverse situations. Fox (2010) believes that values need to be part of the product of experience, which often has a historical background. A significant portion of the value relates to an individual's experiences.

According to the Public Service Commission (PSC) (2020), the democratic values enshrined in the South African Constitution relate to South African history. They were implemented because of the injustices during the apartheid era and the struggle against apartheid. Section 195 of the country's Constitution outlines South Africa's democratic values and the principles for public administration. The preamble remarks that the Constitution is adopted as the supreme law of the land, designed to ensure that South Africa is a country where all its people are equal before the law, with equal access to services (RSA Constitution, 1996). Masango and Mfene (2017) further add that the values of the Constitution intend to promote and enhance social cohesion among the individuals and population groups within the society. According to Theletsane (2014), the creation and successful implementation of democratic political structures require the formation of fair public administrators, discouraging political partisanship while respecting the complex beliefs and desires of their societies. Molina and McKeown (2012) agree that to advance democracy in South Africa, the government and public officials need to uphold the principles of the Constitution in their daily tasks and handle people in a dignified, non-racial, and non-sexist manner, demonstrating respect for human rights. South Africa is a constitutional democracy requiring the rule of law and accountability, responsiveness, and transparency by the government (PSC, 2020).

In conducting its constitutional mandate according to the principles outlined in Chapter 10 of the Constitution (1996), Public Administration should advance democracy by promoting and respecting the values of the Constitution. In the rendering of public services and the administration of the public sector, these democratic values should always prevail. How the services are provided should not be affected by the political affiliation of the service provider or the recipient of the service. Political affiliations should be irrelevant (Theletsane, 2014).

### **The practice of fundamental values and principles of public administration in South Africa.**

According to Matsiliza (2013), an independent, normative (value) structure to which all South Africans must adhere and where all South Africans must live is provided by the principles expressed in Section 195 of the Constitution. Beyond meritocracy, it describes the essence of a South African civil servant who respects ideals and beliefs, executing their daily obligations. Regarding the values and principles of public administration, the RSA Constitution (1996) set the basis for fairness, equity, and social justice. The South African public service focuses on creating an effective environment and policy structure to strengthen and discuss inequities and divergences in providing services, especially in historically deprived South African communities (Muller & Cassim, 2014).

A public service that would provide efficient public governance with equal and valued equity, facilitating performance, was universally inclusive, neutral and independently prepared by the Constitution of the RSA (1996). The Government of National Unity had an idea, “to continually improve the lives of the people of South Africa through a transformed Public Service which is representative, coherent, transparent, efficient, effective, accountable and responsive to the needs of all” (Danver, 2013).

According to the RSA Constitution, the Public Service Commission (PSC) exists to;

*to promote the values and principles set out in section 195, throughout the public service; to investigate, monitor and evaluate the organisation and administration, and the personnel practices, of the public service; to propose measures to ensure effective and efficient performance within the public service; to give directions aimed at ensuring that personnel procedures relating to recruitment, transfers, promotions and dismissals comply with the values and principles set out in section 195; to report in respect of its activities and the performance of its functions, including*

*any finding it may make and directions and advice it may give, and to provide an evaluation of the extent to which the values and principles set out in section 195 are complied with; and either of its own accord or on receipt of any complaint— (i) to investigate and evaluate the application of personnel and public administration practices, and to report to the relevant executive authority and legislature; (ii) to investigate grievances of employees in the public service concerning official acts or omissions, and recommend appropriate remedies; (iii) to monitor and investigate adherence to applicable procedures in the public service; and (iv) to advise national and provincial organs of state regarding personnel practices in the public service, including those relating to the recruitment, appointment, transfer, discharge and other aspects of the careers of employees in the public service and to exercise or perform the additional powers or functions prescribed by an Act of Parliament.*

The RSA Constitution (1996) presents a vision of service focus and dedication to providing all South Africans with high-quality services concerning the values and principles of public administration. Service provision in South Africa should, therefore, be unbiased. Service provision should be described as a response to the needs of the people and be compassionate and respectful to the public. The Constitution (1996) specifies that all government workers, regardless of colour, gender, or status, need equal labour standards. Public service is necessary to enhance the service delivery to the South African community in a sustainable (efficient, economical, and fair) way.

According to Danver (2013), this is a major departure from the practices and principles followed by the civil sector in South Africa before 1994. Thebe (2017) believed that practising fundamental values and principles of public administration in South Africa is vague. The political placement without suitable political education and training is the cause of incompetent human resources, mismanagement of financial administration, and poor management within the government. The fundamental values and principles of public administration lay a solid foundation for equality, equity, and social justice in the South African public service (Addison, 2011). The values and principles of the Constitution of South Africa (1996) provide a vision of service orientation and commitment to providing high-quality services to all South Africans. According to this document, service delivery in South Africa ought to be affected in an unbiased and impartial manner. Gordon (2010) emphasises that service delivery is to be characterised by responsiveness to the needs of the public—one of the nine values and principles of public administration.

The Constitution of South Africa (1996) also remarks on the need for fair labour practices for all public servants, despite race, gender, or class. Moth (2014) commends the stunning work of the South African government and its Constitution in ensuring this by establishing support institutions. These support institutions ensure that institutions—especially public institutions, comply with all the constitutional compulsions. These support institutions include The Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA), the Human Rights Commission, the commission for gender equality, and the Public Protector. Mokhethi (2017) adds that these institutions have a constitutional obligation to protect the people of South Africa from any form of discrimination or unfair practices. With the notion of accountability, public sector institutions have guidelines detailing how important it is for servants in the South African public service, to be honest and accountable. Public sector institutions and their employees are informed about the obligation to expose, explain, and justify actions (Muswede & Thipa, 2017).

The South African government contends that public servants in South Africa ought to be guided by an ethos of service delivery. Public servants ought to be committed to promoting service delivery in an unbiased and impartial manner. This is important considering the exclusion policy under the previous government in South Africa (Cox III, 2017).

Nekati (2015) believes that in all three spheres of government, but municipalities, the ideals of administrative justice should be associated with the structure of democratic governance in South Africa regarding community participation. Christopher (2015) continues, “Community participation is an essential component or principle as far as relevant and basic service delivery is concerned”. A responsive, transparent, and accountable municipality avoids service delivery protests. Service quality protests arise when the population of a region expressed its frustration with the mode and measure where public services are delivered, remaining in South Africa for an extensive period (The Citizen, 2020).

### **The practice of fundamental values and principles of public administration in local government**

Binza (2012) remarks that with ratifying the 1996 Constitution, local government in South Africa began a new era. The Constitution established a wall-to-wall local government system for the first time in history, requiring municipalities to be constituted over the entire territory of the Republic (Binza, 2012). The Constitution of RSA (1996) indicates that South African local government has these objectives:

- Provide democratic and accountable government for local communities;
- Ensure service delivery to people in a sustainable manner;
- Encourage social and economic growth;
- Encourage a safe and healthy environment; and
- Promote the participation of the public and their organisations in the matters of local government.

According to SALGA (2021), South Africa's local government is divided into eight metropolitan municipalities, representing the country's eight most populated and industrialised areas. Outside of urban regions, the local government mandate is conducted through a two-tier system, with 228 local municipalities divided into 44 district municipalities, sharing the functional competencies outlined in the Constitution's Schedules 4B and 5B. The Municipal Structures Act of 1998 establishes a division of responsibility between the district and the local municipality (SALGA, 2021). SALGA (2021) further adds that the Constitution allows municipalities to regulate the local government affairs of their community on their own initiative. This paper focused on fundamental values and principles of public administration in one district municipality, Zululand. Zululand comprises five local municipalities. Since local government is autonomous, how do we know that, as a public sector institution, they maintain public ethics within their operations?

Brynard (2015) believes that municipalities need to attempt—within their financial and administrative dimensions, to accomplish these objectives. For local government to be effective, they need to *meet all* these objectives. To meet the above aims, local government and its entities and employees need to adhere to Section 195 of the South African Constitution. Motubatse, Ngwakwe, Sebola (2017) insist that a municipality must aim to attain these goals within its financial and administrative potential. A municipality needs to accomplish all these goals to succeed. Local government and its organisations and workers must adhere to Section 195 of the South African Constitution to accomplish the above goals (Motubatse, Ngwakwe, & Sebola, 2017).

Molina and McKeown (2012) conclude that the values and principles of public administration serve as a guide for municipalities. These values and principles promote efficient, effective, and cost-effective resource management while assisting municipalities in determining if service provision is conducted within its scope and the constraints of resources. Services must be provided in a legal and ethically acceptable manner (Molina & McKeown, 2012).



## Research Methodology

This paper employed a qualitative research method in the collection and interpretation of data. The qualitative research method was employed in order to evaluate thorough the level of implementing constitutional values and principles of public administration in Zululand. This paper and its findings are descriptive, comprising the participants' verbal expressions about practising democratic values and principles of public administration in Zululand. The data was qualitatively analysed by narrating the opinions, and perceptions of participants.

The targeted location for this paper was the Zululand district in KwaZulu Natal, South Africa. Zululand comprises of five local municipalities, indicating eDumbe, Bhekuzulu, Ulundi, Nongoma, and uPhongolo. This study initially targeted a mayor and a municipal manager of each of the five local municipalities within Zululand, heads of departments from ZDM. The paper however presents the findings of municipal officials, because politicians were unable to participate in the process of data collections. All targeted participants hold a significant function in Zululand district, the paper initially targeted 42 participants (mayors and municipal officials), however, only 35 municipal officials were able to participate, mayors were unable to participate. Moreover, A purposive, non-probability sampling was used to select municipal officials which include municipal managers and heads of the departments. Primary data were collected through structured interviews with the municipal managers and heads of the departments (HODs) in ZDM. Data were analysed based on themes emanated from interview questions as they are presented below.

## Presentation and discussion of findings from municipal officials

After conducting structured interviews with municipal officials, the responses were independently sorted through the analysis of the results. The results were analysed based on research questions as they are presented below. When sorting the answers, the statements projecting similar ideas were grouped according to different themes. The first question was on their understanding of the concept of public administration and the participants from various local municipalities within the Zululand district responded:

"It is the management of state resources for the benefit of the society. It is about ensuring that service delivery is at the best interest of the public through proper utilisation of public funds".

It was crucial for the researcher to get the understanding from the participants especially because there has been various report of maladministration in this municipality. Coetzee (2012) supports this statement, by defining public administration as a wide-ranging and distinctive area of activity comprising public officials operating in public institutions and providing goods and services in the community's interests.

A municipal official from Zululand added:

"Public administration is a platform for them to serve their communities the best way they know-how. It requires them to be aware of society and look after it, prioritizing individuals and their communities' progress and well-being, integrity, sensitivity, empathy and foresight".

### **Understanding Section 195 of the South African Constitution.**

The second question that was posed to participants was based on their understanding of Section 195 of the RSA Constitution. Participants observed this section of the Constitution as a set of public sector guidelines.

“These are guidelines that are intended for public officials, and they regulate how public officials should conduct themselves in the performance of their duties within public institutions. All public servants, whether in local, provincial or national government, should follow and duly comply with these guidelines”, one participant mentioned.

“Section 195 of the RSA Constitution, beyond meritocracy, describes the essence of a South African civil servant who not only respects ideals and beliefs but also executes his/her everyday obligations consequently. The values and principles of public administration set basis for fairness, equity and social justice”, another participant added.

Participants understood Section 195 of the RSA Constitution. The responses correspond with Matsiliza (2013), indicating that an independent, normative (value) structure that South Africans need to adhere to and where all South Africans must live is provided by the principles expressed in Section 195 of the Constitution. Moreover, Section 195 of the RSA Constitution provides values and principles supporting public administration in South Africa. According to Levin (2018), values and principles support choices, empowering individuals to consider and make informed decisions about diverse situations and act to advance democracy. In the rendering of public services and the administration of the public sector, these democratic values should always prevail.

### **Promoting and enforcing the democratic values and principles of public administration by the municipality.**

The third question was based on the promotion and enforcement of the constitutional democratic values and principles of public administration in their municipality. The Public Administration Management Act (PAMA) (2014) emphasises the importance of promoting and enforcing the values and principles enshrined in Section 195 of the Constitution. The RSA Constitution (1996) Section 195, Sub-section 2 remarks that the values and principles embodied in Section 195, Sub-Section 1 apply to administration in every sphere of government; organs of state; and public enterprises. As local government administrations, the local municipalities within Zululand, according to participants, follow their constitutional obligations of promoting and enforcing the democratic values and principles of public administration.

Participants responded as follows:

“The Zululand district promotes and maintains high standard of professional ethics, promotes efficient, economic and effective use of resources. Municipal services, both at local and at district level are provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias. When I say ‘local’ I’m referring to all five local municipalities within the district”.

“In this municipality, the needs of the residents are well responded to and public participation is highly encouraged for the improvement of service delivery”.

“Zululand has mechanism for ensuring transparency and accountability, both at local levels and at district level. Our audit reports can vouch for us. Chief, I can assure you that our district is indeed guided Section 195 of the RSA Constitution in its operation”.

“As a municipality we have risk management and auditing, as well as fraud prevention and anti-corruption measures to ensure that a high standard of professional ethics in our municipality is promoted and maintained”.

“In my professional capacity as an accounting officer of this municipality, I ensure that this municipality promotes and maintains a high standard of professional ethics by reporting corruption, investigating financial misconduct, staff screening and financial interest declaration, having staff restrictions on conducting business with the municipality, and getting authorisation for remunerated activities, of staff, outside of their contractual obligations”.

“As public servants, we are guided by the Constitution in the execution of our municipal duties. We adhere to the values and principles given in section 195 of the Constitution and we continuously strive towards the improvement in the practices of these values on a daily basis in variety of ways”.

This was a compelling argument that the municipality promotes and enforces the democratic values and principles of public administration as they are entrenched in the constitution. These findings are supported by the literature, where Ijeoma *et al.*; (2013) remark how South Africa progressed by implementing the values and principles of public administration in developing the country and providing for its people.

### **Implementing the values and principles of public administration to improve governance and service delivery.**

The fourth question, participants were questioned on how local ZDM and the district municipality employ/implement the values and principles of public administration to improve governance and service delivery. Participants responded as follows:

“As a municipality we promote liberty, non-racialism, and democracy in order to build communities. We, as a municipality strive at developing a democratic culture in which tolerance, openness, and free expression flourish. We have the legitimacy, accountability, and credibility, in which municipal officials become true servants of the people they serve”.

“Our municipality promotes equity in society by creating and sustaining an atmosphere that promotes economic growth and development, restores law and order and instilling respect for security, public law, and order in order to combat violence, crime, and corruption within our territory”.

“As an accounting officer of this municipality, I ensure that resources are allocated to programs that provide the most value for money and are implemented in accordance with local government objectives. I also make sure that the municipality is getting inputs at suitable prices through proper Supply Chain Management practices”.

“All operations of this municipal are guided by the provisions of the Constitution, national legislation, provincial legislation, and by-laws, which provide the basis for effective governance”.

“The ZDM uses or implements the values and principles of public administration in conjunction with relevant legislations such as the MFMA, municipal structures act and, more in particular, the Local Government Municipal Systems Act”.

Moreover, study participants further highlighted the importance of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act and how it is used in ZDM to enhance the provision of services.

They indicated that municipal systems acts intends to:

“To establish the basic concepts, procedures and processes necessary to allow municipalities to develop towards local community social and economic elevation, and to provide universal access to affordable vital services”.

“To provide for the exercise and performance of municipal authorities and functions”.

“To provide for public participation”.

“Providing a foundation for local public administration and development of human resources”.

“Develop the support, monitoring and standard-setting framework for other government spheres so that local governments progressively establish themselves as an efficient, forward-load development agency able to integrate all levels of government's activities in order to enhance social and economic overall communities in harmony with its natural local environment”.

A municipal official commented that:

“What guide our service standard is our knowledge and well implementation of legislations relevant to the public service. Legislation such as the Public Service Act of 1994, the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WTPSD) of 1995, the White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery (WTPSD) of 1997 (the Batho Pele principles), the Public Service Regulations of 1999, the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) of 1999 and the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act of 2000”.

The above is maintained by Damon (2015) who avowed that:

Post-apartheid, South African municipalities have transformed their ethical infrastructure and integrity system to promote good behaviour through legal framework. This includes the Public Finance Management Act of 1999, the Public Administration Management Act of 2014, the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act of 2004, the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act of 2000, and the Promotion of Access to Information Act of 2000.

The findings presented above revealed that municipal officials implement constitutional values and principles as their daily guidelines towards ensuring effective service delivery in ZDM.

### **Development-oriented activities by the municipality.**

The fifth question was about how they ensure that activities of their respective municipalities are development-oriented and participants responded as follows:

“Zululand District consists of local municipality such as UPhongolo, Nongoma, uLundi, Abaqulusi and Dumbe. These local municipalities are supported financially by the district. The Zululand district municipality ensures the redistribution of resources to all its local municipalities timeously, also assist these local municipalities to provide services to the people and sustain the provision of services in their areas”.

“We develop and support sustainable local economic development, with a focus on tourism development and involving the youth and the vulnerable”.

“In ensuring that activities within the district are development orientated, the Zululand district municipality has a local economic development (LED) office. All local municipalities within the district also have their own LED offices. The existence of these LED offices is to develop the local economies through the implementation of proper economic development initiatives”.

“As officials, we constantly update citizens about the services available within the municipality. The Zululand district municipality also provide support to local municipalities through cooperation with local municipalities; also assist local municipalities to promote social and economic development”.

“Since we came into office in 2016, we have been responsible for basic services that support human well-being and economic progress. We have redefined the importance of promoting economic and social development. Each financial year, a big chunk of the budget goes towards economic and social development initiatives. Our main budget priorities include infrastructure development, LED programmes, water supply, education, health, sanitation, and agriculture”.

“As a municipality, in ensuring that our activities are development-oriented, we are guided by the Integrated Development Planning (IDP). The IDP is a five-year strategic plan for future social and economic development of the municipality. It is a mechanism that involves both the municipality and the citizens in finding a solution in achieving the long-term objectives. Since IDP looks at social and economic development therefore ZDM uses IDP to create jobs for local citizens, provision of infrastructure and service delivery”.

#### A participant added:

“We further the development of our municipality by forming collaborations with local businesses and non-profit organisations that can help accomplish developmental goals, enhancing community development capacities and public engagement capacity”.

There are different strategies that were mentioned by participants as a way of ensuring development in their district, such as the use of IDP, budget, partnerships with businesses and NGOs and public participation. These findings are supported by Addison (2011) maintains that the mobilisation of all society stakeholders behind the development goal is another crucial aspect of development orientation. This involves forming partnerships with the business sector and putting development in the hands of communities so they may take charge of their progress. It involves encouraging patriotism and general goodwill among the private sector and community stakeholders.

#### **Enforcing and encouraging municipal public participation.**

Participants were also probed about the enforcement of public participation, and the following responses were provided:

“Public participation is a crucial aspect in municipal service delivery. In our municipality, public participation is stimulated through the design of flexible programs that involve citizens more in in-service design, delivery, evaluation, and governance of projects/service delivery”.

“We enforce public participation by enhancing and redesigning the municipality’s authority frameworks, processes, rules, and culture to make it more responsive and by empowering municipal officials to be change agents in their communities by creating an organisational culture that ensures officials are in tune with their communities”.

“As municipal officials we frequently organise community meetings and Imbizos for the people to voice their opinions in matters of public interest”.

“Since we now live in a digitalised world, as a municipality we have taken advantage of media and digital communication and use it to facilitate and promote public participation. We make use of modern communication methods such as social media and internet surveys to promote public participation”.

### A participant added:

“As a municipality, we use ward committees to facilitate and encourage public participation. Our municipality also has Community Development Workers who work with the ward committees to carefully provide vital information that community and governmental organizations should gain”.

This was a standard answer provided by over ten participants interviewed. This shows that this is regarded as the most effective way to ensure effective service delivery in the district. The literature supporting these findings include the PSC (2008) report, mentioning that ward committees and community development workers are great facilitators of public participation in each municipality.

### **Impartial and fair service provision within the municipality.**

The participants were further asked about the impartial and fair provision of services, some participants responded as follows:

“As municipal officials, provision of services, in a fair and equitable manner, is our core mandate. In ensuring this, we conduct proper research surveys and feasibility studies of the area as well as the type of services that are needed and then draft a proper budget allocation that will assist in fulfilling this duty”.

“The needs of the people are met through targeting of services and eligibility criteria to see if they're equitable. This municipality ensures impartial, fair and equitable resource allocation to various groups and geographic areas. To further ensure impartiality, fairness and equitability, our municipality makes necessary changes to policy, budgets, and administrative procedures. Administrative decision-making procedures are laid-out and compared to PAJA and other pertinent legislation”.

“As a municipality, we are conscious of the people's needs and strive to reflect our communities' aspirations. We are dedicated to taking responsible and accountable actions, promoting racial harmony through tolerance and care; and protecting our citizens. As a municipality, we provide infrastructure and municipal services to all, with a focus on rural communities, in a sustainable and fair manner”.

“Municipal officials constantly engage with community members and ward councillors to identify services that are needed in the community and then work towards the provision of those services”.

The responses from the municipal officials from various municipalities across Zululand indicates that with service provision, people are treated equally and with respect, regardless of their gender, race, age, or political affiliation.

### **Transparency and accountability within the municipality.**

Proceeding with evaluating the implementation of constitutional values and principles of Public Administration in ZDM, municipal officials were asked during the interview session on how they ensure accountability and transparency in their respective municipalities. They mentioned various ways to ensure transparency and accountability within Zululand. Participants responses are presented below:

“The district municipality and its local municipalities have a variety of ways of ensuring transparency and accountability. This includes regular communication with stakeholders and the people, publicising memos, cases, minutes of meetings and outcomes”.

“This municipality ensures transparency by sharing relevant information with the citizens. The municipality has a multitude of ways (both online and offline) for community members to obtain information.

These include municipal website and information boards. Holding an annual general meeting (AGM), which offers different stakeholders the opportunity to assemble, learn about previous year's municipal operations and finances and to raise questions is another method that we use to ensure transparency and accountability”.

“In order to ensure transparency and accountability and to put people’s minds at ease about any corruption allegations, forensic investigations have been implemented in our municipality. When we took over this municipality in 2016, we realised that there was a lot of corruption going on. We knew we had to work hard to bring about change in this place, till this day we continue to work hard for our people”.

“As a municipality we regularly host workshops and trainings for our employees on the importance of transparency and accountability”.

“Officials of this are always asked and are always expected to account for their actions or actions within their respective departments and they do, as it is reflected in our audit reports. Officials do provide information about decisions and actions, explain and justify decisions and actions, exercise discretion, accept responsibility for these, disclose the results in a transparent manner, and, most importantly, understand that failure to meet duties and commitments has consequences”.\

“I know when people talk about transparency, they always focus on financial matters. To show transparency in our financial activities as a municipality we always publicise our overall budget and publicise how financial resources are being spent”.

“We guarantee transparency and accountability by reporting on the regularity and effectiveness of the use, including own activities and actions, of public monies. We always welcome audits and publicly publish audit findings and recommendations, unless specific laws and regulations render them private. Additionally, we report on the follow up actions taken with respect to audit recommendations”.

The above results indicate that transparency and accountability have profound implications for good governance. Good governance is inseparable from accountability (Coetzee, 2018). Cloete and Mokgoro (1995) postulate that the original meaning of accountability is to be answerable for one's behaviour/ actions or inaction. Public accountability implies the obligation resting on each public functionary to act in the public interest and in accordance with his or her conscience, with solutions for every matter based on professionalism and participation, and development as the safety measure. In a constitutional democracy, public accountability means that politicians and officials should show responsibility by accounting to the very public on the way they execute the authority and responsibilities entrusted to them.

### **Good human resource management and career-development practices within the municipality.**

The last question that was posed to participants was with regards to good human resource management and career-development practices, the participants remarked the following:

“Our human-resource management and career-development practices, as a municipality, are guided by relevant South African legislations such as the basic conditions of employment act, the employment equity act, the labour relations act, the skills development act and many others”.

“The Zululand district municipality, like any other public institution, is guided by relevant legislations such as the Basic Conditions of employment Act and Labour Relations Act”.

“The Zululand district municipality regularly organises Career workshops for its employees. The purpose

of these workshops is to enable officials to identify and analyse problems in public administration, develop solutions to those and act professionally. These workshops help employees to be able to interpret and apply the principles underlying administrative justice, for example fairness, real estate, and so on, and to provide information about norms and values that promote democratic public administrative management”.

“As a municipality we ensure good career-development practices by providing subsidies to employees who want to further their studies and providing rewards and performance management bonuses. We also ensure good human-resource management practices by ensuring that the selection processes are fair, transparent and within the bounds of the law. All the nepotism allegations that people always make against our municipality are not true”.

“The municipality enhances employee capacities by professionalizing essential jobs and implementing a coordinated career development plan. Analytical capabilities are being built into institutional capacities. The municipality require excellent analytical talents to establish policies, devise programs, and plan execution (financial modelling, policy analysis, evaluation, strategic planning, organisational development, process design)”.

“I think it is also important to mention that as a municipality we strive for human resource capacity development through education and training of municipal personnel to a level that allows the municipality to perform its tasks in an efficient, quality, collaborative, and accountable way”.

“As a municipality, we do not strive only strive for good human-resource management within the municipality, but we also provide career-development opportunities to the people that we serve, the community. We provide learner ships and internships for youth, give youth an opportunity to do computer studies, provide students with academic fees for registration in higher institution after completing their matric”.

“In South Africa, as the law states, a public servant is motivated by a set of values and a responsibility to serve his/her fellow citizens, the municipality renders no exception. Upon joining the municipality, a candidate is expected to be prepared for a long-term career and participate in a structured training and development programs. The municipality has a career system that is designed to systematically create pools of skills and to promote candidates preferentially from a pool of people who possess functional as well as generic management competencies to enhance performance”.

“Municipal employees are encouraged to develop their own career capacities by taking up postgraduate studies and to also register for online courses at the National School of Government to expand their knowledge of the public service”.

The PAMA (2014) also outlines the function of the National School of Governance in ensuring that the values and principles are gradually realised in the quality, scope, and effect of human resource capacity development in institutions through education and training. These responses confirm that ZDM cultivates good human resource management and career-development practices to maximise human capital. Local municipalities and the district municipality are constantly developing staff skills, maximising employees, and increasing staff productivity.



## Conclusion

The paper aimed to evaluate if the ZDM and its Category B municipalities practice the democratic values and principles of public administration as stipulated in the Constitution and how such municipalities implement them to improve governance and service delivery. This paper provided vivacity to some principles enshrined in the Constitution. Facts were presented on how applying fundamental values and principles of public administration produces good governance in Zululand. The public sector significantly applies the code of ethics, the values, and the principles of public administration. Conversely, applying the values and principles of public administration in Zululand is at a low level, according to the participants. Evidence was presented on how the district municipality provides its utmost support to its local municipalities in ensuring good governance and improved service delivery. For a municipality to thrive, it must be supported by values contributing to creating an environment conducive to its consolidation. Such values should not merely remain on paper, not affecting how people live or how government institutions conduct their mandates. The government, at all levels, should constantly encourage public officials to share democratic values and provide services to society. In a municipality, a wide range of political party affiliations and interest groups is beneficial because it allows for a more thorough examination of the decisions and policies of the administration; however, in a constitutional democracy, all manifestations of variety must be submissive to the Constitution.

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