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Sithole, Matimba John Philip

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EVALUATING THE BACK TO BASICS PROGRAMME: WATER PROVISION IN GIYANI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

The South African Constitution (1996) mandates local government to ensure the provision of services in a sustainable manner, including water to communities. Among other rights such as access to health care services, enough food and social security, Section 27 of the Constitution provides that everyone has the right to have access to sufficient water and that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources to achieve the progressive realisation of these rights. The Constitution further states that "the national and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their own affairs, exercise their powers and perform their functions" (RSA, 1996). This Constitutional mandate has brought expectations for improved service delivery to historically marginalized communities, and in particular communities in rural areas that face persistent municipal basic service delivery challenges.

The urgency of water demand and supply to sustain rural communities has recently been aggravated by worsening drought conditions arising with climate change. The extent of basic water demand is further exacerbated by the adverse social and economic realities facing rural communities linked to chronic water shortages. The objective of basic water supply is the provision of potable water on a constant basis which addresses the security of supply across seasons, and between wet and dry seasons, which is imperative if health and wider poverty mitigation benefits are to be met and sustained (Obeta and Nwankwo, 2015). According to the Water Project (2015) "in Sub-Saharan Africa, millions of poor people in rural communities and urban centres lack clean safe water". The extent of demand for basic water supply highlights a need for a coordinated robust and holistic approach by government to urgently respond to the challenge of enhanced water supply to rural communities at a local government level. The responsibility of supplying free basic water services to all communities implies that all municipalities across South Africa should strive to achieve this mandate.

However, there have been difficulties for municipalities in discharging their Constitutional mandate. This has led to national government intervening to improve the functioning of

municipalities. Since the establishment of the new local government systems in South Africa in 2000 there have been series of support measures by national government such as Project Consolidate (2004), the Five Year Local Government Strategic Agenda (2006), and the Local Government Turn Around Strategy (LGTAS) (2009) to support and strengthen capacities of municipalities in order to discharge improved basic service delivery as required by legislative and policy regimes. The national government intervention mechanisms in the local government sphere are based on these Constitutional provisions and the other legislative imperative which mandates national and provincial spheres, in the "spirit" of cooperative governance, to support and assist local government to embrace the developmental local government approach in an effort to enhance local government delivery of basic services.

Despite these efforts of support and strengthening local government capabilities to deliver improved services, many municipalities have had difficulties in fulfilling these mandates. A report published in 2009 by the national Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (Cogta) noted the "unique challenges faced by weaker and more vulnerable municipalities' complex rural development problems, including a massive infrastructure backlog legacy that requires extraordinary measures to address funding and delivery capacity requirements" (Cogta, 2009: 8). The challenge of huge infrastructure backlog suggests that municipalities find it difficult to supply clean running water to communities where these huge backlogs are prevalent, particularly in rural areas. A more recent Cogta report (2014) found that a third of municipalities are "dysfunctional". A 'dysfunctional' municipality is a municipality that exhibits the following challenges: a political-administrative interface (i.e. where there is political interference in the administration of the municipality, particularly when it comes to tenders); high political in-fighting and instability; Non-compliance with municipal financial governing legislation (i.e. Municipal Finance Management Act) rules and regulations; high vacancy rate; high levels of incompetency among staff; extremely low levels of capital budget spending; inappropriate spending of budgets; overall disregard for financial and supply chain management regulations; compromised service delivery; high level of community dissatisfaction resulting in protests; and absence of plans (Cogta, 2014). In these "dysfunctional" municipalities, the report revealed that there is also "endemic corruption, Councils which do not function, no structured community engagement, and poor financial management leading to continuous negative outcomes. There is also a poor record of service delivery" (Cogta, 2014: 5). As such, an increased support and capacity building is required to

get these municipalities to function effectively and ensure that basic water service is properly and deliver consistently delivered to all communities in line with the constitutional mandate.

The persistence of these challenges, and the fact that a significant proportion of municipalities in South Africa cannot provide the most basic services required that a differentiated approach should be adopted. In response, the national government introduced the Back to Basics programme (B2B) in 2014, which is aimed at strengthening the local sphere of government, improving service delivery and promoting economic growth and development at a local level (Cogta, 2014: 6). The B2B emphasizes the need for municipalities to deliver basic services first as a prerequisite to a developmental local government and in pursuit of the realisation of the National Development Plan (NDP) goals of a developmental state. The B2B approach is one of the series of national government's Local Government Improvement Programmes (LGIP) launched since the year 2000 as part of the national government's approach in supporting and reforming local government to achieve the goal of DLG. Furthermore, LGIP is a key constitutional and legislative imperative for national and provincial Cogta departments. All these programmes are premised from the assumption that "if the basics are performed well as prescribed by the laws governing local government, higher levels of performance in municipalities will be realized" (Cogta, 2014).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Local government has the primary responsibility to ensure that basic water service is delivered to the benefit of all local communities. It is important to note that local government in South Africa has achieved much in terms of reducing the massive service delivery backlogs. For instance, Statistics shows there has been an increase in access to water services from 80.4% households in 1996 to 91.3% of households in 2011 (Statssa, 2011). This increase included a significant expansion of water service delivery, particularly to rural communities. Furthermore, the 2009-10 Department of Water Affairs Annual Report also revealed that 86% of poor households have access to free basic water (DWAF, 2010:38). According to Public Affairs Research Institute (PARI) (2015), South Africa had already in 2005, ahead of the targets date, met its United Nations Millennium Development Goal as half the population had access to safe drinking water.

However, in spite of all the processes put in place, studies have shown that "a significant number of rural communities in South Africa still do not have access to potable water and often resort to using unprotected water sources" (Mothetha et al, 2013). Expansion of adequate water

supply to rural areas has proved to be a challenge that has been associated with various factors including sustainability, cost recovery, ageing water infrastructure, scarcity of water sources, borehole infection leading poor water quality, and inadequate bulk water supply and funding (Mopani District Municipality, 2013; PARI, 2015).

The lack of municipal institutional capacities is also a major factor. Obeta and Nwankwo (2015); pointed out that "rural water supply is stalled by poor coordination, poor maintenance culture, poor technical institutional structure, multiple programmes, lack of data for planning, overbearing bureaucratic control by various supervising ministries, inappropriate infrastructure as well as clear policy direction". These challenges are further exacerbated by several related challenges including "poor capacity and weak administration systems illustrated by poor financial and administrative management, weak technical and planning capacity, corruption, governance and uneven fiscal capacity" (The Presidency, 2013) that have become the hallmarks of local government in South Africa. These difficulties have resulted in increased civil society protests which have been directed at municipalities. The PARI's (2015) study questions how we may square the impressive gains of service delivery with community dissatisfaction expressed through protests.

Central to municipal service delivery is the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), which is intended to guide and coordinate all sector plans both horizontally within the municipality and vertically with other spheres of government. This means the national and provincial sector plans should be aligned to the municipal IDPs in a coherent manner. However, the national government's implementation of various LGIP's designed to enhance local government performance and service delivery do not yet appear to have satisfactorily addressed the challenges of extending water supply to rural communities.

The LGIP is a Constitutional and legislative imperative for both national and provincial government instituted with the understanding that if these various support measures and interventions planned and coordinated by the national and provincial government are implemented higher levels of performance will be realised at the local government level. However, a plethora of related challenges illustrated by systematic institutional inefficiency, lack of capacity, poor financial administration, poor planning and weak technical capabilities have generally contributed to poor service delivery and in particular inadequate water supply to rural communities. These challenges further reveal municipalities' inability in implementing

of Constitutional, legislative and policy directives for basic service delivery to indigent households.

The failure of municipalities to provide adequate services equally among all communities also reflects the difficulties of the systematic application of the neoliberal approach to municipal water management that accompanied reforms from apartheid to a democratic South Africa. The adoption of these neoliberal policies and practices and the influences of the New Public Management (NPM) within the water sector has effectively meant that "it is neither technologically nor financially feasible, nor necessarily environmentally sustainable to provide water supply to peri-urban and rural populations owing to factors such as land ownership, housing density, mobility of population, terrain and accessibility" (Gounden et al 2013, quoted in Bond, 2014:3). The adoption of neoliberal policies effectively translated to the commercialization of water resources, which has negatively impacted the extension of water supply to impoverished rural communities as these communities could not pay for water service.

The research problem, therefore, revolves around the impact of national government's most recent attempt at local government support with respect to improving the ability of "dysfunctional" municipalities to provide a basic water supply, and in particular to largely rural communities. This research problem also relates to the broader challenges of developmental local government and municipalities' institutional capacity operating within a neoliberal public management paradigm, which appears to impact negatively on basic service provision.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to address the following question:

- To what extent has the implementation of the Back to Basics programme in Giyani Local Municipality addressed the long-standing challenges of facilitating water supply to rural communities in a "dysfunctional" municipality?

Sub-questions:

1. How have the successive national government programmes attempted to reform municipal performance, and facilitate improved service delivery (especially water supply)?

2. What are the intentions of the B2B programme, and how does it relate to cooperative governance and municipal planning systems?
3. What are the challenges in supplying water to rural communities in Giyani Local Municipality?
4. How has the recent implementation of the B2B programme impacted upon rural water supply in Giyani municipality?
5. Is the B2B programme an appropriate response to the existing water supply challenges facing "dysfunctional" municipalities in South Africa?

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The main aim of the study is to critically investigate how the Back to Basics programme is facilitating water supply to poor rural communities. First, it seeks to investigate the impact of the recently introduced Back to Basics (B2B) programme, by unravelling how the water supply challenges in rural areas are being addressed by the programme. Secondly, it considers whether previous experiences from the earlier national government municipal support programmes have been incorporated in the B2B approach and whether its approach to challenges may promise a more satisfactory outcome.

The following objectives are set:

- To consider key contextual challenges facing the national government support programmes to municipalities and provide insight relating to failures identified in the local government support programmes;
- To examine the linkage between the national government support programmes and the municipal Integrated Development Plan;
- To consider the impacts of B2B and if necessary, make recommendations for (the implementation of) an appropriate local government support programme that may ensure improved water service delivery by "dysfunctional" municipalities.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Many academic studies have been conducted generally on local government performance in South Africa (e.g. Macanda, 2014; Maphailla, 2015; Pretorius and Schrunink 2007), but very few have focused on evaluating the effectiveness of the national government support

programmes in optimising municipal service delivery. The significance of the study is the fact that the Back to Basics (B2B) programme was recently (2014) launched and as result, there is no extensive academic enquiry that evaluates the effectiveness of B2B in facilitating the delivery of basic water supplies to rural communities. It is unique in that it empirically explores the operation and functioning of the concept of cooperative governance and coordination of government programmes in an effort to enhance service delivery within a "dysfunctional" municipality.

This study arose out of identifying gaps that exist on the national and provincial government initiatives to support and strengthen the functioning of municipalities through policy and other measures. It was also motivated by observing the existence of huge backlogs in relation to access to basic water supply by poor households in rural areas. The significance of this study is that it can assist by contributing to the existing literature on local government service delivery mechanisms. The study can also serve as a guide to national, provincial and local government managers when formulating policies and implementing key service delivery programmes to improve the livelihoods of all citizens. It could further enable local government and related agencies in the understanding of improved service delivery.

The study's purpose goes beyond a narrow assessment evaluation of programmes performance to explore the underlying neoliberal approach adopted by the government in the execution of its constitutional mandate. In this way, the study aims to build on the research by PARI into the management and distribution of municipal water supplies. The PARI (2015) study found that there are high dissatisfaction levels in the water sector due to dysfunctional water supply and sanitation systems. The PARI (2015) study further revealed that grievances against water and sanitation feature consistently among the top five reasons that ferment increased civil society protests.

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The study is guided by the research question: how has the back to Basics programme addressed the challenges of long-standing water supply to rural communities in a "dysfunctional" municipality? In order to respond to this question, the study is based on the qualitative research method and data are gathered by using both primary and secondary sources. A qualitative research method has been defined as a process of "making sense" of data gathered from interviews, on-site observation, documents, etc., then "responsibly presenting what data can reveal" (Crabtree et al, 2005:417). More importantly, as Vaterlaus and Higginbotham (2005:1)

point out, qualitative methods are commonly used in evaluations in order to explore specific facts of programmes and to give voice to participants' experiences. Therefore, in identifying the most appropriate method of enquiry, this study is influenced by the underlying assumptions of the qualitative method in order to evaluate the B2B programme. The qualitative method is also appropriate in that it provides an opportunity for participants to articulate their experiences and viewpoints in relation to the B2B programme.

Much has been published in the academic literature on programme evaluation. According to Rossi and Freeman (1989: 6); programme evaluation as a means of providing valid findings about the effectiveness of programmes to those persons with responsibilities or interests related to the programmes' creation, continuation, or improvements. Berner and Bronson (2009) pointed out that "regardless of the form, evaluations typically are done in the following five steps: *(i) agree on and articulate the programme goals and objectives, (ii) agree and declare the programme theory of change (i.e. what are specific type of methods to use for planning, participation, implementation and evaluation) , (iii) specify and agree on the criteria that will be used to measure success and standards that must be met, (iv) gather data according to the criteria to see if the standards have been met, and (v) interpret data and present results in a meaningful and useful manner".* Steele (1970) situates programme evaluation in terms of three essential elements: judgement, evidence, and criteria. She defines programme evaluation as a process of "judging" the worth of the programme by comparing evidence as to what the programme "is" with "criteria "as to what the programme "should be".

Although there are differences regarding the standard definition of the concept, both Berner and Bronson (2009) and Steele (1970) definitions agree that programme evaluation involves a systematic process of data collection, assessing data relating to the programme's effectiveness. Notwithstanding the evaluation of whether the Back to Basics is able to facilitate universal basic water supplies, the study has also adopted an evaluation method to establish the systematic challenges facing municipalities in providing universal basic water to all communities, particularly in rural areas where many households do not have access to running water.

The evaluation of the B2B programme utilises a case study in order to determine its impact, effectiveness, strength and limitations in terms of water provision in a typical rural context. The case study is undertaken at Giyani Local Municipality (GLM). GLM represents one of the municipalities identified in the 2014 COGTA Diagnostic Report as "Dysfunctional", in other

words, it could not provide basic services to its communities. GLM is located in the Mopani District Municipality (MDM) in the Limpopo province (see map below). The study has identified Siyandhani village within the GLM where there are prevalent instances of protests related to lack of water supply.

Although the B2B programme is implemented by all municipalities in all categories (i.e. those that are functional, fairly functional, and dysfunctional), the findings of this case study are unique to GLM and cannot be regarded as representative of other dysfunctional municipalities. Nevertheless, it is also understood that many share a similar set of challenges in their efforts to extend basic water supply to rural communities. The B2B programme seeks to provide support to all dysfunctional municipalities across South Africa in order to ensure that all municipalities are able to perform their core function of delivering sustainable services to all its communities, including water. In terms of Back to Basics programme, each municipality is required to develop an Action Plans based on their unique existing challenges. As such the ability (or lack thereof) of GLM to extend universal water supply to its rural communities might not necessarily reflect failures of other dysfunctional and largely rural municipalities to do so.

1.6.1 Sources of data

Two types of data are required: to understand the programme itself in the municipality (i.e. desktop review) and opinions from key municipal and public sector officials as well as community members. Grey data relating to the municipal B2B programme and its impact on the supply of basic water to rural communities was obtained from the available Cogta and municipal documents. Primary data was sourced from the officials who are directly responsible for water supply within the water provision value chain. In the context of GLM, the water provision sectors involve the GLM, Mopani District Municipality, and Lepelle Northern Water (LNW). LNW is a Water Board established in terms of Chapter Six (6) of the Water Services Act, No 108 of 1997. Its primary responsibility is to provide water to other water services institutions within its area. In this case, LNW provides bulk water supply to MDM, within which GLM is located. Data was gathered from both primary and secondary sources. An overview of the B2B programme draws on secondary data sourced from Cogta reports and website. The study examines both the Giyani local and Mopani district municipalities' planning processes based on the available data from their reports. The study also makes comparisons of the B2B with other municipal support programmes in terms of performance and the impact of

the B2B on the water supply to a rural community, using Siyandhani village in the GLM municipality as a case study.

Primary data is gathered through interviews of key officials who are directly responsible for water delivery, who include (i) Technical Directors from Giyani local and Mopani district municipalities. (ii) a Ward Committee or Water Committee member from Siyandhani village, and (iii) one official from Lepelle Northern Water (LNW) responsible for bulk water supply in the Mopani region. MDM is a Water Services Authority (WSA) and Water Services Provider (WSP) in all five local municipalities making up MDM. The study also interviewed an official in the LNW responsible for bulk water provision to the MDM in order to gain insight in terms of bulk water supply to the district. The study seeks to evaluate implementation and outcomes of the B2B programme over a period of 2015/ 2016 and 2016/2017 cycle. It is important to note that ordinary community members were not included as part of the sample as some of the questions relate to municipal processes. Instead, a community Water Committee representative at Siyandhani was considered due to his direct involvement in the municipality on water-related matters and will, therefore, provide an accurate reflection of water service delivery status in the case study area.

1.6.2 Data collection

Cresswell (1998), quoted in Pretorius and Schurink (2007: 2) argues that qualitative researcher generally relies on four basic types of data sources: interviews, observations, documents and audiovisual material. I opted to use interviews, observation and documents to evaluate the impact of B2B programme's performance. Interviewing officials in the GLM, MDM, LNW and a Siyandhani Water Committee member provide the study with additional valuable information of practical experiences in relation to the general understanding of the performance, how they manage to address challenges and the overall management of B2B programme.

A semi-structured questionnaire was prepared to collect data. According to Cohen and Crabtree (2006), a semi-structured interview provides a clear set of instructions for interviewers and can be reliable, comparable and qualitative. The benefits of semi-structured interviews are that they "often contain open-ended questions that allow respondents the freedom to express their views in their own terms and also allow the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent on the interview" (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006). Semi-structured interviews, therefore, provide an appropriate tool for comprehensive qualitative data collection. This is important in that

respondents are not limited to a prepared set of questions but are also provided with an opportunity to explore other themes on the subject and provide responses regarding key interventions that can enrich the study.

One-on-one interviews were arranged between the interviewer and the respondents. Formal requests were sent to the following: GLM, MDM, LWB and DWS. Two types of questionnaires with a different set of questions were developed. Officials in the GLM, MDM, and LNW were asked questions relating to (i) Planning in order to understand inter-governmental coordination of planning systems and how they attempt to address challenges in the implementation of the B2B programme at a municipal level; and (ii) Water supply and water infrastructure, operations and maintenance of water infrastructure in order to understand the operations and dynamics of water supply at the GLM in relation to water provision at Siyandhani. Municipal officials were further asked questions relating to the effectiveness of the B2B programme in facilitating water supply to rural communities; whether the national government support programmes have assisted municipalities to facilitate improved service delivery and how the B2B relates to existing municipal planning systems; whether the implementation of the B2B has brought about positive impacts on water supply in the Giyani municipality; and whether the B2B is an appropriate response to the existing challenges to dysfunctional municipalities in South Africa. A separate questionnaire was developed for the Siyandhani Water Committee (SWC) member who was asked general questions about the status of water supply and perspectives on the perceptions around water supply in the village.

Secondary data was gathered by means of desktop reviews of municipality's Quarterly B2B Action Plan Implementation Progress Reports; Municipal Quarterly Reports against the IDP/SDBIP targets, Municipality's Annual Performance Reports, Provincial State of Municipalities Reports (in terms of Section 47 of the Municipal Systems Act). This material provides an understanding in terms of the B2B general performance against targets and effectiveness in facilitating water supply to rural communities.

The table below summarises how the data was collected for the study.

Type of Data	**Source of Data**	**Data collection**
Overview of municipal B2B programme	National Cogta documents and website	Desktop review

Overview of municipal planning processes	District and local municipalities' websites, reports and other relevant documents.	Desktop analysis
Impacts of B2B in the municipality	District and local municipality officials	Semi-structured interviews
Impacts of B2B in communities	Ward councillor, Ward committee, water committees	Semi-structured interviews
Comparison of B2B with other municipal support programmes	District and local municipality officials	Semi-structured interviews
Impact of B2B in Siyandhani village	Officials from District municipality, Local municipality, Ward Committee, Water committee, DWAS, Lepelle Water Board	Semi-structured interviews

1.6.3 Data analysis

In this study data collected from different sources was presented and then analysed. The different strands of data will be triangulated in order to test and cross-verify the validity of the information collected through these various methods. According to Kulkarni (2014), triangulation means using more than one method to collect data on the same topic. This is key in that the sets of data collected.

Data analysis sourced from literature reviews and material from desktop reviews were triangulated in order to complement one another. These include the emerging issues around municipal service delivery programmes and water provision, particularly in rural communities.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was affected by a number of time-related constraints. The most pressing constraint was the timing of the study which coincided with the 2016 Local Government Elections. Although the researcher did not encounter many challenges in securing permission to conduct research at Giyani Local Municipality, there was much resistance in granting the necessary

permissions from other institutions such as the Mopani District Municipality, the Lepelle Water Board and the Department of Water and Sanitation. These constraints are outlined below:

(a) **Giyani local municipality (GLM):** the researcher submitted the University Letter of Request (ULR) to conduct the study in June 2016. The researcher was called to make a presentation to the political and administrative management on the nature of the study and to undertake a commitment not to share information with the media. GLM eventually granted permission in July 2016. The researcher did not have many challenges in securing the study permit in GLM, perhaps partly because the municipality is not a water services authority and provider.

(b) **Lepelle Northern Water (LNW):** the researcher submitted the ULR in June 2016 and made several follow-ups with the LNW. Although a number of presentations, assurances and follow-ups were made by the researcher to LNW, the water utility was still reluctant to grant permission before the elections. The water utility's reluctance was partly influenced by a "pejorative" article published in the City Press newspaper on March 2016 with the following headline regarding water supply projects in Giyani: "*R170 million and still no water- Dodgy tender process and ministerial intervention turn water supply project into pipe dream".* As the water utility responsible for bulk water supply in Giyani and Mopani district the LNW was at the centre of the allegations of corruption. As a result, the water utility was very sensitive to matters relating to their functional area. However, a conditional permission was finally granted a month after the local government elections. The researcher was then requested to sign a memorandum of understanding in order to secure permission to conduct interviews.

(c) **Mopani District Municipality (MDM):** as the Water Services Authority (WSA) to the five local municipalities (including Giyani) within its jurisdiction, the MDM was also implicated in the City Press article. MDM was initially the implementing agent of the Nandoni to Giyani water project but after the allegations of corruption and the resultant litigations that surfaced, the project was taken from MDM to LNW following the High Court Order. The MDM was perhaps the most reluctant in granting the study permission. The request to undertake the study was also submitted to MDM in June 2016 to both the Office of the Municipal Manager and the Mayor. The researcher made numerous follow-ups in person, telephonically and through emails to obtain the permit timeously in vain. The MDM finally granted permission in October 2016.

(d) **The Department of Water and Sanitation (DWS):** The researcher intended to obtain data from key stakeholders in the water sector, including the DWS. When the URL was submitted to the provincial DWS, it was then indicated that the request would be forwarded to the national DWS for permission. After a number of follow-ups were made, the national DWS referred the researcher to the provincial office, which in turn referred the researcher to the national DWS. After a number of enquiries, it appeared that there was no one willing to take responsibility, particularly because the DWS was also implicated in a number of allegations regarding water supply tenders in the GLM. Due to time constraints and the obvious unwillingness of the DWS in sharing information, the researcher decided not to pursue the interviews (with the DWS) during November 2016.

It became clear that with the pending local government elections of August 2016 and the subsequent negative publicity the key water sector stakeholders in the study area were receiving, the researcher had identified a politically sensitive area, and politicians were reluctant to "expose" challenges facing the most vulnerable rural communities even though assurances were made that the study was purely for academic purposes. With hindsight, the delays to grant permits significantly delayed the researcher's application to the School's Ethics Committee as permissions from the institutions concerned are necessary requirements in order for the Ethics Committee to grant permission to proceed with interviews.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher is aware of the ethical considerations that have to be adhered to regarding the University rules and regulations. Central to the data collection process are interviews with stakeholders in the water sector. As part of the procedure, potential participants were approached and supplied with Participation Information Sheets. Care was taken to assure them that the research was conducted solely for academic purposes, and thus, the data will not be used for anything else but for academic work. In this regard, the researcher will provide the relevant documentation from the university (URL) to all potential interviewees stating that data is purely collected for the use of academic research. Further, the researcher informed the interviewees that the interviews would be conducted anonymously and, therefore, their names would not be revealed. This was designed to ensure the confidentiality of the data collected.

The institutions considered for case studies (i.e. Giyani Local Municipality, Capricorn District Municipality and Lepelle Northern Water) were approached and formal requests to conduct

studies were submitted. All three institutions have formally given consent (in writing) for the study to be undertaken. The consents are attached. LNW granted permissions on condition that the researcher agreed and sign a memorandum of agreement, provide a brief background of activities and to focus primarily on the scope of the permission. The MDM and GLM permissions were granted without any commitments signed between the researcher and the institutions. All the three institutions assisted in identifying and making available relevant officials for interviews.

The researcher is an official in the National Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (Cogta) coordinating the B2B in the Free State province. This might give an impression that the researcher has access to material and information that might otherwise be interpreted as a conflict of interest. However, at Cogta level, the researcher only has access to published material. The researcher undertakes not to consider information informally shared with colleagues in meetings, verbally or through texts that have a bearing in the study. Only official data published in the department portal and websites and information published by municipalities were considered. This information was only be used for academic purposes. Furthermore, even though the researcher is a public official the institutions concerned still regarded me as an outsider and were suspicious of my motives. In this instance, my position as a public official was not of much benefit. However, it should be pointed out that I had some advantages in being able to identify and contact officials who were dealing specifically with water provision in all three institutions. These officials were instrumental in giving advice regarding procedure and ensuring that my requests were submitted to the relevant authorities (i.e. at GLM and MDM requests were submitted Mayors who instructed their Accounting Officers/ Municipal Managers to assist, while at LNW the request was submitted directly to the acting Chief Executive Office who approved and formally granted a signed permission).

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This study is structured into five chapters.

Chapter 1:

This chapter outlines the introduction and highlights key aspects of the study which include the Problem Statement, Research Questions, Research Aims and Objectives, Significance of the study, Research Method, Limitations of the study, Ethical Considerations.

Chapter 2

This chapter explores the literature that underpins the local government service delivery. Various models and debates that influenced public reforms at local government are discussed. The chapter also outlines and discusses the various municipal support initiatives by the national government aimed at improving the local government performance. The B2B programme is also discussed in this chapter. This chapter also provides a conceptual framework drawn from the ideas raised and arguments made in this chapter.

Chapter 3

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the case study area of Giyani Local Municipality by providing key statistics in relation to the status of the GLM, challenges facing the municipality and the households living in this area. This chapter also examines B2B implementation in GLM, focusing on the role of water services sectors in the developing sector support plans and implementation at the GLM level.

Chapter 4

This chapter presents the findings from the research under the themes created by the researcher based on the research questions and also discusses research results (both documentary and interviews) pertaining to the implementation and performance of the B2B programme in relation to the water supply to the Giyani municipality and in particular, Siyandhani village. Moreover, it captures and evaluates the findings of the study through a comprehensive outlook of the status quo in terms of basic water provision in the implementation of the B2B programme.

Chapter 5

This chapter concludes the study. In this chapter, a conclusion is developed based on the findings of the previous chapter. This chapter also makes some recommendations by providing proposals to practically remedy the challenges and also that have a broader scope and focus on the approach to public sector water supply.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW- THE SEARCH FOR A RESPONSIVE APPROACH TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT REFORMS AND IMPROVED SERVICE DELIVERY

2.1 Introduction

The aim of the literature review is to provide a critical review of South Africa's post-apartheid local government systems in order to contextualize the various support initiatives, including the current B2B programme. This chapter specifically seeks to address the question regarding the effectiveness of the successive national government programmes that attempted to reform municipal performance and facilitate improved service delivery. The chapter explores literature on various models of governance philosophy that influenced the local government systems in South Africa in order to provide a critical understanding of the functioning of the local government systems and how it has evolved over time.

First, the chapter discusses the guiding concept of Developmental Local Government (DLG) and the successive efforts to promote its practice in municipalities through the formulation of the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs), the introduction of municipal support programmes such as Project Consolidate, the Five Year Local Government Strategic Agenda, and the Local Government Turn-Around Strategy.

Secondly, the chapter explores the institutional approaches that have underpinned these efforts, and specifically, "good governance", the New Public Management (NPM) and Joined-Up government philosophies came to influence public sector reforms and in particular local government (LG) administration in SA. These approaches are key to understanding the efficiency and effectiveness imperatives of SA local government in that they have allowed the community to be involved in the municipal planning systems and also assist the community to participate and make their developmental priorities. These approaches have also allowed the local government officials to be accountable and answerable to the communities they serve.

Building on the approaches outlined above, the third part outlines key principles of cooperative governance and intergovernmental relations and also explores the municipal Performance Management Systems (PMS) as a significant tool for managing and ensuring that LG performs optimally particularly in the area of service provision.

2.2 Developmental Local Government and Public Sector Reforms

The political reforms that took place in 1994 to shift South Africa from Apartheid to democracy, and the subsequent establishment of "new" structures of local government systems during the year 2000 after the municipal elections have placed a significant developmental role on municipalities. Historically, the role of municipalities in South Africa was limited to rendering basic services such as refuse removal, water and electricity. The 1996 Constitution stipulates that local government must go beyond rendering basic services and "play a crucial role in propelling the agenda of development and ensuring deepening democratic culture within municipalities" (Madumo, 2015: 153).

In order to give effect to the constitutional obligations of basic service delivery and the developmental role of local government, the White Paper on Local Government introduced the concept of a "Developmental Local Government" (DLG). The White Paper on Local government defines DLG as a local government that is committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives (DPLG 1998:17). DLG effectively implies that while municipalities play a crucial role in rendering basic services, they should also create socio-economic development for the wellbeing of communities in their areas of jurisdiction. The 1998 White Paper on Local Government specifies four characteristics of DLG:

- Maximising social development and economic growth;
- Integrating and coordinating development planning;
- Promoting democratic development; and
- Building social capital at the local level to enable local solutions to development challenges (DPLG, 1998).

In view of the characteristics of the DLG, it is apparent that in order to fulfil this developmental role municipalities should develop clear policies and put into place systems that would enable and ensure that development at the local level is realised. This implies that municipalities are expected to play a leading role in facilitating development. DLG should be viewed within the broader context of public sector reforms that accompanied the political reforms from the apartheid to democratic dispensation that came after 1994. According to Madumo (2015); DLG "comes as an attempt to reverse the imprint created on South African human settlements and municipal institutions by the Apartheid regime and to further encourage development and transformation in a democratic setting".

The DLG model is based on the appreciation of the importance of linking development, service delivery, and local citizen engagement as an effort to increase control over resources and regulative institutions by groups and movements excluded from such controls (IDASA, 2010). Contrary to the Apartheid municipal systems that were structured along racial and tribal lines and where communities were excluded from participation in decision making concerning service delivery, the 'new' LG systems also seek to promote development and efficient service delivery by coordinating and integrating various sector plans through the municipality's Integrated Development Plans (IDPs).

The formulation of municipal IDPs is a legislative requirement with which all municipalities are expected to comply. The IDP is a five-year strategic plan which all municipalities are required to compile in order to determine the developmental priorities and budget of the municipality. The IDP aims to co-ordinate and integrate development plans of local government in sync with those of other spheres of government in a coherent plan in a manner that seeks to avoid uncoordinated development at a local level. In this way, sector departments' development programmes should be reflected in the municipal IDP for implementation at the local level. It should also be noted that the IDP is a product of the processes that involve community participation and decision making regarding development priorities. As a result, communities play a significant role by articulating their developmental needs that must be reflected IDP and the municipality allocation of resources to implement the community's developmental aspirations.

2.3 The Local Government Support Programmes

However, problems arose in the municipal implementation of the development and service delivery programmes in terms of their IDPs and the national government introduced successive initiatives to support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities in order to improve service delivery mandate. It was clear that municipalities faced serious challenges that undermined service delivery. Van Donk (2008) observed that the "institutional crises of these municipalities were manifested most acutely in the shortage of appropriately skilled municipal staff, especially in the managerial and technical positions, and very weak financial management systems".

Since the formation of the "new" local government structures in 2000, the national government has launched various municipal support programmes in order to consolidate and bolster local government service delivery. In 2004, the national government launched Project Consolidate,

a two year municipal support initiative to support and capacitate municipalities in order to reduce huge service delivery backlogs faced by many municipalities in South Africa. Project Consolidate was a national government support programme which targeted 136 underperforming municipalities. Most of these targeted municipalities were in rural areas. According to Tshishonga (2017); Project Consolidate allowed for a cooperative government arrangement to provide support in order to tackle service delivery challenges at a local level. Project consolidated resulted from intergovernmental cooperation that sought to demonstrate the role of national and provincial government in fulfilling constitutional imperatives to support and strengthen municipalities.

According to DPLG (2004), Project Consolidate aimed to support struggling municipalities in five key performance areas (KPA) of *(i) service delivery and infrastructure development, (ii) local economic development, (iii) municipal transformation and institutional development, (iv) municipal financial viability, (v) good governance and community participation.* These are five strategic areas that enable municipalities to play a significant role in achieving a developmental local government and effective service delivery to communities while inculcating a democratic culture for the wellbeing of local communities. In order for municipalities to achieve these strategic objectives, inter-governmental teams of experts were deployed for each KPA to support and capacitate targeted municipalities. A targeted support to identified municipalities in these KPAs was expected to translate into the adequate provision of adequate services and related infrastructure necessary for the well–being of the community, development of local economy, financial sustainability for continued effective service delivery and empower the local communities through participation in municipal service delivery initiatives.

In 2006 the national government launched the Five Year Local Government Strategic Agenda. According to the Department of Local Government and Housing (DLGH) (2006); the Five Year Local Government Strategic Agenda (LG Strategic Agenda) was a municipal support programme launched in 2006 aimed at ensuring that the three spheres of government consolidate the government resources and focus on improving local government service delivery and development programs. The LG Strategic Agenda came as a result of an assessment of lessons learned during the first term of local government, specifically taking into consideration a review into the best practices learned from the implementation of the Project Consolidate program (DLGH, 2006). Thus, the LG Strategic Agenda identified five policy priorities and identified challenges faced by municipalities in each of the priority areas that inform intervention at local government.

Table 1: The Five Year Local Government Strategic Agenda

Key Performance Area	Challenges
1. Institutional capacity and municipal transformation	▪ Core municipal systems not established or implemented, e.g. performance management systems. ▪ Municipal management capacity and capability, and high vacancy levels. ▪ Poor accountability mechanisms. ▪ Serious challenges in the area of financial management, engineering and organizational development.
2. Basic service delivery and infrastructure.	▪ Slow pace and poor quality of service delivery. ▪ Water and sanitation backlogs emerge as one of the critical challenges.
3. Local economic development (LED).	▪ High levels of poverty due to unemployment. ▪ Poor quality of LED strategies.
4. Financial viability and management	▪ Inadequate billing, debt management and credit control systems. ▪ Low revenue base due to high levels of indigents.
5. Good governance	▪ Instability within and between political and administrative domains. ▪ Poor communication between Council and communities. ▪ Non-functioning of ward committees.

Source: DPLG, 2006.

The LG Strategic Agenda aimed to deliver broader developmental outcomes of local government by addressing the identified inherent challenges. These priorities represent the developmental role of local government in which the attainment of these five key priorities include "the realization of everyone's social and economic rights through the material establishment of sustainable and spatially integrated human settlements nested in robust economies that continually draw more and more citizens into the realm of inclusion and access to opportunities" (Van Donk, 2008).

In 2009 Cogta carried out an assessment of all the 283 municipalities in South Africa. The Assessment Report revealed since the "new" local government systems were introduced there

were still worrying trends that undermined the local government systems. The Cogta (2009) report identified systematic factors; weak intergovernmental support and oversight; capacity and skills constraints; issues related to intergovernmental fiscal systems; weaknesses in the accountability systems; and political factors as the root causes that undermined service delivery. This led to the introduction of another municipal support programme, the Local Government Turn-Around Strategy (LGTAS) in 2009 in order to address these shortcomings.

The LGTAS is premised of the following five key objectives which are to *(i) ensure that municipalities meet basic needs of communities; (ii) build clean, responsive and accountable local government; (iii) improve functionality, performance and professionalism in municipalities; (iv) improve national and provincial policy, support and oversight to local government; and (v) strengthen partnerships between local government, communities and civil society* (DPLG, 2009). The thrust of the LGTAS is premised on the understanding that municipalities should create an environment and put on systems to ensure that adequate service delivery to communities, accountability to communities and forming partnerships with all affected stakeholders.

With regard to Project Consolidate and the Five Year LG Strategic Agenda, Cogta have revealed that these initiatives mainly yielded some progress in "upping the levels of hands-on support provided to local government, and creating a systemic mechanism and framework (the 5 KPAs) for local government to work within and report on" (Cogta, 2009:4). The Cogta review report does not provide an assessment in terms of the success of support programmes in achievements of priorities in terms of the key performance areas. However, the report acknowledges that these programmes "have not been able to sufficiently address deep-rooted problems and capacity challenges" (Cogta, 2009:4).

The implementation of the successive local government programmes can be viewed as attempts to ensure that local government is well positioned to enhance service delivery in a sustainable manner. However, evidence (Cogta, 2006; Van Donk et al; Cogta, 2014) suggests that the implementation of these successive municipal support programmes do not necessarily translate to the desired outcomes, hence the persistence of the myriad of challenges facing local government. Fundamental questions have been asked whether these programmes have been able to respond to issues of dismal performance and facilitated adequate service delivery (Mashele, 2015). Critics of local government support programmes (Madumo, 2015); Mashele

2015) have pointed to the various persistence and inherent challenges that undermine service delivery. Ashton (2013) argues that "the national government has not yet modelled a suitable system and rolled it out; instead we attempted to shift from authoritarianism toward participative democracy while simultaneously stripping away institutional memory and expertise, such recipe was doomed to fail". This suggests that the national government support programmes have focused mostly on providing participatory democracy platform for local communities while overlooking key aspects of capacity and retention of skilled personnel.

2.4 The Back to Basics Programme

While local government support programmes discussed above have not been able to achieve satisfactory outcomes in enabling municipalities to extend water service delivery to some rural communities, there are some positive trends that have been accomplished. Statistical data (StatsSA) and studies show there service delivery such as water, electricity, and sanitation has progressively been extended to more households (Madumo, 2015; Masego, 2017; Cogta, 2014). Yet despite these service delivery achievements, many municipalities still face challenges to extend basic water supply to rural communities. According to Cogta (2013); "municipalities that are largely rural are still confronted by a series of problems of institutional capacity, financial sustainability and widespread poverty that have undermined the sustainability of local government support programmes, leading in some instances to a catastrophic breakdown in services". As a result, service delivery is not rendered effectively to all communities in these municipalities.

The recent diagnostic report on the state of South Africa's 278 municipalities by Cogta (2013) revealed that a third of municipalities are "dysfunctional" and therefore, face challenges in delivering of basic services including water. The Cogta review report profiled municipalities into three categories:

(i) **Municipalities that are doing well:** the Cogta diagnostic report found that only a third of municipalities in South Africa are able to perform their functions at least adequately. This also relates to the adequate provision of basic services. These municipalities represent the desired (ideal) state for all municipalities.

(ii) **Municipalities that are fairly functional (average performance):** the middle third of municipalities are fairly functional and overall performance is average. The report found that while the delivery of basic services is mostly in place, there are

some areas of poor performance or decline that point to the municipalities regressing to the dysfunctional state.

(iii) **Municipalities that are completely dysfunctional:** the Cogta (2013) diagnostic report further revealed that the bottom third of municipalities are completely dysfunctional and that significant work is required to get them to function properly.

The findings of Cogta diagnostic report exposed the worrying state of local government systems in crisis. The findings revealed that "since the establishment of formal local government system in 2000, there are still municipalities who are facing challenges of providing core and basic municipal services" (Cogta, 2013). This has a negative implication in the achievement of a DLG as envisaged in the White Paper on Local Government (WPLG) of 1998 as this is largely dependent on the ability of municipalities to deliver basic services. This prompted Cogta to launch the Back to Basics programme in September 2014 with a view to ensuring that municipalities are capable to supply basics services that will eventually lead to developmental outcomes.

2.4.1 The main priority of the B2B programme

For the municipalities that face challenges of providing basic services to their communities (i.e. those classified as dysfunctional), the main priority of the B2B approach is to support and ensure that dysfunctional municipalities are supported and capacitated in order to provide at least the basic of services. According to Cogta 2013); this will be done "through the enforcement of current policies and legislation, and systematically managing performance and accountability". This priority as set out in the B2B approach illustrates the national government's intentions to ensure that all municipalities at minimum are able to perform basic functions of local government as mandated the constitution.

2.4.2 The Elements of B2B: Towards an Ideal Municipality

Implicit in the B2B approach is that it is imperative to ensure that dysfunctional municipalities are supported so that they can progress to the level of functional municipalities and ultimately demonstrate abilities for an ideal municipality. The continued support and capacitation of municipalities must be viewed against the backdrop of the constitutional, the intergovernmental relations framework and other related legislative and policy imperatives in South Africa. Cogta introduced the B2B programme for the implementation by all municipalities in three categories in order to make significant progress and continued service delivery.

The B2B programme is premised on five pillars (Key Performance Areas). These five pillars are the cornerstone of an ideal municipality that is able to provide sustainable basics services. Key basic services identified in the B2B programme include water and sanitation, electricity, waste management, roads and the provision of Free Basic Service (FBS) including the maintenance of indigent register (Cogta, 2013). The development of water and sanitation related infrastructure should also be promised in order to improve basic service delivery. The delivery of uninterrupted basic services to all communities demonstrate an ideal municipality. According to Cogta (2013); an ideal municipality must be able to perform the following:

(i) ***Putting People First and their Concerns***- the B2B programme seeks to ensure that public participation is conducted effectively by developing and implementing regular community satisfaction surveys and assist municipalities in developing community engagement plans.

(ii) ***Delivery of Basic Services***- B2B programme seeks to ensure that all municipalities "develop standards for each service and establish systems for monitoring adherence to these standards and reporting on ward-level service delivery plans" (Cogta, 2013).

(iii) ***Good Governance and Administration***- the B2B programme seeks to ensure that municipalities are monitored and evaluated on their ability to carry out the following tasks: "holding of Council meetings as legislated; functionality of oversight committee structures, Section 79 committees, audit committees and participation in the District IGR Forums" (Cogta, 2013).

(iv) ***Sound Financial Management***- B2B programme seeks to ensure that performance of municipalities against the following basic indicators are constantly assessed: the number of disclaimers in the last five years; whether the budgets are realistic and based on cash available; the percentage of revenue collected; the extent to which debt is serviced; efficiency and functionality of supply chain management" (Cogta, 2013). These are some of the indicators identified as lacking in most dysfunctional municipalities.

(v) ***Building Institutional Capacity***- B2B programme also puts emphasis on the building of strong municipal administrative systems and processes which includes filling of positions with competent people. It also seeks to train and capacitate officials and councillors.

In order to ensure that the B2B programme achieves its intended objectives, Cogta has defined and assigned different roles and responsibilities for all three spheres of government to play an important role in ensuring well-functioning of municipalities within the framework of cooperative governance. This will enable the facilitation of well-coordinated, targeted and differentiated support measures by both the national and provincial governments through existing intergovernmental (IGR) forums. This approach can be situated within the principles of DLG, and "good governance" concepts instituted adopted by the government as part of the local government reforms.

Although the main priority of the B2B approach is to ensure that all municipalities are able to perform basic functions of service delivery, key areas of concern are similar to the previous support programmes. These key performance areas are interrelated and have an impact on the core functioning of the municipality's service delivery performance. For instance, Project Consolidate focused specifically on capacity building, while other support programmes such as the Five Year Local Government Strategic Agenda, and the LGTAS put emphasis on five key performance areas such as basic service delivery and infrastructure development, institutional capacity building, financial viability, local economic development and good governance (Cogta, 2009). However, an evaluation conducted by Cogta (2009) revealed that these programmes have not been able to yield tangible results as envisaged. The B2B programme also focuses on the same problem areas. The support and interventions mechanisms for targeted municipalities also resembles some similarities. The evaluation studies (Cogta, 2006; Cogta, 2009; Cogta, 2013) on the impact of the national government support programmes to municipalities have revealed deep-rooted systemic challenges facing the effective performance of municipalities in discharging services to the acceptable standards along the key performance areas identified. Although one can point out that these are the main functional areas of local government, this, however, suggests that the national government follows a similar logic in dealing with the persistent service delivery challenges facing municipalities.

Some striking similarities identified also include the role and responsibilities of other spheres of government such as national and the province. All the municipal support programmes discussed above put emphasis on the need for inter-sphere collaboration and sets out their roles and responsibilities. One of the key priorities in these municipal support programmes is to ensure that sufficient financial and capacity support is provided to struggling municipalities. Most of the municipalities identified as dysfunctional are largely rural and financially constrained as they have no means to generate additional income to extend basic services to

the poor. There are also capacity constraints that have been identified in the dysfunctional municipalities. However, the municipal support programmes do not provide additional funds to municipalities or support them in terms of capacity building. In fact, the B2B programme proposes that 7% of the municipal budget should be set aside for service delivery and related infrastructure development with no additional funding.

The primary focus of this study is on dysfunctional municipalities' limited abilities to render basic services, particularly water through the implementation of the B2B approach among rural communities. This category of municipalities faces a myriad of challenges. Some of these challenges identified in the Cogta (2013) diagnostic report include the following: *endemic corruption; dysfunctional Councils; no structured community engagements; poor financial management, and, poor record of service delivery*. As a result, these factors have led to the community losing confidence in the ability of the municipality to deliver services and a manifestation of a wave of protest actions among communities. According to Cogta (2013), "service delivery protests are a reflection of community frustrations with these failures, especially in economically marginalized communities who experience real and perceived indifference from government officials and politicians". The main thrust of the B2B approach is to ensure that dysfunctional municipalities are supported in order to progress to the level of a functional municipality and ultimately demonstrate the abilities of an ideal municipality.

2.5 Good Governance

The concept of "good governance" has increasingly gained credence in the development literature. Dipholo (2014) pointed out that "good governance is expected to propel economic growth and development. The adoption of good governance principles in the context of South Africa demonstrates a shift in government policy that puts emphasis on the market forces to propel growth in line with the DLG at the local level. The concept and philosophy of good governance was largely promoted by entities such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), multilateral financial institutions including World Bank (WB) and Asian Development Bank (ADB), aid agencies such as the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Department for International Development of the Government of United Kingdom (DfID) (Dipholo, 2014; Kuye, 2006). Since the 1990s, these multinational entities have stressed the virtues of governance reforms in developing countries to promote economic growth and poverty reduction, as well as the importance of such reforms for the success of economic liberalization and structural adjustment programmes (Parthasarathy 2005; Ali 2015; Souza, 1997). Thus, the concept of DLG resonates with the principles of good

governance as it seeks to reposition the role of local government in order to achieve broader economic and social well-being of communities. Against the backdrop of the reforms take took place in 1994 in South Africa, good governance can be viewed as means promote community participation and accountability in the affairs of government and as promoting democracy at the local level.

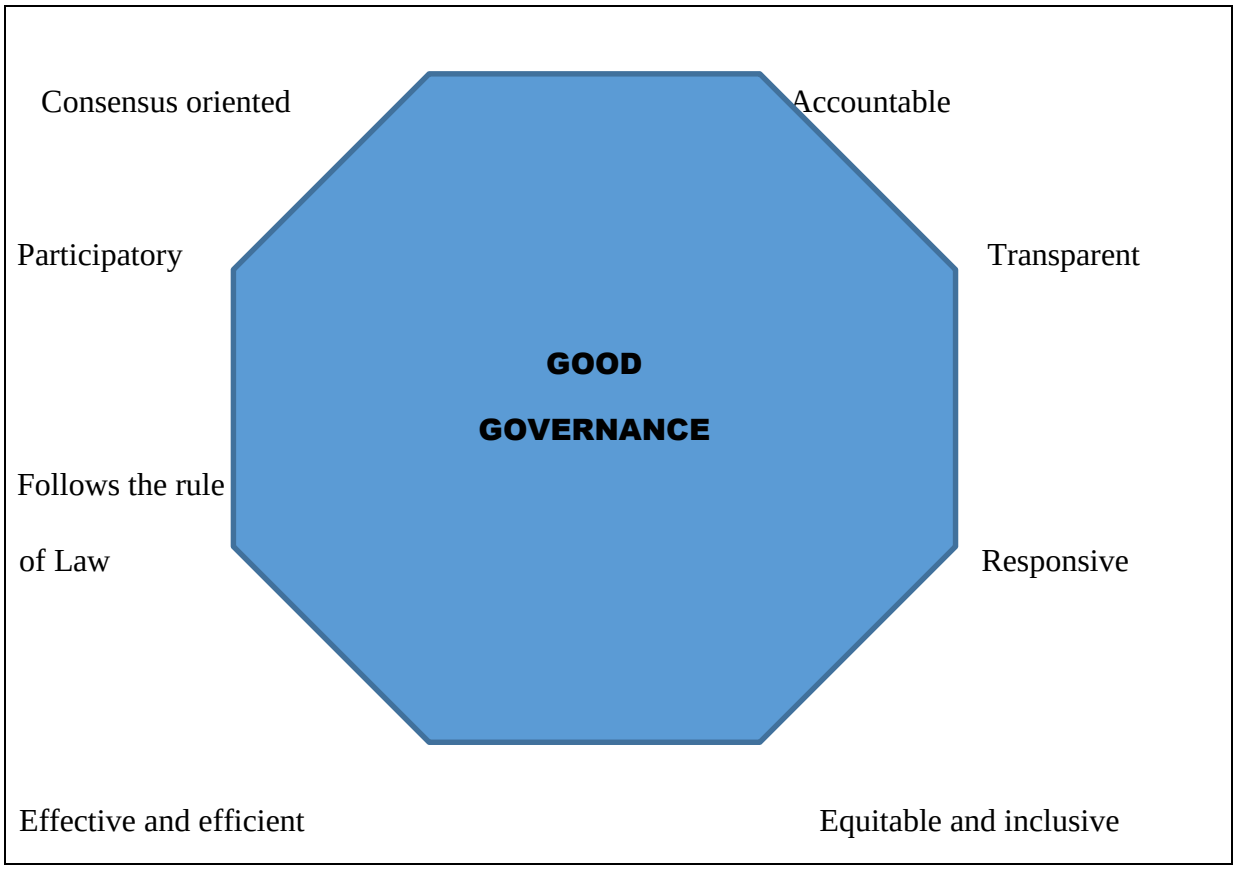
Although the concept of governance and good governance are often viewed as similar these concepts are distinct and have different meanings in different contexts and in the application. Streeten (2005) pointed out that the concepts of "governance" and "good governance" can be delineated into two traditions of academic and donor community which have dissimilar conceptualization. (Streeten, 2005:7) pointed out that 'the academic approach focuses mainly on the study of different ways in which power and authority relations are structured in a given society, whereas the donor community's approach puts emphasis on the role that state structures play in ensuring social, economic and policy equity and accountability through open policy processes". The concept of "good governance" is not only limited to governments and the manner in which these government govern. The term is also linked to economic institutions and how they apply principles or running those institutions. In an attempt to find a working definition of good governance, scholars and various agencies have tended to define the concept from different perspectives.

The UNDP defines good governance as "a process encouraging staff incentives, training of civil servants, administrative and fiscal decentralization and dialogue between governments and civil society" (UNDP, 1996). The UNDP (1996) further emphasises that good governance entails the following features:

- Political accountability;
- A free and fair judiciary;
- Accountability
- Freedom of information and expression;
- Effective and efficient public sector management and cooperation with civil society organization.

The adoption of "good governance' principles demonstrates that an elected official must be accountable to the citizens that elected them. In this system, the government should ensure that the citizens are well informed about the developmental initiatives that affect their lives, including the promotion of public participation. It also suggests that the rule of law is key to

the well-being of the society. These principles are fundamental in ensuring economic growth



and poverty alleviation.

Figure 1: Characteristics of Good Governance

Source: Unescap, 2008.

Thus good governance emphasises that authority is exercised in a manner that addresses diverse social problems and improves relationships between civil society and the government in order harmonise and create workable interactions and the implementation of social developmental goals. However, the adoption of "good governance" did not necessarily bring about the desired reforms. Miller (2002) pointed out to the "concerns about corruption, lack of accountability and transparency, and questionable ethics in government have created demands for much higher standards of conduct in the management of public affairs, and for establishment of more effective mechanisms by which the public can be satisfied with the conduct and probity of public officials. According to Gumede and Dipholo, 2014), these challenges necessitated the introduction of new approaches to governance that would take into cognisance the importance and role of public participation and decision making in local government development matters. Good governance is expected to propel economic growth and development.

During the 1980s when many governments in developing countries faced major development and growth challenges, "bad governance" was singled out as one of the main constraints. This led to the introduction of the 'good governance" agenda. When the concept of "good governance" was adopted in the South African local government systems, efforts were made to improve governance structures, develop anti-corruption policies and introduced systems to deal with corrupt practices as part of the local government reforms. This marked a significant shift from "bad governance" during the Apartheid era. The proponents of the "good governance" agenda also promoted the role of markets as central to development and growth, civil service reforms, "right-sizing" of the state and privatization. Community participation in decision making in local government matters demonstrates a major shift from the exclusion of the marginalized in the mainstream social and economic development.

Notwithstanding the substantial advantages that accompany "good governance", critics have questioned the justification and implementation of the approach and consolidation of neoliberal policies in developing countries. The emphasis on the primacy of the market as a public goods delivery mechanism and the subsequent adoption of business approaches for the public sector has drawn many criticisms to the "good governance" agenda. The proponents of "good governance" paradigm seek to reduce state responsibilities in favour of the market to drive development agenda. Mouzayian (2014) argues that "this trend in Africa can be directly related to efforts by the Bretton Woods institutions from the 1990s to promote good governance as a conditionality for multilateral aid". This is evident as markets have been unable to fill the gap of developing local economies and improving the standard of living for poor rural communities in South Africa.

Whereas there is evidence that corruption impedes on the growth and development of the country and exemplifies bad governance, emphasis on the primacy of market as a delivery mechanism and business approaches for public sector has brought about some challenges in South Africa. One of the fundamental short-comings that accompanied good governance as a model for local government reforms was privatization of water resources, which has a far-reaching consequences, particularly to poor rural communities. The commodification of water services meant that extending basic service delivery in these areas remain a challenge as the poor are unable to pay for water services. Consequently, water services were cut-off from households that failed to pay.

According to Desai (2003), "this neoliberal transition has squeezed and spewed out the poor but galvanized them at the same time as they have opposed the water and electricity cut-offs and evictions (consequences of the privatization of public services)". Although there are pro-poor policies in place aimed at supporting municipalities to provide free basic services such as the free basic water (FBW) and free basic electricity (FBE), they are ultimately not sustainable as these policies drastically limit the usage and supply of basic services in an equitable manner. Uninterrupted supply of running water is significantly prioritised to areas and households that can afford to pay for water services. This is evident as municipalities are unable to extend basic water supply to all communities, particularly in rural areas. Many of the existing basic service delivery backlogs are mostly found in rural areas where the poor are mostly concentrated.

Furthermore, "right-sizing" (i.e. the systematic restructuring of the workforce in order to promote efficiency and effectiveness) and privatization of public goods has led to discontent in the local government sphere as the rendering of essential services were outsourced to the private sector. This led to the retrenchment of many workers and led loss of institutional memory, including loss of skilled labour in the local government sector as municipalities embraced the "good governance" approach. In spite of the drastic implementation of this neoliberal market-driven model, the local government sector in South Africa still faces persistent service delivery challenges to the poor. Whereas this model has its advantages, it nonetheless has not been able to resolve the complex challenges faced by local government. It is therefore important to recognize the dynamics in the local government context so that when new reforms are introduced, appropriate measures are put into place that will reposition the local government sector to effectively respond to the developmental needs of the people and address competing priorities including socio-political and economic conditions.

South Africa can be regarded as a middle-income country with advanced service delivery infrastructure in some other parts of urban areas. However, as Gumede and Dipholo (2014:45) point out, many people living in rural areas are extremely poor. In these areas, adequate supply of basic water services and development of water-related infrastructure remains a challenge, which leaves many households with no access to running water. In this situation, a comprehensive adoption of good governance principles within the local government structures, in particular, the privatization of basic services, down-sizing and rolling back the state as a key service delivery entity has consequently led to increased poverty. This undermines and

contradicts the intention of DLG particularly in these rural municipalities as they do not have a revenue base to extend and roll-out new infrastructure for water supplies to all communities.

2.6 The New Public Management

The post-apartheid period of the mid-late 1990s marked the introduction of profound reforms for South African political institutions and formed the basis for the new local government systems. A new democratic constitution was passed in 1996 which affirmed the very existence, powers and role of municipalities within the three spheres of government. According to Harrison (2006), "as soon as South Africa began its transition to democracy in the early years of the decade, a multitude of international influences came to bear on the policy debate".

As in the good governance reforms, Larbi (2003) pointed out that "a new set of public management techniques and practices, mostly associated with market and private-for-profit sectors have been used to reform administration and management in governments in a variety of countries. These techniques and practices became commonly known as the New Public Management (NPM) in literature. This philosophy was adopted and firmly implemented in the local government structures as the NPM became a dominant paradigm across many countries.

Gumede and Dipholo (2014) noted that "prior to the emergence of NPM paradigm, public administration was seen as the most rational avenue for managing the affairs of the public sector. Globally the NPM paradigm arose in the 1980s as a response to the failures of the "traditional" bureaucratic structures of the public sector and governance structures promoted by Max Weber. This pointed to the need for restructuring and transformation of public institutions and management practices in order to improve public services delivery effectively and efficiently. The NPM owes its existence to the theoretical underpinnings of Public Choice Theory and the Principal-Agent Theory. These theories were key in giving impetus to the emergence of NPM.

The public choice theorists in particular "have criticized the Weberian bureaucratic model of lacking consciousness because of the weak links between the costs and outputs" (Larbi, 2003). The Principal-Agent theory situates the civil society as principals and politicians and bureaucrats as that of public servants who represent society in government. Accordingly, the "principal-agent theory argues that the public sector underperforms because state officials (agents) pursue their own narrow self-interests rather than public interests" (Larbi, 2003).

Essentially, they argue that the Weberian approach to public sector management does not take into cognizance the issue of performance management and the consequences of poor performance within the public sector. This is due to poor public sector performance in ensuring that services are delivered to all citizens in an effective and efficient manner.

2.6.1 What is New Public Management?

Ismal (2015) depicts the NPM approach "as a normative conceptualization of public administration consisting of several interrelated components which included providing services that citizens value; increasing autonomy of public managers; rewarding organizations and individuals on the basis of whether they meet demanding performance targets; making available the human and technological resources that managers need to perform well". The NPM is characterised by various public sector reforms, policy and structural adjustment of public sector management in order to achieve improved public service delivery.

Table 2. Doctrinal components of the NPM

No	Doctrine	Meaning	Typical justification
1	Hands-on professional management in the public sector	Active, visible, discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, free to manage	Accountability requires the clear assignment of responsibility for action, not diffusion of power
2	Explicit standards and measure of performance	Definition of goals, targets, indicators of success expressed in quantitative terms	Accountability requires a clear statement of goals; efficiency requires "hard look" objectives
3	Greater emphasis on output controls	Resource allocation and rewards linked to measured performance; breakup of centralized bureaucracy-wide management	Needs to stress results rather than procedures
4	Shift to disaggregation of units in the public sector	Break up formerly 'monolithic' units, unbundling of U-form management systems into corporatized units around products	Need to create 'manageable' units, separate provisions and production interests, gain efficiency advantages of the use

			of contract inside as well as outside the public sector
5	Shift to greater competition in the public sector	Move to terms contracts and public tendering procedures	Rivalry as key to lower costs and better standards
6	Stress on private sector styles of management and practices	Move away from military-style public service ethics, greater flexibility in hiring and rewards	Need to use proven private sector management tools in the public sector
7	Stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use	Cutting direct cost, raising labour discipline, resisting union demands, limiting compliance costs to business	Need to check resource demands of the public sector and 'do more with less'

Source: Hood, 1991: 4

In essence, the NPM approach is built on the set of administrative reforms of institutionalising public administration within the confines and doctrines of economics and business type approaches which the proponents of the model perceived as efficient and effective in contrast to the 'traditional military-style' bureaucratic public administration. In the NPM doctrines, greater emphasis is placed on the productivities and efficient use of public resources in order to achieve greater public service delivery. The NPM doctrine also puts emphasis on the organizational and individual target-based performance measures and professionalization of public sector along business principles.

Larbi (2003) argues that the NPM "can be categorised broadly into two strands, on the one hand, there are those ideas that derive from managerialism, i.e. emphasising management in government which include management decentralization, desegregation and downsizing of government. while on the other hand there are ideas emanating from new institutional economics that emphasise markets and competition as a way of giving choice to users and promoting efficiency in service delivery, i.e. the use of market mechanisms such as franchising, vouchers, contracting out, internal markets, user fees and customer orientation". Thus, within the context of South Africa decentralisation of government functions was devolved to the various spheres of government, including local government in compliance with the constitutional provisions.

2.6.2 Key components of the NPM

Although there is no uniformity regarding what the NPM approach should consist of, there are key interrelated elements considered as a hallmark of the NPM set of techniques and perspectives in relation to public sector reforms. Larbi, (2003) outlines these elements which include "**b*reaking up huge bureaucracies*** by disaggregating separable functions into separate agencies". According to Larbi (2003), this points to a split between strategic core policy and implementation arms of government. However, these sectors of government are interrelated and work together in a cooperative approach to achieve the government broader developmental objectives. It is also associated with "r***eplacing traditional 'tall hierarchies'*** with flatter, flexible and more responsive structures formed and reformed around specific processes rather than traditional functions" (Larbi, 2003). ***The separation between funding, purchasing and provision of services relates*** to making a clearer separation between defining the need for and paying for public services on one hand and on the hand, actually providing services (Larbi, 2003). This means that the government is not necessarily obliged to provide services on its own. It can however appoint service providers to implement certain services on its behalf and ensure that service providers are financed accordingly to these services. ***Decentralising management authority within public agencies*** relates to giving top management freedom to manage the public sector by reducing the management role of the central government. ***Devolving budgets and financial control to decentralized units, creating budget centres/spending units*** involves the delegation of financial responsibility to managers (Larbi, 2003).

2.6.3 The Application of NPM in the South African Local Government Context

Dipholo and Gumede (2014) argue that "the elements of the NPM philosophy complement and reinforce good governance". In South Africa, NPM was adopted as the new management techniques and practice as the country embarked on a radical drive that led to reforms in the institutional, administrative and organizational structures aimed at achieving improved service delivery and creating effective and efficient government systems. Influences of the NPM were adopted and applied in government and by extension, into the local government systems in the post-apartheid South Africa. Harrison (2006) pointed out the connection between the NPM influences in the shaping of South Africa's local government systems and the municipalities' Integrated Development Plans". Harrison (2006) further pointed out that the arrival of the IDP in South Africa can best be understood in the context of a second wave NPM approaches

associated with the Third way (or centre-left) governance of the 1990s (p.186). Whereas the second wave was considered to be less rigid and included a focus in social inclusion and equitable development (i.e. adoption of the centre-left politics), the third wave learned more towards market economy as key toward economic growth, thereby excluding and limiting the poor's ability to access services.

Key among the lobbies was the African national congress (ANC) that advocated for political reforms that are pro-poor. The ANC was equally cautious of the NPM reforms that were associated with neo-liberal ideology of privatisation, market-driven economy and minimum state intervention amid growing levels of poverty, unemployment and poor service delivery that engulfed the majority of South Africans. According to Harrison (2006), "as a progressive movement the ANC was cautious of approaches that were too obviously inspired by conservative ideologies that were at their most extreme in the 1980s, but with the apparent demise of socialism, the ANC leadership looked increasingly towards other models of progressive governance". This philosophy aimed to ensure that the government is able to provide the poor with access to basic services. Harrison (2006), as well as Pieterse and Van Donk (2008),, point to the tension between the various ideologies informing the municipal restructuring process that is participatory but state-led, financial recovery but affordability, and equal distribution of services).

Like "good governance", the NPM paradigm sought to implement market-driven policies and strategies in order to enable government institutions to achieve growth and development to achieve desired outcomes. According to Ibrahim (2012), many criticisms have been made that claim NPM-oriented reforms fail when applied in developing countries. The application of privatization policies led to the outsourcing of various key government functions, including service delivery. This has created challenges in extending basic service delivery to the poor households who cannot afford to pay for services and has resulted in several service delivery protests.

Rezende (2008) argues that "the application of NPM reforms led to a revision of the role of the governments of lower-income countries as a result of a new process of fiscal adjustment, processes of reduction in state intervention in economic activities, with programs for privatizing public companies, and a redefinition of their role regarding the re-organization of their priorities, especially in young democracies in which social expenditure was expanded". This resulted in municipalities focusing service delivery initiatives to areas where they are able

to recover operational costs. Earle et al (2005) further argue that "the need to extend water services to all has come into conflict with the cost recovery principle, with the issue compounded by the legacy of the rates boycotts which took place prior to 1994". This suggests that the while the commitment to NPM might have been successful in developed countries, the adoption of neoliberal policies in the context of South Africa generated negative results.

Despite the fact that NPM promotes transparency and accountability, and municipalities having anti-corruption policies in place, these measures have not necessarily translated into desired outcomes as corruption remain prevalent in the local government sector. According to News 24 of 2013, Corruption Watch declared local government to be the most corrupt institution in the country. Most of these corruption cases in the local government structures relate to contracting and tender irregularities (and especially for infrastructure provision and other large capital projects). This has resulted in the failure to implement development programmes and undermines service delivery initiatives as it will be demonstrated in the study. This demonstrates that the NPM is not necessarily a clear-cut model that can be suitable for any countries as it has its strengths and weaknesses as well.

Gumede and Dipholo (2014) further pointed out that "in South Africa the NPM principles are not implemented objectively as most senior public servants are inadequately trained or uneducated and are mostly appointed on the basis of political patronage or along tribal lines hence are unwilling to appreciate the core principles of good governance and NPM principles". This implies that even that even if the government have good policies based on NMP and good governance principles as part of public sector reform, implementation of such initiatives are undermined by political patronage or so-called "cadre deployment", as it is the case in South Africa.

2.7 Performance Management Systems

Casio (1993) broadly defines Performance Management as "the total process of observing an employee's performance in relation to job requirements over a period of time; clarifying expectations; setting goals; providing on-the-job coaching; filing and retrieving information about performance and then making an appraisal on the basis of this information (p.275). According to Bacal (1993) Performance Management Systems (PMS) is an authoritative framework for managing employee performance, which includes the policy framework as well as the framework relating to all elements in the performance cycle, including performance

planning and agreement; performance monitoring, review and control; performance appraisals and moderating; and managing the outcomes of appraisal (Bacal 1999:3).

Section 152, of the 1996 constitution paves the way for the establishment of performance management with the requirements for an "accountable government". The values and principles in line with Section 195(1) of the constitution points out to the necessity of developing PMS, with reference to the principles of, among others, the promotion of the efficient, economic and effective use of resources, accountable public administration, displaying transparency by making available information, being responsive to the needs of the community, and by facilitating a culture of public service and accountability amongst staff.

The White Paper on Local Government (1998), introduced the practice of PMS as "a tool to facilitate the developmental role for LG. This practice further serves to increase the accountability of the municipality and the trust of the community in such a municipality in line with the Constitutional provisions" (DPLG, 1998). This implies that municipalities should institutionalize performance management. Furthermore, the establishment of municipal Performance Management Systems (PMS) is a legislative requirement in terms of chapter 6 of the Municipal Systems Act (Act 32, 2000). Central to municipal developmental agenda is the IDP and emphasis on the establishment and institutionalization of municipal (PMS) as a tool to monitor progress and achievement of DLG objectives. Section 38 of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 require municipalities to-

(a) Establish a performance management system that is:
    (i) commensurate with its resources;
    (ii) best suited to its circumstances
    (iii) in line with the priorities, objectives, indicators and targets contained in its IDP;
    (iv) promote a culture of performance management among its political structures, political office bearers and councillors and its administration.

Although performance management gained prominence in the NPM during the 1980s, Harrison (2006) point out that it was only "in the 1990s that it became central to the functioning of public authorities and was explicitly linked to planning instruments". The establishment and linking of PMS with municipal planning instruments suggest that the development and implementation of municipal IDPs should be aligned to the PMS, which indicates some of the NPM principles. This implies that municipal PMS must reflect performance targets as set out in the municipal planning tools which are the IDP/Budget and the Service Delivery Budget and Implementation

Plan (SDBIP) of the IDP. A key element of managing municipal performance is to set achievable targets and monitoring of performance indicators over time as a benchmark for measuring performance regarding municipal development priorities set out in the IDP.

In terms of the MSA (DPLG, 2000), municipalities must also "establish mechanisms to monitor and review their PMS. Another key aspect of the municipal PMS is the involvement of the community in the development, implementation and review of the municipal PMS as well as community participation in the setting of performance targets and indicators. These legislative and policy requirements of municipal PMS can be viewed as management techniques associated both good governance and NPM models that seek to promote community involvement in decision making, transparency, accountability, efficient and effective local government programmes aimed at addressing broader DLG challenges. One of the doctrines of the NPM is the managerial discretion combined with transparent targets and ex-post control by results of performance (Hood and Bevan, 2004).

PMS has gained more prominence and increasingly dominates reform efforts at the local government level as key institutions such as the Auditor General (AG) also includes institutional performance audit of predetermined objectives in addition to financial audits. Until recently (in 1998) Auditing institution mainly focused on financial auditing, leaving performance auditing out. In 1998 the International Congress of Supreme Audits Institutions (INCOSAI) resolved to audit performance. INCOSAI (1998), pointed to "the need to introduce performance auditing and to separate guidelines from financial auditing be developed to guide a performance audit. Performance auditing focuses on both organisational and individual performance. Individual performance is linked to the performance of the organisational. The introduction of performance auditing. The National Treasury also undertakes various reforms as it relates specifically to local government in strengthening the entire municipal accountability cycle which includes among others, the implementation of a budgeting, mid-year performance audit against expenditure and grant monitoring system for all 278 municipalities.

It is believed that the local government sector performance auditing against predetermined objectives leads to a more efficient and effective performance by municipalities. According to Mdleleni (2012), "the introduction of performance management system is critical because it ensures that plans are being implemented, that they are having the desired development impact and that resources are being used efficiently". The municipal PMS should

ultimately be aligned to the IDP-budget and the SDBIP delivery objectives as municipal organizational performance and also be linked to individual performance contracts, particularly contracts that relate to the municipal manager and managers responsible to municipal managers.

The MSA (Cogta, 2000) stipulates that the municipal PMS should obtain the following core elements: (i) setting of appropriate performance indicators; (ii) setting of measurable performance targets; (iii) agree on performance measurement; (iv) performance monitoring, reviewing and evaluation; (v) continuous performance improvement; (vi) regular performance reporting; and (vii) intervention where required (MSA, 2000). This suggests that organizational PMS is key in measuring performance targets of both organizational and individual performance.

2.8 The Influences of Joined-Up Government, Principles of Cooperative Governance and Intergovernmental relations.

According to the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) (2009), the term "joined-up" government was coined by the New Labour government in Britain during 1997 as part of its public sector reforms. Key features of the British initiative included new structures such as cross-departmental policy development and delivery units, research into how the civil service could better manage cross-cutting issues and allocation of cross-cutting portfolios to ministers (IPA, 2009). The model of joined-up government seeks to achieve efficient and efficient public service delivery targets through cooperation between spheres of government. According to IPA (2009), the 'joined-up government' model is aimed at achieving improved public service delivery, better coordination and integration across government.

Ling (2002) argues that "joined-up government is best viewed as a group of responses to the perceptions that services had become fragmented and that this fragmentation was preventing the achievement of important goals of public policy". He illustrates the importance of joined-up governments that "aims to coordinate activities across organizational boundaries without removing the boundaries themselves" (p.616). Joined-up government requires that government confront developmental problems through coordination and strengthening of the public sector in order to effectively respond to challenges faced by government. Harrison (2006) opined that "a further important dimension to integration is the idea of multi-level governance and coordination which is largely the result of development within the European Union where

complex mechanisms have been developed to link regional, national and supranational government".

In the South African context, the characteristics of "joined-up" government are evident in the 1996 Constitution which makes provisions for cooperative government. As inter-governmental practices are constitutional imperatives, these provisions serve as a basis to achieve government developmental objectives through greater coordination, alignment of government policies and programmes using intergovernmental relations systems. Section 40(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa spells out the following basic principles of cooperative governance and intergovernmental relations which all three spheres of government must take concrete steps to realise by:

- Fostering friendly relations;
- Assisting and supporting one another;
- Informing one another of, and consulting one another on matters of common interest;
- Coordinating their actions and legislation

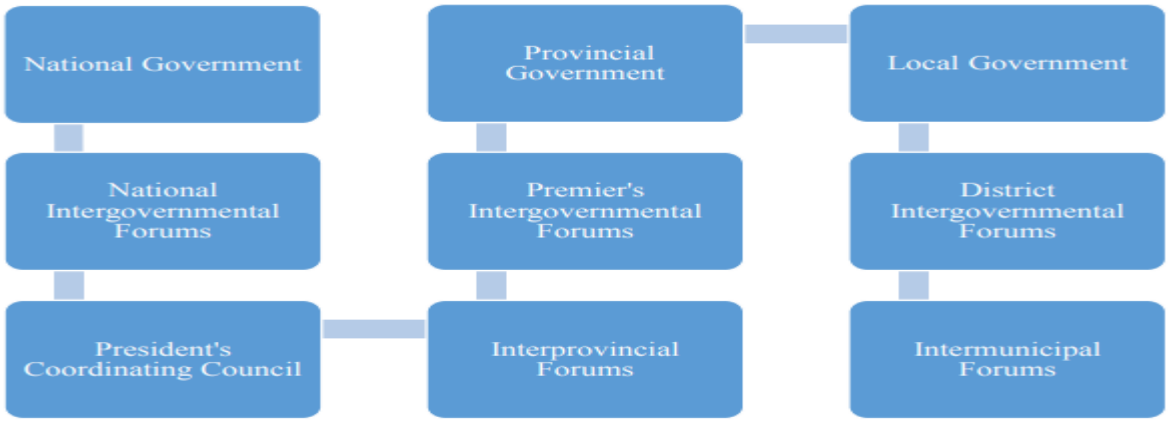
The National Development Plan (NDP) further emphasises that "meeting our transformation agenda requires a much higher and more focused intergovernmental commitment towards functional municipalities and a capable machinery at a local level that can create safe and healthy and economically sustainable areas where citizens and people can work, live and socialize (National Planning Commission, 2012). These principles can be viewed within the confines of 'joined-up' government where policy matters are addressed and coordinated from different levels of government departments in order to confront common service delivery challenges.

In their attempt to adopt the reform initiatives, municipalities in South Africa have faced a plethora of challenges in fulfilling their developmental mandate. According to Isioma (2010), "a significant percentage of the population is yet to access basic services and infrastructure because of government's slow pace of service delivery" (p. 51). In this light, it has become clear that local government alone finds it difficult to fulfil its mandate without forming partnering with other public electricity utilities such as ESKOM and Water Boards.

This has obligated both the national spheres of government to support and strengthen the capacity of municipalities to manage their own affairs and to exercise their powers and to perform their functions in order to give effect to Section 154 of the constitution (Cogta, 2013). These national programmes implemented at the local government level should be viewed

within the parameters of national government's support initiatives for municipalities. According to Tsatsire et al (2010: 273), "establishing and maintaining sound intergovernmental relations have, therefore, become vital in ensuring the success of local government". In order to enable effective functioning of the intergovernmental relations, the South African government developed intergovernmental systems modelled on the "Joined-Up" government approach in order to give effect to the constitutional injunction. In order to ensure that sector departments play their role in supporting municipalities, a number of IGR platforms have been established at national, provincial and local government level in order to facilitate and enhance an integrated approach to confront service delivery challenges. The Intergovernmental Relations Act (Act no. 13 of 2005) was promulgated in order to ensure improved government integration and coordination. In terms of the IRA (2005), both the national, provincial and local government sphere are obliged, by legislation to facilitate and promote intergovernmental relations by putting the following IGR mechanisms and system in place.

Figure 2: Illustration of cooperative government and IGR structures



Source: Ubisi, 2017

The figure above illustrates cooperative governance within the intergovernmental relation of government structures. According to Ubisi (2017), the block lines in Figure 1 serve a dual purpose. Ubisi pointed out that within this "firstly represent the intergovernmental relations between the three government spheres and which must always be maintained in order to improve services, in this context water service delivery. It also indicates a joined-up government system. This implies that any service delivery challenge may be effectively addressed, regardless of the government sphere from which it emanates.

However, critics of the Joined-Up approach have argued that the model exemplified some difficulties in relation to co-ordinating public activity and undertaking strategic functions among various spheres of government. Malan (2005) observed that "coordination becomes an adversarial issue of governance whenever functions are formally shared between the various spheres of government (with each having a specific responsibility), or when exercising a function in one sphere has consequences for the functions of another". This may occur as a result of unspecified roles and responsibilities that may result in duplication, overlapping of functions and confusing mandates among the various spheres of government. Consequently, poor coordination has a potential to undermine service delivery performance. According to Malan (2005), "the system of intergovernmental relations in South Africa requires the three spheres of government to forge strong, flexible goal-directed partnerships that can promote collaboration without weakening performance and accountability". This also requires joint decision-making and planning among key stakeholders involved.

2.9 The role of municipal Integrated Development Plan (IDP)

The IDP is a key municipal strategic plan for coordination between national, provincial and local government, and is regarded as the "nerve centre" for facilitation, coordination and implementation of national, provincial and local government development plans as well as ensuring that there is no duplication. Tsasire et al (2010: 274) argue that "no single sphere of government can in isolation, provide services and deal with the challenging backlogs in service delivery whilst being developmental, services have to be provided in collaboration with the spheres of government".

The municipal IDP is therefore central in this intergovernmental collaborations. This is because development plans and programmes are implemented at a local level and for the benefit of local communities. Local government is therefore expected to be at the forefront of implementing IDP programmes in collaboration with other spheres of government. This implies that the IDP must be aligned to the national (i.e. the National Development Plan) and provincial development priorities (i.e. the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy) in order to give effect to the principles of cooperative governance. In addition, both the national and provincial development programmes must find expression in the municipal IDPs. The strategic nature of the IDPs obliges municipalities to align financial and institutional resources in order to fulfil developmental mandate and act as an instrument for integration to broader government developmental priorities.

2.10 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

There are various interrelated factors that impede municipalities' efforts to deliver adequate water to all communities. The understanding of these factors provides a clear indication that should guide local government support programmes. Ultimately, these factors have an impact on service delivery. In order to achieve the desired outcomes, this study argues that the success of local government support programmes should be informed by prevailing challenges in local government through a renewed commitment to joint-planning, coordination, and strengthening of IGR structures within the water sector to achieve the goal of providing universal access to communities. This should be informed by clear water policy guidelines based on the principle of good governance and equal distribution of water resources. This section seeks to provide a conceptual framework drawn from the ideas and arguments raised in the literature. It also seeks to provide an understanding of why previous efforts to support local government have not been as successful as anticipated. This factors will form the basis for the evaluation of the B2B programme.

2.10.1 Free basic water and infrastructure

Studies have shown that dysfunctional municipalities struggle to effectively implement free basic water policies to rural communities due to their inability to pay for water services. Free Basic Water supplies refer to the government's commitment to ensuring access to water service delivery for all - especially those who cannot pay. With respect to poor households who are unable to pay or have access adequate municipal water service, free basic water supply involves the right of access to basic water as a basic need in terms of the national norms and standards. South Africa introduced basic water supply policy and legislation. In terms of the Free Basic Water policy, every poor household should receive free basic water supply of six cubic meters per month. The provision of free basic water supply to poor households is exclusively the obligation of municipalities mandated in terms of Section 27 of the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The Water Services Act (Act 108 of 1997) further provides that everyone has a right of access to basic water supply. According to De Visser, quoted in Earle et al (2005) basic water supply" is the "prescribed minimum standard of water supply services necessary for the reliable supply of a sufficient quantity and quality of water to households, including informal households, to support life and personal hygiene.

Notwithstanding this constitutional imperative, much evidence exist that point to municipalities' inability to extend basic water supplies, especially to the rural communities

where huge backlogs exist. Various challenges that hinder basic water supplies to indigent households have been identified. According to Mothetha et al (2013), "the majority of rural areas in South Africa are experiencing the challenges of accessing water services because they cannot afford to pay for municipal services". Sun and Birner (2010) argue that "providing basic water supplies in rural areas is a challenge because it is not easy to establish institutional arrangements that will ensure that basic water facilities are provided, maintained, and managed in an efficient, equitable and sustainable way".

Pressend (2011) argues that "the post-apartheid government's water policies have turned out to be punitive for the poor". Although there are pro-poor water policies in place, the privatization and payment of water resources have hindered the sustainable provision of water to poor households who cannot afford to pay water bills. This highlights policy contradictions as it contrasts the notion of water supply to all households as a basic necessity and a constitutional right. Pressend (2011), further points out that "although government has provided basic water services to an estimated additional nine million people since 1994, they are mostly in urban areas and in many rural areas, lack of reticulated water and sanitation means that people rely on generally poorly managed local resources such as groundwater, springs and rivers that are vulnerable to pollution".

Lack of water services infrastructure in rural areas has also rendered municipalities dysfunctional, especially rural municipalities that are comprised of mostly indigent households and largely dependent on grants. As a result, these municipalities fund it difficult to allocate budget for water capital projects. This result in rural communities using unsafe alternative sources of water. Jagals (2012) pointed out that "evidence show where communities use poor quality water, improving water supply services such as access, availability and portability generally leads to a significant reduction in morbidity as well as premature mortality from water-related infectious disease".

2.10.2 Municipal Integrated Development Planning

Municipal support programmes must be incorporated into the IDP within the municipal planning systems. Municipal IDP is a strategic five-year plan that guides the implementation of municipal service delivery programmes. Kuye (2006) defines IDP as an "approach that simultaneously advance multiple benefits across the three dimensions of sustainable development that include social, environmental and economic". In the South African context, municipal integrated development planning is an approach to planning that involves the entire

municipality and its citizens in finding the best solutions to achieve good long-term development. Thus, a municipal Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is a super plan for an area that gives an overall framework for development, that aims to co-ordinate the work of local and other spheres of government in a coherent plan to improve the quality of life for all the people living in an area, taking into account the existing conditions and problems and resources available for development (Municipal Systems Act, 2000).

The municipal IDP sets a framework for a range of community service delivery initiatives needed at a local level through a coordinated manner for economic and social development. Municipal IDP requires effective governance, policy coordination and coherence across government departments and between stakeholders to fully understand and manage the key challenges and enabling factors (DPLG, 2000).

2.10.3 Intergovernmental relations and coordination

The principle of cooperative governance and intergovernmental relations is a Constitutional provision in terms of Chapter 3 of the 1996 Constitution of the RSA. In response to the sub-question: How has the successive national government programmes attempted to reform municipal performance, and facilitating service delivery (especially water)?, Coetzee (2010) pointed that "South Africa adopted a democratic model of co-operative governance comprising of three spheres: national, provincial and local government. This underlines the importance of cooperative governance in the water services provision. Malan (2005: 230) points out that "the concept of intergovernmental relations is an integral part of co-operative governance and can, therefore, be explained as "one of the means through which the values of co-operative governance may be given both institutional and statutory expression".

According to Opeskin (1998) the term "intergovernmental relations" is commonly used to refer to relations between central, regional and local governments that facilitate the attainment of common goals through cooperation. This suggests that intergovernmental relations are used to attain common governmental objectives. Wright (1988) defines intergovernmental relations as an interacting network of institutions at national, provincial and local levels, created and refined to enable the various parts of government to cooperate in a manner which is appropriate to its institutional arrangements.

In the post-apartheid South Africa, intergovernmental relations (IGR) was adopted to facilitate a broader common government service delivery imperatives through cooperation among the

three spheres of government. A coherent implementation of IGR was subsequently emphasised by the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act 13 of 2005 (Masego, 2017). The concept of intergovernmental relations in South Africa was specifically introduced to facilitate coherent implementation of national developmental objectives at a local level through the involvement of the national, provincial, and local government. According to Malan (2005) coordination is the process that ensures that the activities and functions of the spheres of government do not overlap and that no duplication of functions occurs. Coordination is key to the well-functioning of various spheres of government in a decentralized state.

2.10.4 Developmental Local Government

A developmental local government (DLG) can broadly be defined as a state that has economic development as the top priority of government policy and seeks to design policies and institutions to promote this broad objective (Madumo, 2015). The concept of DLG was first introduced in the local government sector in the White Paper on Local Government of 1998, which notes the following characteristics as those of a developmental local government: maximising social development and economic growth; integrating and coordinating development planning; promoting democratic development; and building social capital at the local level to enable local solutions to development challenges.

This suggests that local government is positioned at the centre of developing local communities through creating enabling policies and systems for improving the livelihood of its communities which include among others poverty alleviation mechanisms, creating local economic opportunities and provision of adequate services in order to contribute to the national developmental outcomes. According to Madumo (2015) globally, countries realise that local government, as the sphere closest to the people, needs to transform itself in line with the development agenda of the State. Van Der Walt (quoted in Madumo, 2015) pointed out that on its most fundamental level, the role of local government in society in general and in development, in particular, can be categorised as follows: allocative e.g. resources, maximise efficiency, service delivery; distributive e.g. equity, social security, services; regulatory e.g. enforce law, protection, justice; stabilisation e.g. fiscal, monetary and economic policies to pursue objectives for control of inflation and unemployment.

2.10.5 Municipal support programmes

The term "support" is used is to explore local government support programmes initiated by the national government in order to capacitate municipalities to deliver services within the intergovernmental relations systems explicitly prescribed by the 1996 Constitution. Various municipal support programmes have been initiated aimed at strengthening municipalities on identified and key performance areas such as financial viability, basic service delivery and infrastructure development, institutional capacity building, and local economic development. These are interconnected key performance areas that would enable municipalities to enhance and accelerate service delivery, especially to rural communities. These municipal support programmes were initiated based on the findings that municipalities in South Africa are faced with significant and far-reaching challenges to render basic services in line with their constitutional mandate and serve as a developmental agent for the local communities

2.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter has explored the concepts of good governance, NPM, the 'joined-up' government, performance management, and cooperative governance as part of an array of management techniques and practices that influenced and shaped South Africa's public sector reforms from the repressive apartheid structures to a post-apartheid democratic system with specific focus at the local government structures. In the post-apartheid democratic government, the concept of "good governance" has occupied a central position in development discourse in the public sector reforms. Good governance has been considered as a fundamental element that provides a more balanced perspective between government and the governed. The term has become synonymous with democratic principles in which the civil society has the opportunity to make decisions and hold the government to account. It is generally acknowledged that a state that embraces good governance embraces the fundamentals of accountability, transparency and legitimacy and responsive to civil society's needs and aspirations. Good governance also encompasses systems of laws and just social systems. These interrelated elements of good governance are the pillars of a democratic society.

Good governance has also become a fundamental part of the of NPM paradigm since the 1980s. "Both in developed and developing countries, the NPM doctrine was proposed as an appropriate response aimed at making public sector administration more efficient, effective and responsive" (Islam, 2015). The emergence of the NPM model in the public sector management

was viewed as a response to the inefficiencies and weaknesses of the traditional model of public administration which emphasised a system of control based on a top-down approach in a hierarchical form. As a result, this system was deemed as rigid, corrupt, inefficient and counterproductive. According to Pfiffner (2004: 3), "one of the main concerns of the traditional model was the accountability of the implementers of public policy to the governing constitutional rulers". This left the civil society in a situation where they were unable to participate and make decisions on matters that affect their livelihoods.

In the South African transition from apartheid to a constitutional democracy that took place during the early 1990s, government from all levels embraced the principles of good governance and the NPM as a new public management approach which was adopted in order to ensure that government provide optimal public service delivery to its citizens. This is clearly demonstrated in the development of municipal IDP. The municipal IDP processes require that communities participate in the preparation, implementation and monitoring of IDP's developmental programmes. This means that the local communities are given the opportunity to participate and articulate their development priorities and needs.

In this way, municipal planning processes can be viewed as key in strengthening of local democracy as well as reinforcing of good governance principles. "Performance management, which is sometimes called results-based management, has emerged as an organizational management approach that is part of a broad movement of new public management in public administration that has had significant impacts on governments worldwide since it came onto the scene in the early 1990s". (McDavid et al, 2013: 5). Thus, one of the key instruments of measuring the performance of municipalities in delivering adequate services is the implementation of PMS.

Apart from local community being key stakeholders, the IDP also gives effect to the spirit of cooperative governance through maintaining sound intergovernmental relations through the promotion of coordination of developmental needs and provision of services at the local level between the three spheres of government. This means that both the provincial and national sphere of government are encouraged to participate in the municipal IDP processes and through the IGR structures in order to coordinate and realise common developmental goals at a local level.

From the above discussions, one can argue that "good governance is an ideal which is difficult to achieve in totality as very few countries and societies have come close to achieving good

governance in its totality" (UNESCAP, 2006). However, countries and societies that have adopted the ideals of good governance within their government systems have produced far better results for sustainable human development than others. In some instances, countries that have adopted and implemented the ideals of good governance have failed dismally in the pursuit of good governance principles.

In the South African context, as Dipholo et al (2011) have observed that "the greatest irony is that while the government adopted the principles of NPM in its reforms of the public sector, institutionalized and systematic corruption that is endemically entrenched in government defeats the purpose of reform as many members of the political elite collude in defrauding government and the general public". As a result, the core principles of good governance are compromised to the disadvantage of the general public and negates the essence of the NPM and good governance. The adoption of this approach has also created more administrative difficulties in many municipalities throughout the country (burdensome), reduced municipal autonomy (eroded decentralisation) to respond more directly to their specific challenges, and in following a user-pay principle, has excluded poor communities from full access to their constitutionally defined rights.

CHAPTER 3: OVERVIEW OF THE CASE STUDY AREA: GIYANI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to presents a descriptive overview of the Giyani Local Municipality (GLM) as a case study. The chapter seeks to address itself to sub-question 3 as set out in Chapter 1, which is: *What are the challenges in supplying water to rural communities in Giyani Local Municipality?* In order to respond to this question, the chapter firstly provides an understanding of the challenges and the current situation in GLM by exploring statistical characteristics on the demographics, socio-economic profile, spatial patterns, and service levels in the GLM. This will provide a clear idea o, based on statistical information on the challenges facing the GLM and the households living in this area. This chapter highlights key challenges faced by the municipality in extending water supplies to rural communities. The chapter also outlines the Back to Basic implementation in the GLM.

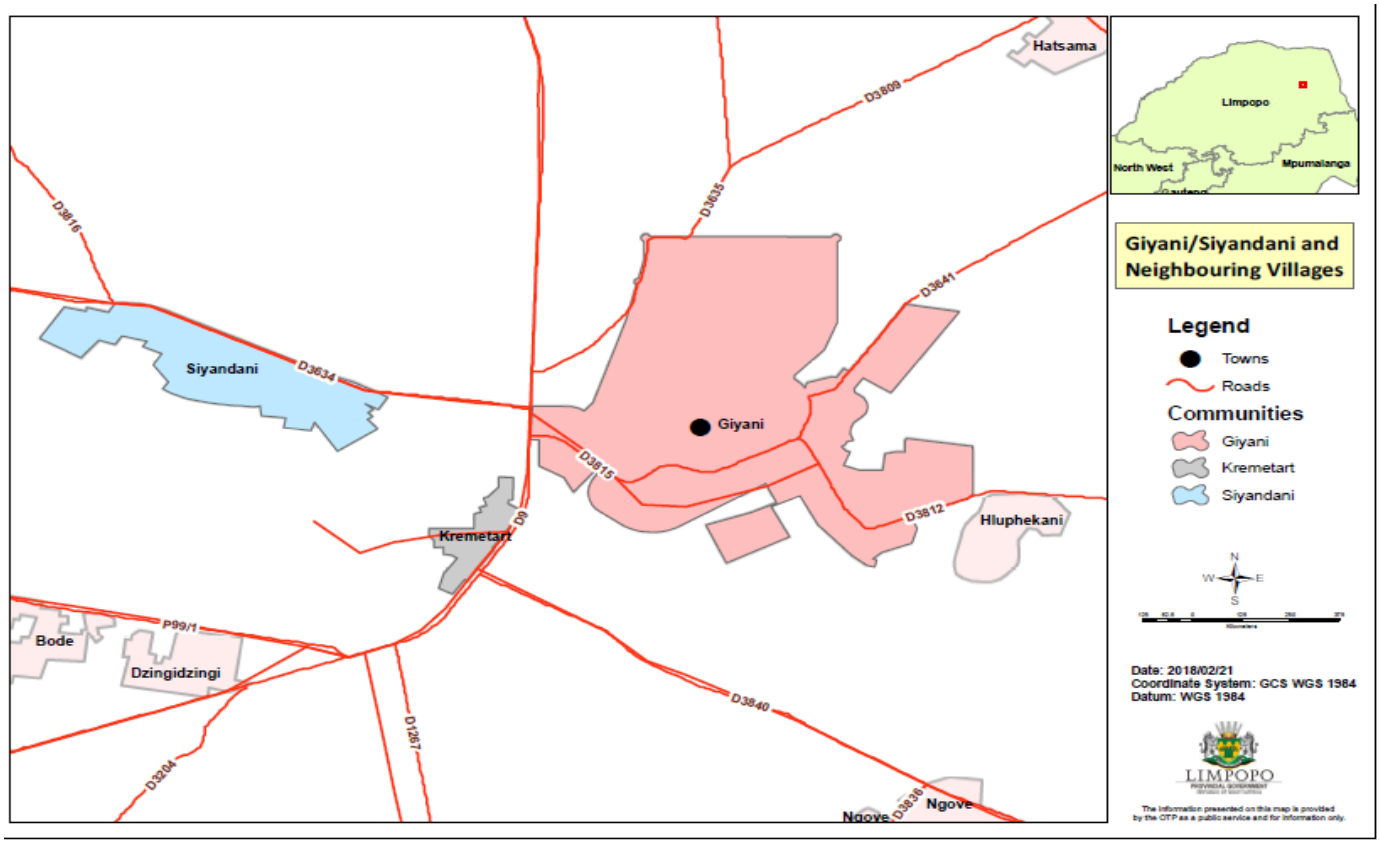
The Giyani Local Municipality (GLM) is a Category B municipality situated within the Mopani District in the Limpopo Province (GLM, 2016). GLM is one of five municipalities in the MDM which was established in 1969 as a capital of the former Gazankulu homeland. The town of Giyani is located approximately 185 km from Polokwane. The municipality covers about 2 967 km2 land area. It is bordered by Greater Letaba local municipality on the West, Greater Tzaneen local municipality on the South West, Maruleng local municipality on the South and Ba-Phalaborwa on the North East. Mopani District municipality offices are located in GLM area. GLM is largely rural which comprises of 93 villages and 10 traditional authorities (which are: Homu, Mabunda, Dzumeri, Shiviti, Mahumani, Mathebula, Nkuri, Hlaneki, Ndengeza, and Msengi). The municipality has only 4 townships clustered together (Section A, D1, D2, E and F) around the town of Giyani (GLM, 2016). “The town of Giyani is the largest centre of population concentration and it provides employment, shopping, recreation facilities and other amenities such as a public hospital, and surgeries” (GLM, 2014/15).

Map 1: Mopani District depicting the location of GLM



Source: GLM (2016)

Map 2: Location of Siyandhani village



Source: Office of the Premier, Limpopo Province (2016)

3.2 GLM characteristics

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of the GLM by exploring key statistical information. This is important in that it provides the characteristics of GLM based on the available statistics.

3.2.1 Demographics

Table 3: Population distribution by sex

LIM331: Greater Giyani	1996			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0-4	15 156	15 536	**30 692**	13 748	13 902	**27 651**	16 070	16 062	**32 132**
5-9	17 669	18 264	**35 933**	17 410	17 493	**34 904**	14 591	14 586	**29 177**
10-14	17 160	17 579	**34 739**	18 960	19 509	**38 471**	14 619	13 815	**28 433**
15-19	13 571	13 972	**27 543**	17 395	17 782	**35 177**	16 198	15 843	**32 041**
20-24	8 826	10 825	**19 651**	10 079	12 104	**22 184**	11 997	13 397	**25 393**
25-29	5 632	8 418	**14 050**	6 084	9 934	**16 021**	7 271	10 777	**18 048**
30-34	4 151	7 550	**11 701**	4 542	7 888	**12 430**	5 100	8 590	**13 690**
35-39	3 533	6 554	**10 087**	4 088	7 557	**11 646**	4 198	7 980	**12 179**
40-44	2 760	5 138	**7 898**	3 232	6 425	**9 657**	3 535	6 595	**10 130**
45-49	2 156	3 254	**5 410**	2 847	5 736	**8 584**	3 265	6 289	**9 554**
50-54	1 397	2 212	**3 609**	2 083	3 148	**5 233**	2 706	5 453	**8 159**
55-59	1 207	2 593	**3 800**	1 662	2 224	**3 886**	2 295	3 906	**6 202**
60-64	916	2 431	**3 347**	1 316	2 932	**4 249**	1 866	2 836	**4 701**
65-69	1 100	2 528	**3 628**	1 041	2 481	**3 522**	1 424	2 643	**4 067**
70-74	669	1 077	**1 746**	961	2 350	**3 310**	1 340	2 871	**4 211**
75-79	634	1 231	**1 865**	516	947	**1 463**	736	1 854	**2 590**
80-84	221	416	**637**	448	1 088	**1 536**	459	1 448	**1 907**
85+	145	452	**597**	188	618	**806**	343	1 102	**1 445**
Total	**96 910**	**120 033**	**216 943**	**106 606**	**134 123**	**240 728**	**108 011**	**136 047**	**243 058**

Source: StasSA (2011)

The total population of the GLM in 2011 was estimated at 243, 058. In 1996, the total population for GLM was estimated at 216 943 and has grown to an estimated 240 728 in 2001. This suggests that the population grew by about 123 023 people which represent a population growth rate of 2%. Surprisingly, the population growth in the GLM reached 243 058, which show a population growth of only 2 330 (0.14%) people between 2001 and 2011. This suggests a notable decline in terms of population growth in comparison to growth (123 023) between 1996 and 2001. Population decline can be attributed to various factors which include among others, socio-economic conditions (i.e. unemployment), access to social services, ageing population, declining fertility etc. According to the GLM (2012), "the reasons for the decline can be mainly attributed to outward migration to other urban centres e.g. Polokwane, Gauteng and Tzaneen in search of better working conditions". This implies that many people, particularly the working age group immigrate to other areas for employment opportunities.

When considering the dependent population, the youth population (under the age of 15) as a percentage of total population GLM has experienced a decline of the proportion of young

people, from 47% of the total population in 1996, 42% in 2001 to 37% in 2011. Nevertheless, they still represent a large proportion of the total population. The older population (over 65) can also be considered dependents as they no longer work. People of working age (15-64 years old) have grown from 98 618 in 1996 to 129 067 in 2001, and 140 097 in 2011. They made up 49% of the total population in 1996, the number increased to 54% in 2001, and 58% in 2011. From a policy perspective, the decline in youth population has a negative impact on government planning of education and health services. This also impacts negatively on the future economic development of the area as fewer people will be available in the future to enhance economic development.

Although population change dynamics can be influenced by various principal driving factors (i.e. social, economic, political, geographic, and spatial variations), the decline of the young population in the GLM can be largely attributed to the combination of the above factors that led to rising poverty levels, especially in rural areas which resulted in many poor families opting to have less children. According to StasSA (2011) growing up in poverty is one of the greatest threats to childhood development. This is demonstrated in the declining number of children between 0-14 years old in the GLM while there is population growth by the working age group in the years under comparison. Child mortality can also be attributed to a declining youth population in the GLM due to poor health services.

Within these attributes of population dynamics in the GLM, the table above also indicate that there are more women than men in a given age segment. For instance, females made-up 55%, in comparison the district constitutes 54% females, 56% of the province and 51% at the national level. Although there is no much difference in between the population of males to females in the working age group of between 15-24 years old, there is a notable gap increase among the age group of 25-64 years old. There is an increasing decline in the male population in comparison to females in this age category. The decline may be attributed to the economic driving factors which result in the migration to other urban centres such as Polokwane and Gauteng where the migrants search for work opportunities. However, it is worth noting that the male-female gender gap also reflects that of the country where there are more females than males. GLM has a 55% female compared to 51% female population in proportion to the national ratio. Notwithstanding the existing gap between the young males and females, there is clear indication that higher mortality rate is high among the males as the population of males appears to be “evening-out”, particularly in the old age group (65+) where there are more females than males.

According to SatsSA (2011), GLM experienced an annual population growth of 2.0% between 1996 and 2001. However, between 2001 and 2011 GLM experienced a decreased annual population growth of 0.14%. Low population growth rates, particularly in municipalities characterised by largely indigent households like GLM, can have important social and economic policy implications as there will be less demand for free basic services. It can thus be argued that the declining population growth is a result of poverty-related outmigration. This illustrates that GLM has a higher demand for social services and economic opportunities.

3.2.2 Socio-economic profile

Table 4: Household dynamics

Municipality	**Number of household**			**Average household size**		
GLM	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011
	42 408	53 050	63 548	5,1	4,5	3,8
MDM	201 219	239 209	296 320	4,7	4,2	3,6

Source: StatsSA(2011)

Analysis of the socio-economic profile of the area is critical in the formulation of strategic plans for future service delivery. According to StatsSA (2011), in 1996 the number of households in the GLM was 42 408. The number of households increased by 10 642 to make a total of 53 050 in 2001. In 2011 the number increased by another 10 498 to make a total of 63 548 households in the GLM area. GLM contributes a total of 21.4% of households in the MDM. One notable aspect is that there has been a significant decrease in the average size of households in the GLM. This may relate to the provision of RDP housing and the de-compression of households. However, it could also reflect the increasing out-migration of family members, especially males. The GLM average size of households has decreased from 4.5 to 3.8 people between 1996 and 2001. There has been a further decrease in the average household size between 2001 and 2011 from 4.5 to 3.8. Furthermore, in comparison to the district projections, GLM had more than the average household size in relation to the MDM which had 4.7, 4.2 and 3.6 in 1996, 2001 and 2011 respectively. According to the estimates, the MDM average household size has also been declining. This implies that GLM has a higher demand for services in comparison. With regard to water provision, this also implies that the MDM, as a WSA should plan and allocate more resources in order to meet water demands for the GLM population.

Table 5: Unemployment rate and dependency ratio

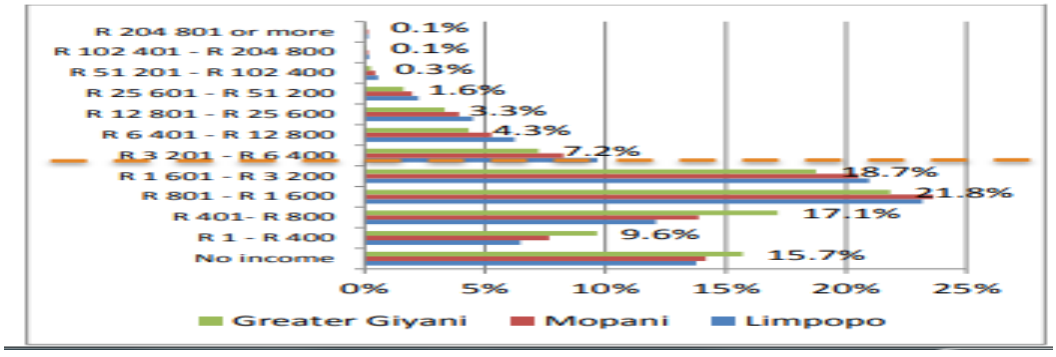
Employed			Unemployed			Unemployment rate			Dependency ratio		
1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011
19 633	20 990	89 769	107 444	129 066	140 226	8 503	10 638	14 222	102,7	86,5	74,2

Source: StatsSA, 2011.

According to StatsSA (2011), "the age dependency ratio relates to the number of the young population (age 0-15 years old) and elderly population (age 65 and over) in relation to the working-age population (of ages 15 to 64). However, in this case, the above table also takes into consideration the unemployment rate of the population who are dependent on the employed population in the GLM". In 1996, only 19 633 of the population was employed, while the unemployment rate was at 8 503. These relate to people in the labour force who were unemployed in 1996. This means that 43.3% of the population was unemployed in 1996. Consequently, the dependency ratio has risen to 102.7 (unemployed and unemployment rate) in 1996. The estimates of the number of employed population increased to 20 990 in 2001, while the unemployment rate increased to 10 638. However, the proportion of the employed population increased to 89 769, while 14 222 of the population remained unemployed. The dependency ratio also decreased to 74.2 in 2011.

It is important to note that the dependency ratio is derived by comparing the number of those that can provide for themselves to the number of those that rely on them. If a nation is suffering from high unemployment crisis, the ratio will be high. As depicted in the GLM, the number of unemployed people creates difficulties where the working population have to ensure that they help sustain both the unemployed of working age (age 15-64 years old) labour force and the dependent population (i.e. those aged 0-15 and 65+ years old).

Figure 2: Monthly income per household



Source: StatsSA (2011)

In determining the living standards of communities in the GLM, table 4 illustrates income levels of the local population in relation to the income levels of MDM and Limpopo Province. It is evident that a large portion (82.9%) of households in Greater Giyani either has no income or earns less than R3 200.00 per month. The proportion of households earning between R0-R800 in GLM either is higher than district and provincial average. However, there is a notable change in the households in that household earning income of between R801-3200 is slightly higher in the GLM than both the district and provincial average.

Taking into consideration the average size of 3.8 persons per household as depicted in table 2, this equates to R125/person per month or R1 263/year. A further 40.5% of households earn less than R3 200/month or R38 400/year (GLM, 2014). From the above observations, it is evident that a large portion of the GLM population is extremely poor and dependent on very little income, implying that the local population is less able to afford to pay for basic services, such as water and sanitation. This effectively suggests that the majority of the GLM households are indigents and therefore unable to pay for municipal services. Indigent households largely rely on the government to provide FBS, including water.

Furthermore, only 16.9% of households in the GLM earn between are "high" income earners, which means that households in this bracket are not classified as indigent and therefore can afford to pay for basic services. The majority of these households are located in the townships where service delivery and infrastructure is largely concentrated. This also explains the municipality's inability to generate income and recover operational costs for services as only a few households are able to pay for municipal services, while the majority are largely dependent on FBS.

Figure 3: GLM employment per sector (source: GLM, 2017)

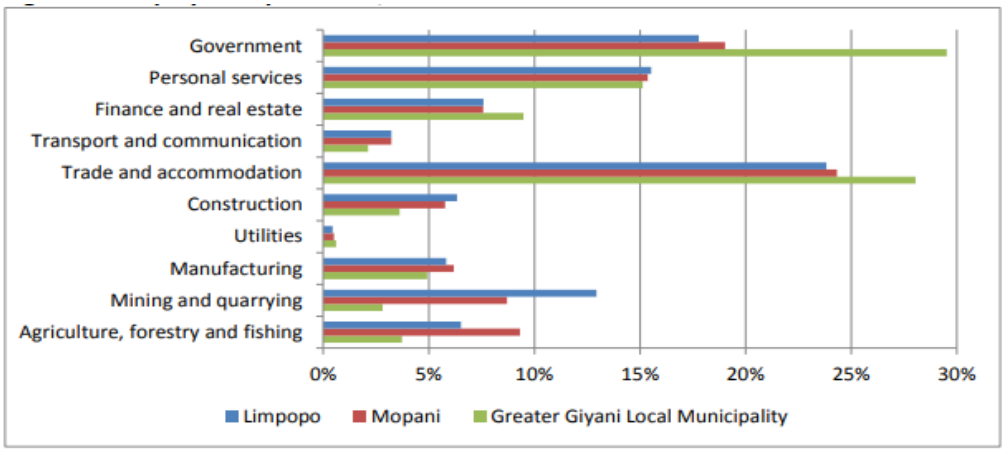


Figure 3 illustrates comparable key employment sectors in the GLM, MDM and Limpopo Province. The most significant employment sectors are government services, trade and accommodation and personal services with 29.5%, 28.0% and 15.1% respectively in the GLM. Utilities employed the smallest share of the labour force with only 0.6% in GLM. Since GLM consist of largely rural areas, one would expect the agricultural sector to play a significant role in relation to employment. However, this is not the case as the industry only employs less than 5%. According to GLM (2014-2016), the agricultural sector seems to be under-reported in the official statistics because there is not much commercial farming. In the most, people in the GLM generally rely on subsistence or communal farming. Surprisingly, finance and real estate employ 9% of the total labour force in comparison to the MDM and the province.

3.2.3 Spatial patterns

The municipality covers a geographic area of 2967, 27 square km. Most of the population in the GLM are located in 94 villages. These villages are mainly on traditional land that under 10 tradition leaders. As a result, traditional leaders play an important role with regard to the development of the area. Urban areas, including townships, are primarily located in ward 12 of the GLM.

Table 6: Population per Ward

WARD	POPULATION	WARD	POPULATION	WARD	POPULATION
1	8272	11	19948	21	8443
2	10329	12	5461	22	10162
3	10730	13	9283	23	7385
4	9948	14	9531	24	7419
5	10134	15	9447	25	8337
6	10585	16	10059	26	10648
7	7955	17	7931	27	12495
8	10586	18	4800	28	14561
9	7047	19	9856	29	24300
10	13390	20	10382	30	22542
				31	13 465
TOTAL POPULATION					256300

Source: GLM (2017)

According to GLM (2017/18), the current total population is 256, 300. It is important to note that the total population figure differs from the StatsSA (2011) Census Report used above and is considered additions as determined by the municipality. The population density among the 31 wards in the GLM is unevenly distributed. Wards 29 and 30 are densely populated with 24 300 and 22 542 people respectively. Only ward 18 is sparsely populated with only 4 800. With the exception of ward 18, all the wards in the GLM contain between 5000 and 19 000 people. Siyandhani village falls under Ward 7 which has a total population of 7 955.

Table 7: Hierarchy of Settlements

TYPE	AREA
First order	Giyani Section A, B, D, E and F
Second order	Dzumeri, Shawela, Nkomo
Third Order	All other villages

Source: GLM (2017)

Giyani population is concentrated in 94 rural villages and 6 townships. The GLM classifies the hierarchy of settlements in three orders. The first order relates to the townships which are classified as urban areas. The second order relates to peri-urban areas or rural-urban transition zones where the there is a mix of rural-urban characteristics. The third order is all the villages, which also include Siyandhani village. According to GLM (2016), the Giyani spatial economic development patterns are marked by apartheid legacy with the majority of people confined to rural areas with limited economic activities and access to urban infrastructure. Over the years, there have been significant shifts in settlement patterns. According to GLM (2014), most of the households have moved to areas under the traditional leaders around the town of Giyani. This has resulted in the increase of informal settlements within the proximity of the town of Giyani and the surrounding townships in order to have access to services. Rural communities are situated far apart, which makes infrastructure development expensive. Villages are an average distance of 35kms away from the CBD which is the centre of the economic activities and most people are employed. Most roads are gravel which makes it difficult during rainy seasons as these roads are not easily accessible and also affects service, most importantly, emergency services.

3.3.4 Household service levels

Table 8: Access to municipal services

1. Water								
Piped water inside the dwelling/ yard			Piped water on communal stand			No access to piped (tap) water		
1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011
20 333	23 155	27 900	19 503	22 836	26 103	2 338	7 060	9 545
2 Electricity								
Lighting			Cooking			Heating		
1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011
19250	35716	56586	6267	8647	14765	6101	10389	18493
3 Toilet facilities								
Flush/ chemical toilet			Pit toilet			No toilets		
1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011
4 997	8 711	8 544	13 233	14 951	39 823	23785	29389	12712
4 Refuse removal								
Removed by local authority			Communal refuse dump			No rubbish disposal		
1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011	1996	2001	2011
4 619	5 557	7 755	28 344	34 031	45 734	8 689	13 463	9 441

Source: StatsSA, 2011

Table 6 represents household access to municipal service in the GLM area. The number of households with access to piped water inside the dwelling has increased from 20 333 in 1996 to 27 900 in 2011. In 2011, the proportion of households that have access to piped water inside dwelling represented in 2011 were at 43%, while households with access to water on a communal stand were at 41%. 15% of households in the GLM had no access to water in 2011. GLM has the least number of households in comparison to the provincial and national average. On average, Limpopo province has 53% households with access to piped water inside the dwelling, 33.7% of households use communal standpipes, while 14% have no access to water. Nationally, 73.4% of households have access to piped water inside the dwelling, 17.9% of households use communal standpipes, while 8.8% have no access to water. This show that GLM has the least number of households with access to water in comparison to the province (87% with access inside dwelling and communal pipes) and national figures at 91.3% On the other hand, the figures show that GLM has the highest number (15%) of households with no access to water in comparison to the province (14%) and national (8.8%) statistics. There has

also been a significant increase in the number of households without access to piped water. 1n 1996, 2 383 households had no access to piped water in the GLM. This number increased to 7 060 in 2001 and further to 9 545 in 2011.

The GLM has experienced a gradual increase in the number of households with access to electricity from 1996 to 2011. However, there are still households who have no access to toilet facilities and rubbish disposal. The number of households with access to flush or chemical toilets has increased from 4 997 to 8544 between 1996 and 2011. However, the number of households with no access to toilet facilities has drastically decreased from 23 785 in 1996 to 12 712 in 2011. Due to the largely rural nature of GLM, a large number of households do not have access to refuse removal. According to GLM (2016/17), the municipality only disposes the refuse from households in the townships.

Table 9: Sources of water in the GLM

Source	%
Borehole	22.4%
Not applicable	0%
Dam/ pool/stagnant water	3.2%
Rainwater tank	0.4%
Regional/ local water schemes (operated by municipality)	60.9%
River/ stream	4.5%
Spring	0.2%
Water tanker	0.7%
Water vendor	5.9%

Source: GLM (2017)

According to GLM (2016/17), a total of 60.9% of households rely on conventional surface water schemes while 22.4% of households depend on boreholes as their source of water. Households that rely mainly on underground water borehole schemes are mainly in rural areas. A total of 5.9 % of households in the GLM area buy water from water vendors. 4.5% of households rely on unsafe open streams and rivers, and 3.2% depend on stagnant, pool or dam water as their main sources of water. According to COGHSTA (2014), 94.7% of the households who do not have access to water provision are located in rural areas. Given the financial and capacity constraints, coupled with huge water service delivery backlogs in rural areas this explains the reasons why GLM was classified as a “dysfunctional” municipality.

3.3 Overview of GLM

GLM faces challenges of service delivery, particularly to its largely rural settlements. The majority of people (82.9%) have income levels that fall within the indigent thresholds, while

the dependency ratio is the highest at 74%. According to Hesket (2006), a high dependency ratio indicates that the economically active population and the overall economy face a greater burden to support and provide the social services needed by children and by older persons who are often economically dependent. In the context of the GLM, this situation is aggravated by the fact that not only children (under 0-14 years old) and elderly (65+ years old) are classified as dependents, the high unemployment rate implies that the unemployed also depend on the fewer employed people. In 2011 for instance, an estimated 140 226 employable people were unemployed in the GLM.

The majority of people (82.9%) have income levels that fall within the indigent thresholds, while the dependency ratio is the highest at 74%. According to Hesket (2006), "a high dependency ratio indicates that the economically active population and the overall economy face a greater burden to support and provide the social services needed by children and by older persons who are often economically dependent". In the context of the GLM, this situation is aggravated by the fact that not only children (under 0-14 years old) and elderly (65+ years old) are classified as dependents, the high unemployment rate implies that the unemployed also depend on the fewer employed people. In 2011 for instance, an estimated 140 226 employable people were unemployed in the GLM. The employment sectors in the GLM are not nearly enough to absorb the growing number of the unemployed. This is demonstrated by the fact that government is the largest employer in the municipality.

The most notable characteristics of underdevelopment in the rural areas of GLM are the lack of economic activities, lack of socio-economic infrastructures, and inadequate services. These areas are in the most poorly serviced in comparison to the urban areas. Many of the studies acknowledge that there is an urban bias when it comes to service delivery while rural areas are the most underserved. For instance, Cherunya et al (2015) pointed out that the rural areas in developing countries are largely cut off from infrastructural services, leading to a lack of sustainable access to basic services. The GLM (2014) concedes the most economically depressed areas and where there is evidence of huge backlogs in water supplies are the rural areas and that this requires renewed commitment to address these problems. This assertion is illustrative of the exclusion that rural areas experience in relation to service delivery. In these underserved areas, the provision of basic services remains a huge challenge. According to GLM (2014), this is demonstrated by the fact that only rural communities are at times supplied water through tankers due to lack of infrastructure. There is also a substantial number of households in rural areas that rely on water vendors, rivers, streams and dam water. This inequality in water

is generally influenced by the fact that rural areas are largely characterised by poor households who cannot afford to pay for their services. As a result, these areas are not prioritised in terms of sustainable delivery of characterised by poor households who cannot afford to pay for their services. As a result, these areas are not prioritised in terms of sustainable delivery of services.

In other words, the costs of extending services to these areas cannot be covered by the rural households on the basis of the user-pay principles. In addition, these costs are necessarily high because of (a) distance from existing supply networks/bulk infrastructure and reticulation systems, and (b) further increased by the low population density in these areas.

3.4 Institutional framework for water supply in the GLM

The Mopani District Municipality (MDM) is the Water Services Authority (WSA) and is responsible for the maintenance, development of water services infrastructure, and operations and maintenance of bulk water infrastructure (GLM, 2014). As the Water Services Authority the Mopani District Municipality has a constitutional obligation to ensure that all citizens within its jurisdiction have access to safe, reliable, affordable and sustainable water services (Maake and Holtzhausen, 2015:248). The MDM and GLM have entered into a Service Level Agreement (SLA) which effectively allow the GLM to be a Water Services Provider (WSP) on behalf of the MDM. GLM is also responsible for water provision in the rural areas. The MDM allocates budget for operation and maintenance to GLM in order to ensure that water infrastructure is functional. According to the 2015-2016 Annual Report, new water infrastructure projects remain the responsibilities of MDM (GLM, 2016). In this case, MDM purchases bulk water supply from LNW, which in turn allocates and distribute to the GLM. The volume of bulk water purchased by MDM is determined by the price paid to LNW, which effectively illustrates the role of LNW in water distribution.

Lepelle Northern Water (LNW) is a water board established in terms of Chapter 6 of the Water Services Act. The primary responsibility of the water board is to provide water services to other water services institutions within its service area. In this case, LNW provides bulk water supply to MDM, which is the WSA to all its five local municipalities within its jurisdiction, including GLM. At the village level, there is a Water Committee (WC) is mainly comprised of interested members of the village. At Siyandhani village, the WC is comprised of six members. The main responsibilities of the WC are to oversee the planning, construction of water-related projects, including operations of water infrastructure supply in the village. The WC is also responsible for ensuring there are constant water supplies to the village. The WC is the link between the

community and the municipality and plays a significant role in terms of facilitation of water provision in the villages, including reporting of water shortages and broken infrastructure to the municipality.

Water in rural areas is mostly supplied periodically (i.e. once or twice a week), sometimes during the early hours of the morning. Although GLM distributes water to rural communities, it is not sufficient, and so households also rely on other sources of water, such as water vendors, river and stream water, dams or stagnant water sources. The GLM municipality does not have sufficient technical capacity to respond to the water challenges in rural areas. In terms of the 2017-2018 IDP, currently, the municipality has 58% vacancies in the water services department. The GLM municipality has only 15 technical positions that are filled. This suggests that there are only 15 technicians available to deal with water-related matters in 93 villages, including the townships and the town of Giyani. The existing SLA requires the GLM to bill and collect water tariffs on behalf of MDM. These SLAs between MDM and its local municipalities are currently under review in order to clarify issues pertaining to reimbursement as local municipalities are expected to purchase spares and also repair water infrastructure

Although GLM distributes water to communities, many rural communities do not have sustainable water supplies. These communities largely rely on other sources of water such as water vendors, river and stream water, dam or stagnant water. Water in rural areas is mostly supplied periodically (i.e. once or twice a week), sometimes during the early hours of the morning.

3.5 GLM water supply systems

The GLM is primarily responsible for supplying water only to communities in the townships. This means that GLM bills and collects water tariffs specifically from households in the townships as well as businesses located in the town in terms of the SLA. All households in the townships have meters in order for the municipality to measure consumption at the household level, determine the cost for water usage, billing and cost recovery purposes. For rural communities, however, the GLM municipality does not bill or recover costs from all 93 villages. This is due to the fact that the municipality does not reticulate water to individual rural households on site.

The municipality mainly supplies basic water to rural areas in line with the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) standards. A basic (or RDP) household water supply is defined in the Strategic Framework for Water Services (2003) as either 25 litres per person per

day, or 6000 litres per household per month. In rural areas where there are no household connections, water is provided through communal standpipes within 200 meters of the household. As a result, there is no metering for individual households, and water supplies of this nature in rural areas can be viewed as FBW since there is no cost recovery. In these rural areas, tariffs that cover distribution, operating and maintenance costs are recovered through subsidies derived from FBS allocations.

3.6 Water policy and distribution priorities for the GLM

With regard to water supply priorities in the GLM, the MDM as a WSA is responsible for the development of water policies, plans and implementation of water distribution projects. The GLM, as a WSP does not have a Water Sector Plan (WSP) and the municipal IDP does not reflect plans and budget for water supplies. As a result, the MDM developed a Water Master Plan for GLM in 2014. In terms of the MDM 2016/17-2020/21 IDP, twenty-one (21) villages in the GLM (which also include Siyandhani village) are targeted for water supplies projects. For Siyandhani village, MDM has set aside a budget of R3.2 million prioritised for the drilling of boreholes to supplement standpipes. The MDM has also set aside R35 million for the acquisition of two Drilling Rig machines in order to alleviate water shortages in rural areas. The Department of Water and Sanitation (DWS) has also set aside a budget of R11.5 million for rehabilitation of dysfunctional boreholes in Giyani area. However, there is no indication with regard to the progress of the project.

The Nandoni to Giyani bulk water supply project earmarked to alleviate water shortages in the Giyani area, and which was a subject of court litigation from 2010 has recently resumed after the intervention by DWS. The contractor has completed site re-establishment and has just started with the repair work and new work concurrently, and the overall progress is estimated to be around 20% and it is anticipated that the project will be completed in September 2018 (MDM, 2017). The DWS budget R482 million for this project.

3.7 Status of water supply infrastructure in GLM

Water infrastructure in Giyani is inadequate to supply water to the whole of GLM, hence the demand for water in the villages has increased significantly (GLM, 2014). Like in many areas, GLM experiences challenges of dilapidated water infrastructure that result in constant water bursts and regular maintenance. Maake and Holtzhausen (2015: 268) have observed that the majority of water infrastructure was designed almost thirty (30) years ago at a time where there was no anticipation of connecting rural settlements to the infrastructure but now with the dawn

of a new democracy, every citizen has the right to have access to clean water. The policy and legislative directives of the universal supply of FBW implied that the municipality has to connect more households areas to the infrastructure designed for few households who were mainly concentrated in urban areas. The implication is that the infrastructure become burdened as it operates beyond design capacity

Maake and Hotzhausen (2015) pointed out that the bulk pipelines within the GLM experience high levels of illegal connections which then makes it difficult for water to be stored in the reservoirs prior to distribution. This highlight the gap regarding coverage and access to water supplies by poor households in the rural areas. Although there are pro-poor policies related to FBS in place guaranteeing access to basic water, the extension of water-related infrastructure remains a challenge in particular to municipalities in financial distress such as GLM and MDM. Both the GLM and MDM municipalities face a dilemma in terms of prioritisation of whether to extend basic water supplies to the poor or replacing the ageing infrastructure in urban areas where households are able to pay for water services, given the limited resources at their disposal.

3.8 Water supply crisis in the GLM and the impact of unreliable water distribution in rural areas

Water supply sources in the GLM mainly comprise mainly of surface water sourced from the Middle Letaba Dam and Nsami Dam. This poses water supply challenges during dry seasons and low rainfalls. According to GLM (2014), the municipality is characterised by low summer rainfall that results in severe water shortages and drought conditions. This has led to government declaring GLM a water disaster area in 2009. Lack of water sources is one of the common challenges that affect the delivery of water services by municipalities. This has also compounded water supply challenges in the GLM. According to the 2016/17 IDP, the existing water resources in GLM are inadequate to supply water to all communities.

The Rural Water Supply Network (RWSN) (2009) points out that in a number of developing countries there has been a considerable investment made towards trying to improve on the problems with rural water supply, although water supply coverage continues to lag significantly behind that of urban water supply. Similar experiences can be related to rural communities in the GLM who face acute water scarcity: while the urban areas that include the town of Giyani and the townships continue to receive uninterrupted water supplies as long as there is water available.

Although GLM is located in a waterstressed areas, there are many villages such as Siyandhani that are located within the banks of the Letaba River where extraction of underground water through boreholes can alleviate water supply crisis. However, these areas continue to experience challenges of adequate water supplies and water tankers are the main method of water supply to these communities. According to GLM (2016/17), one of the pressing challenges faced by the municipality is to supply water to all the villages within the entire Greater Giyani Municipality, as it is putting too much pressure on the existing water treatment plant. This is due to the fact that rural areas have been marginalised in terms of sustainable water distribution with a bias to communities living in urban areas, thereby leaving vulnerable rural communities with no water supplies. This has resulted in huge water delivery backlogs concentrated in rural areas where most households are located. Water tankers are the most used method of providing water to these communities. According to GLM (2016/17), one of the pressing the challenge faced by the municipality is to supply water to all the villages within the entire Greater Giyani Municipality, putting too much pressure on the existing plant. This is due to the fact that rural areas have been marginalised in terms of sustainable water distribution with a bias to communities living in urban areas, thereby leaving vulnerable rural communities with no running water. This has resulted in huge water delivery backlogs concentration in rural areas and has also led to increased water demands.

Chronic water scarcity in the GLM's rural areas has compelled the DWS to intervene and increase the pumping capacity by commissioning a new water treatment plant at Nsami Dam. The DWS has also embarked on a massive project in greater Giyani for the refurbishment of water infrastructure by putting in new pipeline and upgrading of the existing water plant (GLM, 2017/18). According to the GLM (2017/18), the project will in future augment water supply to the greater Giyani municipality and also have some significant coverage to rural areas.

3.9 The B2B Programme

The National Development Plan (NDP) envisages that meeting the transformation agenda for local government requires a much higher and more focused intergovernmental commitment towards the creation of more functional municipalities and a capable machinery at a local government level. B2B is a Presidential priority that is implemented by all three spheres of government. This section examines the B2B implementation in the GLM. It assesses the role of other government stakeholders in providing support packages, prioritization of interventions and water projects aimed at improving the lives of communities in the GLM. In particular, this

section seeks to respond to the question relating to whether B2B implementation has impacted upon rural water supply in GLM. As B2B is implemented across the three spheres of government, the discussion in this section also responds to the sub-question: What are the intentions of the B2B programme, and how does it relate to cooperative governance and municipal planning systems**?**

In implementing the B2B programme, municipalities are required to develop B2B Action Plans for the delivery of basic services as well infrastructure development and maintenance in order to create conditions for decent living by consistently delivering municipal services to the right quality and standard. The development of B2B Action Plans (AP) must be based on the assessment of challenges that are experienced by the municipality in the five key areas, including basic service delivery (i.e. water) and related infrastructure development.

3.9.1 B2B Implementation in the GLM

GLM developed the AP in line with the B2B requirements which reflects Key Focus Area, Challenges, Baseline, Recommended Action, as well as Timeframes and Responsibility. The responsibility aspect also requires other stakeholders where necessary to assist the municipality.

An assessment of key challenges on water services provision was conducted by the municipality's Technical Services department. The following information was set out in the GLM AP with respect to water provision:

Table 10: B2B Action Plan for GLM in relation to water provision

GLM B2B ACTION PLAN	
Key Focus Area	**Water provision**
Baseline	34 000 households have access to water, while 23 535 households have no access to water
Expected Output	Number of household with access to water
Recommended Action	To ensure that all 57 535 households have access to water
Progress to date	Mopani District Municipality is responsible for water services. The Greater Giyani Municipality is only responsible for the reticulation maintenance and meter installation.
Timeframe	30/07/2017
Challenge	The municipality is not a water service authority
Responsibility	Director Technical Services

Source: Extracted from B2B Action Plan (Giyani Local Municipality, 2014)

According to the AP above, GLM has a backlog of 23 535 households, while 34 000 households that need access to water, while 34 000 households have access to water provision. The IDP indicate that the most of the households who do not have access to water are located in rural areas (GLM, 2016/17). According to the AP, that GLM intends to ensure that all households in the municipality have access to water provision by 30 July 2017. Although the AP show the responsibility of the MDM as a WSP, the plan does not include a detailed assessment of water infrastructure needs and budget allocations to deliver water services to rural communities. There is also no clear illustration of with respect to the expected output and the recommended action is not clearly stated in terms of the plan.

3.9.2 B2B Stakeholder Sector Support Plans and Progress

Through a more focused intergovernmental commitment, the B2B programme should give rise to more functional municipalities and capable machinery at the local level to effectively deliver water services to all communities. As a result, key stakeholders in the water supply should support municipalities to plan, implement, and maintain water service infrastructure necessary for water delivery by developing Sector Support Plans (SSP) for municipalities to overcome their basic service delivery challenges. In this case of GLM, the following stakeholders are involved in the water supply and required to develop SSPs for GLM.

(i) Mopani District Municipally

MDM developed its own AP to support GLM to improve water provision in line with B2B requirements. In terms of the AP, the MDM intended to extend the water supply grid to 3 412 households in the GLM. Noting the water supplies backlog 23 535 as reflected in the GLM AP, the 3 412 households for water supplies makes 14%. According to the MDM (2014), extending water supplies to the targeted households in the GLM would be done through the use of Water Services Infrastructure Grant (WSIG) projects to upgrade and provide new water infrastructure. The MDM plan does not indicate where these households are located. One of the key challenges highlighted in the AP in relation to the status of the GLM water infrastructure is that most of this infrastructure is old and made of asbestos pipes which result in constant water bursts, including borehole breakdowns. Another challenge is the extent of illegal connection from the main water supply pipes by rural communities. According to the AP (MDM, 2014) communities are reluctant to remove illegal water connections. This results in water bursts and shortages to other areas.

(ii) Lepelle Northern Water

Although DWS did not develop a support plan for GLM, the department commissioned LNW to support the GLM B2B programme in the following ways: (i) accelerate the completion of the Giyani water treatment works (WTW) upgrade and refurbishment, (ii) repair of non-functional boreholes, and (iii) refurbish the Giyani WTW in support of the GLM.

Siyandhani village was identified as one of the rural areas most affected by water supplies by DWS in terms of the LNW action plan below.

Table 11: LNW Action Plan

Water supply	**Challenges**	**Remedial Action**	**Respon sibility**	**Completi on date**	**Amount**
Expansion of Giyani Water Treatment Works (WTP)	Booster not operating due to the cavitation of pumps. Siyandhani pump station not operational. Illegal connections and internal reticulation challenges in rural areas	Planned shutdown of the WTP for the surveillance and restore Booster station. Engage communities with a view to removing all illegal water connect	LNW	April 2015	R333 000.00
Groundwater augmentation	Boreholes vandalised and theft of transformers	Refurbishment of boreholes and replacement of transformers	LNW	June 2015	R85 000
Nandoni-Giyani water supply pipeline	Court litigation	Resume construction of water pipeline	LNW	July 2017	R450 000.00

Source: Lepelle Northern Water, 2014

The water projects implemented by the LNW have been completed as planned. According to the B2B progress report of (LNW, 2017), the LNW intervention in the GLM resulted in the following impacts:

- The 6Ml/day expansion project is completed and functionally.
- The refurbishment project of nine (9) boreholes in rural areas is completed and boreholes functional.

- Total daily yield is now on average greater than 34Ml/day, a capacity which is sufficient to supply the Giyani town and all its 55 villages that are within the scheme's footprint. (LNW, 2017).

Based on the on the above, one can argue that the implementation of B2B programme in the GLM has a positive impact on the rural water supply. However, the LNW (2017) report does not show the specific number of households reflected that benefited from this programme. This number of households that benefited could not be determined due to the nature of water supplies in rural areas (i.e. rural communities usually access water through communal pipes and no lawful connections to households), extending water supplies to fifty-five (55) villages is a significant achievement. One key factor is that the report does not show whether the targeted communities receive consistent water supplies. The LNW (2014) concede that although there is water supply in these villages, there are various challenges on the bulk and reticulation, including extending water services to new villages due to limited resources and other challenges such as illegal connections. One key factor is that the report does not show whether the targeted communities receive consistent water supplies.

3.10 CONCLUSION

Based on the available statistics, it is clear that GLM is facing considerable challenges of providing water services to households that are largely characterised by poor rural communities. Statistics suggest that almost 83% of the households are indigent households who rely on the government to provide free basic water supplies as these households find it difficult to pay for services. This is evidently demonstrated in the coverage of water to rural areas in contrast of urban areas. One of the key reasons for this unequal coverage of sustainable water supplies can be linked to the neoliberal approaches adopted by the government as discussed in the chapter above which commercialized water services. This denotes that water supplies are closely linked and influenced by the financial capabilities of the communities and households to pay for water services, as well as the financial capacities of the municipality. However, with a poor population, the revenue base of the municipality is very limited and it is dependent on transfers and other sources of funding for capital projects. There are notable efforts that have been made to address some of the water supply issues by investing in water services infrastructure. However, given the existing challenges in supplying water to rural communities in Giyani Local Municipality the in the GLM will adversely affect the B2B programme.

Furthermore, given the recent trends, it is likely high unemployment rates and high dependency rates will continue in the future (medium-term). Given the limits of water supply, strategic decisions have to be taken to address both urban and rural needs within the natural resource limits and financial/technical capacity of GLM and MDM.

With regard to the B2B implementation, it is evidently clear that the involvement of various sectors in the water supply sectors through the B2B programme is gradually having some positive impacts in the GLM rural communities, although in a limited scale as some villages remain without water services. This also suggests that commitment and support by other actors (i.e. LNW, DWS, and MDM) within the cooperative governance system to intervene in the supply of potable water to rural areas is key in ensuring that dysfunctional municipalities such as GLM are able to reduce water provision backlogs. Notwithstanding the progress made, it is also clear that provision of universal basic water supply in line with the Constitutional and related legislation and policies remain a challenge for GLM. The LNW (2014) concede that although there is water supply in these villages, there are various challenges on the bulk and reticulation, including extending water services to new villages due to limited resources and other challenges such as illegal connections.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present, discuss and analyse the research findings obtained from research results obtained from the fieldwork in order to respond to the question of whether B2B programme is the appropriate response to the existing water supply challenges facing dysfunctional municipalities. This is done through empirical research that involved a series interviews using semi-structured questionnaires in order to gain a full insight on the status of water supplies in the GLM. The presentation and narration of the research results are structured to reflect the content of the questionnaires.

This method contextualizes the municipality's approach to B2B implementation of water supply by focusing on the following key aspects: (i) water Sources available to GLM, (ii) current water supply status quo to households in the GLM, with particular focus at on Siyandhani village, (iii) current water infrastructure, operations and maintenance, (iv) Planning for the B2B programme in relation to municipal planning, and (v) the participants' view of the B2B as the most appropriate programme to facilitate universal water supply to rural communities.

Interviews were conducted with four people, who represent key stakeholder involved in providing water services to GLM. They included:

- Local municipality Water Supply Technician (GLM technician)
- District Municipality Water Supply Technician (MDM technician)
- LNW official responsible for bulk water supply in the MDM region (LNW official)
- Siyandhani Water Committee member (SWC member).

The researcher also conducted a field observation" of the Nandoni to Giyani Pipeline Project to gather additional information related to the project challenges. Some questions relating to B2B and planning were omitted in the questionnaire administered to the Siyandhani Water committee (WC) representative as preliminary interview revealed that the WC member did not know or have an understanding of the B2B programme, including the municipal planning processes. The interview took were conducted over a period of four months. This came as a result of follow-up interviews in order to obtain more insights and clarifications on the other aspects of the study. The GLM technician was interviewed on 7 September 2017 and a follow-up interview was conducted on the 17 November 2017. The MDM technician was interviewed

on 13 October 2017. The SWC member was interviewed on the 14 September 2017. The LNW official was interviewed on 6 December 2017.

Based on the research findings broadly discussed, key findings linked to the research question and sub-questions are then summarised in a table form showing how each question is answered.

4.2 Findings

An examination of the case study demonstrates that there are a number of key systemic challenges within the GLM that have a negative impact on the successful outcomes of B2B implementation. These challenges are discussed below.

4.2.1 Water sources available in the GLM

The GLM technician indicated that the main water sources used in the GLM included water from Middle Letaba and Nsami Dams which provides 56ml/d to the Giyani area. However, the water supply from both Middle Letaba and Nsami dams is unable to meet the current water demand in Giyani and its surrounding 94 villages. The municipality supplements the water supply from Nsami and Middle Letaba dams with boreholes and is responsible for the purchase of diesel and electricity used for pumping water, including the purchase of spare parts for maintenance of water-related infrastructure. Although the purchase of diesel and spare parts is currently the subject of a review of the SLA as GLM is not reimbursed, this function is in accordance with the SLA reached between GLM and DDM.

There are a number of boreholes within the municipal area were not provided by either GLM or MDM. Some are no longer functional as they do not have sufficient underground water, the groundwater is of poor quality, or because they are older than ten years. However, there is an indication from the GLM technician that a significant number of boreholes are still used when there are acute water shortages to augment supplies, and this is the case mostly in rural households on the periphery of Giyani town. The SWC member pointed out that borehole schemes at Siyandhani are not always functional due to theft of borehole pumps and vandalism. The SWC member further pointed out that community members are encouraged to report the theft of borehole equipment. This initiative has yielded positive results as people involved in the theft of water pumps were identified and reported to the South Africa Police Service (SAPS).

The water situation in the villages is in stark contrast between the urban townships and Giyani town where water supply is rarely interrupted. There are probably many reasons for this,

including the fact that households in the townships and businesses in the Giyani Central Business District pay for the water. There is no evidence from the GLM technician that suggest households within these areas use either rivers or streams as their water sources. Another factor is that a substantial number of households in the townships have drilled their own boreholes. This assumes a considerable level of investment by individual households in the townships. According to GLM technician, there are few households in rural areas who have boreholes due to the high costs of drilling boreholes.

4.2.2 Water supply

According to the GLM and MDM respondents, only 11.26% of households in the GLM have access to water piped water supply inside their dwelling. These households are mainly found in the townships where all households have water connections in their dwellings. Although there is no specific number provided regarding the number of households that have water connections at Siyandhani and other villages in the GLM, all interviewees, including the SWC member pointed out that there are some households that have water connections in their dwellings. The interviewees pointed out that it is difficult to ascertain the number of these households in areas like Siyandhani as there are no water meters installed for rural households, which makes it difficult to determine the number of households served with water. This is due to the fact that the municipality does not make or recognise household water connections in rural areas. Individual households connect to the main water supply pipeline to their dwellings illegally.

Although the GLM Ward Water and Sanitation (2012) policy allows households in rural areas to connect water from the main pipeline provided the matter is reported directly to the municipality or ward councillor, all interviewees pointed out that water connections to rural households where there are bulk pipelines nearby or main reticulation pipes to communal standpipes remain illegal as long as they are not reported, which is the case with the majority of households in these areas. This challenge is further highlighted in the LNW action plan. All respondents (GLM and MDM technicians, SWC member and LNW official) acknowledged that unauthorised connections are primarily to blame for water losses, water interruptions and damages to the main water supply pipeline, including the reticulation pipes that mostly feed to the communal pipes. According to the GLM and MDM technicians, this becames costly to the municipality and eventually leads to the closure of the main water supply pipeline for repairs. The GLM and MDM technicians further pointed out that communities in rural areas are

reluctant to inform the municipality or the ward committee members regarding household connections as they do not want the municipality to install meters that will lead to payment of water usage. The MDM technician suggested that some of the problems related to cost recovery from rural households have affected the municipality's ability to purchase additional bulk water supplies from the LNW. The MDM technician pointed out that the GLM is characterised by many rural households in comparison to urban areas.

All four respondents pointed out that villages in the GLM have standard communal standpipes within 200m of their yards. However, the challenge is that water supply is not consistent and has many interruptions. According to the technicians, this is due to a combination of various interconnected factors that include the availability of water resources, the capacity of water reservoirs, operations and maintenance, unauthorised connections, frequent pipe bursts. The MDM technician pointed out that although water interruptions are also experienced in the townships, rural areas are most affected in terms of water interruptions in comparison to urban areas. However, the SWC member argued that the municipality does not prioritise people in rural areas when it comes to water delivery simply because they are poor and cannot afford to pay for water bills. He complained: *right now, there is not a single drop of water in this pipe, but go to the location [the township] and things are different. There is water in all households there while the whole village here does not have water. What do you call that? We are not better than them.*

The availability and sustainability of a constant water supply is a challenge at Siyandhani village. The MDM and GLM technicians pointed out that where there are regular water supply interruptions in the village which lead to the municipality using tankers to improve water shortages. However, both agreed that the water tank supplies are not commensurate with demands of all households at a given time in all villages due to shortages of water tank delivery trucks. Notwithstanding the challenges of water sources availability, distribution of water using water tankers further highlight that rural areas in the GLM do not have sufficient water infrastructure. According to the SWC member, the supply of water using water tankers usually takes place at least twice a week, particularly at newly established settlements of Siyandhani where there are no standpipes.

4.2.3 Water Infrastructure, Operations and Maintenance

Both technicians stated that the existing water supply infrastructure network in GLM is inadequate to meet the water supply demands of the growing population and businesses in the

area. Most of the existing network of water supply infrastructure was installed by the Gazankulu homeland authorities before the incorporation of homeland into the Limpopo province in 1994. This infrastructure is mostly located in the town of Giyani and townships where every household and businesses have access to water supply. The municipality mainly serves rural areas through communal pipes.

All respondents pointed to the corruption in the MDM involved in the Nandoni to Giyani pipeline project that was meant to enhance chronic water shortages in the GLM area. According to both technicians, the Nandoni to Giyani pipeline project was commissioned by the MDM. However, the project was stalled due to court litigations involving corrupt practices in the appointment of service providers by the MDM. The matter was eventually resolved by the Gauteng High Court which made adverse findings against MDM and the Supreme Court of Appeal which ordered that DWS take over the Nandoni to Giyani pipeline project from the MDM. This resulted in the DWS to comply with the Court Order and intervened by appointing LNW to be the implementing agent of the project. Currently, the project is underway and is earmarked for completion in 2018. Below are pictures of the Nandoni to Giyani pipelines that stalled due to allegations of corruption at the MDM.

. Picture 1: Nandoni to GLM project- Construction stopped due to litigation



Picture 2: Nandoni to Giyani pipeline project: some of the pipes awaiting installation. The lengths of delays due to court litigation are evident as trees have grown in between the pipes.



The stalling of Nandoni to Giyani water project in the GLM impacted due to corruption negatively on the provision of critical water infrastructure and exacerbated water shortages particularly for rural communities that remain unserved. This has also led to water-borne disease outbreak and water contamination that forced the closure of the Khensani hospital. This was highlighted by Ratau (2017), who pointed out that "the delays in the completion of the Nandoni to Giyani water project led to an outbreak of water-borne diseases as well as water contamination which saw babies and the elderly dying due to the closure of some wards at the Khensani Hospital as a result of a lack of water". The GLM technician also referred to the Nandoni to Giyani project as a major cause of health challenges in the Khensani hospital as there were no alternative water sources for the hospital. The SWC member further indicated that Siyandhani area was largely affected by the stalling of the Nandoni to Giyani water project as the village was intended to improve water supplies and benefit more households.

Another key factor raised by the technicians is that constant and sustainable water supply in the GLM is also hindered by dilapidated pipe network which is mainly made of old asbestos and gradually burst more often. According to the technicians, According to the technicians, the erratic water supply and shortages is also due to the ageing water supply infrastructure network. They indicated for the municipality to overcome these challenges, all stakeholders need to

support the municipality through additional funding and the appointment of competent officials or service providers to identify and replace old water infrastructure and increase both MDM and GLM capacity to ensure uninterrupted water supplies to all households. Both technicians indicated that MDM and GLM do not have enough water technicians to respond when required to immediate water crises, particularly in the rural areas. The MDM the technical department has a huge vacancy rate of thirty-three (33) water technicians and four (4) engineers in terms of the municipal organogram. Currently, the MDM has only twelve water technicians and twenty-six (26) general workers in the water department. Most of these general workers have been seconded to the municipality by DWS and have no technical capacity to deal with complex infrastructure repairs and maintenance. However, the water technicians in their municipalities undergo regular training and have the requisite capacity to undertake water infrastructure repairs. The MDM has only one engineer who is the Director for Technical Services.

According to the GLM technician, the municipality has a vacancy rate of 58% in the water department in terms of the organogram. Currently, only 15 technician positions are filled. In a situation where there are complex challenges to water supply situations, GLM relies on the assistance from the MDM (who themselves are lacking capacity). The GLM technician remarked that it takes two days to attend to water-related interruptions in villages compared to the town of Giyani and the surrounding townships. However, this was disputed by the SWC member. The SWC member pointed out that in many instances, *"it takes the municipality about twelve (12) days to attend to water interruption at Siyandhani"*. He *"does not understand why the municipality takes this long after the case is reported".* This leaves the community vulnerable and they have to rely on alternative water sources such as buying water from vendors and river sources.

This leaves the community vulnerable to water supplies and reliance on alternative water sources such as buying water from vendors and river sources. The SWC member also commented that *"the supply of water through tankers is not sufficient to cover the all households on a daily basis whenever there are emergency water shortages",* and he *"does not understand why the municipality takes this long after the case is reported"*. The SWC member also commented that *"the supply of water through tankers is not sufficient to cover the all households on a daily basis whenever there are emergency water shortages".* This is borne out by the LNW official: "*bulk water supplies to MDM is not sufficient to supply all villages in the MDM primarily due to the expansion of settlements in both the urban and rural areas,*

availability of water sources, capacity and availability of water infrastructure, O&M of infrastructure".

4.2.4 Free Basic Water supply

According to the GLM technician, the municipality has an indigent policy in place, which provides six kilolitres of free basic water a month to indigent households with piped water. He notes:

> *"Our main challenge of determining the exact number of indigent households who receive free basic water on a regular basis in fact that most of these households are predominately located in rural areas where it is quite difficult to tell as there are no meters and potable water is supplied on periodic basis, usually two or three times in a week due to lack of infrastructure"*

The indigent policy is reviewed and tabled to the Council for approval every five years of Council term. Currently, GLM has 40 873 registered indigent households. Some of these indigent households receive free basic water supplies from water tanks. The fact that GLM updates the indigent register once every five years suggests that there are likely to be many indigent households that do not receive free basic water supplies during this period. The GLM technician recommended that:

> *"Although rural areas characterised by constant water shortages the indigent register should be updated every financial year so that new indigents are added and also to assist in the motivation for additional FBS funding for indigent households by the national government".*

In terms of the FBW provision to Siyandhani, the SWC member said that the village usually receives running water supplies twice a week, while in other areas the municipality uses water tanks. People usually supplement their water demands by collecting water from the nearby Kheto Nxumalo Agricultural School, Mapuve Water Scheme (which is about seven kilometres from Siyandhani) or the Klein Letaba River (for households located within the proximity of the river) by using donkey carts, bicycles and other forms of transport. Other households buy water from vendors.

However, one of the major challenges pointed out by GLM technician is that poor households in rural areas tend not to register as indigent for free basic water supplies. This suggests that the municipality experiences some difficulties to plan and budget adequately for FBW supply projects for the benefit of indigent households that are not served. The municipality relies on

StatsSA to make a determination and to request funding for FBW supplies to indigent households. Both technicians pointed out that there is a significant mismatch between information sourced from StatsSA and the actual number of households on the ground primarily due to lack of up-to-date information. The MDM technician suggested that the problem was that: *"in reality, StatsSA deals with estimations after a long period of time while households keep on increasing drastically on annual basis*. As a result, this causes further problems for the municipality: "this *is problematic for us as we are under-funded for FBS. As a result, the municipal budget is constrained as we are required by legislation to ensure that all indigent households receive FBW"*.

4.2.5 The Back to Basics Programme implementation

According to the technicians, both GLM and MDM have implemented the B2B programme in line with the national directive. The GLM has developed B2B Action Plan which was approved by Council in 2014, indicating challenges in relation to service delivery. MDM has also developed a B2B Action Plan based on the assessment of water-related challenges. According to the MDM technician, the municipality's diagnostic assessment was informed by the existing water supply challenges in the GLM. As a regional bulk water supply to MDM, the LNW developed the B2B sector support plan for the MDM. Although there were no interviews conducted with DWS official, the department supports the B2B programme in the GLM by providing funding for water projects to LNW and through other interventions. This is evident in the intervention by DWS in the Giyani-Nadoni water project where DWS appointed to implement the project, including the commissioning of LNW on the refurbishment of Giyani WWT as well as the development of the Khensani Hospital water infrastructure. Both municipalities and LNW developed the B2B action plans in-house undertaken by their respective technical departments.

There were various opinions among the municipal technicians and the LNW official on the question of whether they thought the B2B was the most appropriate programme to address water challenges and facilitate decent water supply to rural households. The MDM technician pointed out that budget allocations and continuous capacitating of water technicians at the municipal level should inform the basis of municipal support programme such the B2B. The GLM technician said that:

"in case of GLM, the B2B programme is doomed to fail as long as it is not backed up by additional funds and the appointment of competent personnel to develop the necessary water infrastructure required especially in largely rural municipalities such as GLM that do not generate additional revenue to roll-out water service projects. GLM relies mainly on MDM which has limited capacity and resources to address water challenges to all its local municipalities. The Municipal Infrastructure Grant is simply not sufficient given the huge water backlogs that increase on annual basis. It's a moving target as population increases, and the sooner the B2B support programme recognize this fact and allocate sufficient resources and skilled personnel we will always report similar problems faced by dysfunctional municipalities. Personally, I have reservations about the success of the B2B programme based on these challenges".

The MDM technician said that:

"the Municipal Infrastructure Support Agency of South Africa (MISA) has engineers who are based in the Head Office and do not have a clue what is happening at the municipality level. These engineers must be deployed at the municipalities to assist with water-related matters. As I speak, our municipality has only one engineer who oversees the water provision challenges to all five municipalities. How do you expect one engineer to attend to all the problems affecting water supplies in the district? The national and provincial departments must also tap into the capacity of the Development Bank of Southern Africa to assist in the case of B2B programme".

The LNW official pointed out that:

"*Regions such as Mopani face serious challenges of water scarcity which has an impact on the allocation of bulk water supplies to the district. We need to invest more in alternative water resources available such as groundwater supplies to alleviate water shortages especially in rural communities living along the proximity of the Klein Letaba River. These areas have an advantage as groundwater is readily available. But municipalities are still largely dependent on bulk water sources supplied by dams and do not have tangible plans to utilize groundwater sources available by investing in boreholes to augment water supplies. This is a challenge as dams do not have the capacity to cover all areas in need of water*".

According to MDM technician, rural households in the GLM do not pay for water supply. This includes households who have a connection inside their dwellings. According to the GLM technician, water connections inside dwellings and inside yards are considered illegal connections as respective households have connected without prior approval from the municipality and there are no meters installed. As a result, these households are not billed for water usage. According to the SWC member, households with connections inside their dwellings do not report to the municipality or the Water Committee simply because they do not want to pay for water that is regularly interrupted. The MDM technician indicated that although water is not supplied on a regular basis to the villages, households that have unlawfully connected to the water supply pipes are also responsible for water wastages and this result in occasional water pipeline bursting, leading to water shortages in some areas.

One of the major sources of concern identified the three respondents (MDM, GLM, and LNW) is the lack of immediate support and interventions received from the national and provincial government in the implementation of the B2B programme. Both municipal technicians pointed out that their municipalities report on B2B implementation progress on a quarterly basis, however, there has been no tangible strategic support and interventions from other stakeholders such as the Municipal Infrastructure of South Africa (MISA), or the Presidential Coordinating Council (PCC). The LNW official observed that

> *"In many instances, DWS intervenes and prioritizes water-related problems when it is published in the media like the mostly publicized Nandoni to Giyani water project. This becomes problematic because municipalities need support and interventions based on their action plans, not projects that are media headlines. That is the only way we can all overcome the challenge of water supplies faced by our municipalities.*

The GLM technician added that *"it is a known fact that municipalities have a challenge of ageing water infrastructure, but to date, there is no coherent support plan to replace this infrastructure by the DWS".*

The GLM technician pointed out that the municipality is understaffed especially in key areas of engineering and technicians base on the organogram due to financial constraints. The GLM technician said that *"it is costly to appoint engineers, normally engineers would rather prefer to have their own consultancy firm than earn a municipal salary which is minimal. An engineer does not take long in the employ of the municipality and most instances we are unable to retain engineers as we are unable to pay huge salaries".*

In addition, there is also a lack of financial resources necessary to effectively implement water-related projects. Apart from the government grants such as Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) and Equitable Shares (ES), the municipality relies on the MDM for additional funding related to water supplies. However, the GLM respondent pointed out that apart from water, other basic services such as sanitation and electricity services, which are part of the service delivery pillar, the municipality has the financial and human capacity to achieve the B2B targets as these services do not require excessive resources for capital infrastructure development.

The MDM technician further pointed to the challenges regarding the SLA between MDM and GLM with regard to revenue collection arrangements. In terms of the SLA, as a WSP the GLM should collect revenue for water and utilize it for water-related services and pay MDM surplus in order to enable the district to continue the purchase of bulk water supply from LNW. However, this has not been the case as GLM utilizes collected water revenue for operations and maintenance. This has created financial difficulties for the MDM to purchase additional water resources to cover more households in the GLM. However, the GLM ensures that revenue generated from water allocations is paid to the MDM.

The MDM technician raised the question of who should actually implement the B2B programme between GLM and MDM. According to the technician, there is no clarity of roles regarding the implementation of the B2B programme between WSA and WSP. According to the technician, this creates budget constraints for the MDM as the WSA because it implies that the district will have to ensure that each of the local municipalities should receive an additional 7% of the MDM operations budget. The GLM technician suggested that the municipality does not have the budget for water projects as the district is responsible for water-related matters. This is one area that needs to be clarified by the national government.

One of the questions relates to the effectiveness of B2B as a municipal support programme in comparison to previous programmes. The GLM technician pointed out that it is too early to ascertain the effectiveness of B2B as it has been recently introduced, although the municipality develops quarterly and annual progress reports. According to the GLM technician, the success of B2B will be determined by the commitment of all key stakeholders and by prioritizing rural that do not have sufficient revenue base to receive more funding for water infrastructure

projects in order to reduce backlogs. In this case, B2B is not a funded mandate, but it requires the same financially stressed municipalities to set aside 7% of the capital budget for infrastructure development, and O&M. The GLM technician also pointed out that this had not been the case in the previous municipal support programmes. He further pointed out that the previous municipal support programmes failed to achieve their intended outcomes due to financial constraints and lack of capacity, hence the persisting challenges of huge service delivery backlogs faced by municipalities.

The MDM technician pointed out that the B2B programme is gradually showing its effectiveness, although at a limited scale. However, the technician further opined that the government should carefully assess the previous municipal support programmes and identify areas of success and failure first: *What are the lessons learned from the previous support programmes? Were they successful? No, they were not. What are the best practices? Questions of this nature should be asked before introducing any other programme because you cannot just introduce an ill-advised programme for compliance with statutory directives. It's malicious compliance. For me, B2B is not necessarily a municipal support programme, but rather a national policy directive and expectation that municipalities must ensure that all households are served with at least a basic level of service. The support aspect of B2B is very inadequate and this is one factor that leads to the failure of these programmes. If I can say the B2B programme is effective, then it is very minimal.*

The LNW official felt that B2B programme is gradually showing signs of effectiveness in the GLM, citing the interventions in the water projects through the DWS. He said:

> *"you have to look at the plan, look at where we come from, and look at what we have achieved in the short space of time. For us, the fact that there are more villages in the GLM receiving basic water supplies is a significant achievement. We have taken over the implementation of the Nandoni to Giyani water project and there is remarkable progress to date. Just imagine how many rural households will benefit from this project. We just have to keep the momentum in ensuring the provision of water infrastructure. But just to caution, the successes of B2B programme will also be determined by the availability of water. But it will be unfair for me to compare the B2B programme with the previous municipal support programmes as I do not have information about these programmes".* This implies that for B2B to be effective, it should find expression in the municipal IDP.

Another question relates to B2B programme and municipal planning. According to the GLM technician, B2B is not included in the municipal IDP. The GLM technician indicated that the B2B should not be a separate programme as it is now, and it should be incorporated in the IDP as this will assist the municipality to source funds where necessary, budget accordingly, and also be able to channel the available funds to the needy areas in terms of the water provision. The MDM technician also pointed out that it is imperative that the B2B programme is assimilated into to the municipal planning system in order to avoid replication of functions. The MDM further pointed out that at its current form, the B2B is viewed as an outside programme and there is less commitment to it than municipal IDP. He also pointed out that the municipality's service delivery priorities are driven by the IDP that have been approved by the municipal Council that all municipal officials commit to attaining (i.e. as part of the representative democratic processes). The LNW official also agreed that the IDP is key to service delivery at the local level and that any other municipal support programme should be part of the IDP.

In terms of the intergovernmental coordination, all the three institutions researched acknowledged that the B2B programme has shown remarkable signs of the functionality of the IGR structures particularly on the formulation of action plans. According to LNW official, the institutional B2B support plan was mainly informed by the MDM action plan. Through coordination with the DWS and MDM, the LNW is able to implement water delivery projects in the GLM. The MDM technician pointed out that it should be noted that the nature of water services delivery in South Africa is the responsibility of various actors, as a result, it is important to ensure that all greater coordination among all role players is exercised.

According to MDM, the B2B programme planning and implementation require that all stakeholders play their part in ensuring that both the district and GLM communities receive sustainable water supplies. According to the GLM technician, although the municipality acknowledges the role of IGR structures in the B2B programme, there is minimum commitment to achieve improve water services delivery by other sectors. This is due to the fact that the municipality still experiences huge water services backlog in rural areas. The GLM technician also pointed out that in many instances, water projects in the GLM are implemented without consulting the local municipality. He further pointed out that this is due to the role of

the municipality as a WSP on behalf of the MDM and as a result, key sectors like DWS and LNW do not feel obliged to consult the local municipality on water-related matters.

All three institutions pointed out that the inter-governmental support for the B2B programme will not necessarily be able to achieve its intended objective of universal basic water supplies as envisaged unless the programme received funding for the implementation of water infrastructure projects, training, and appointment of skilled technicians and engineers.

4.3 Analysis of findings and discussions

It has emerged in this study that basic water supplies in the GLM are affected by a combination of interrelated factors that account for chronic water shortages in rural areas. These factors are fundamental in the determination of success or failure of municipalities' B2B programme to meet basic water service delivery targets by extending sustainable basic water supplies to rural communities. Drawing on the GLM experience, these factors include:

4.3.1 Insufficient water sources

One of the common challenges for rural water supplies in the GLM is generally attributed to the lack of potable water sources. Water scarcity is one of the factors. The GLM relies on water supplies primarily from the Middle Letaba and Nsami dams. The water allocation received from the MDM is not sufficient to meet the water needs across all rural areas at the same time. This is due to the incapacity of infrastructure to cater to all households in the GLM area. The water supply infrastructure was developed during the homeland system and was only designed to provide water services to the town of Giyani and the surrounding townships. Due to population growth coupled with the inability to develop new infrastructure, the municipality introduced periodic water supplies to rural communities in order to ensure that all households receive at least minimum water services delivery. In areas where there is no water supplies, the municipality supply households using water tankers.

In some areas, boreholes are used as water sources for rural communities. However, investment in groundwater boreholes in the GLM has not been fully considered or exploited by the municipality as an alternative water source that can alleviate chronic water shortages in rural areas. This is due to the fact that the GLM has for many years relied on the surface water sourced from the Klein Letaba River for water supplies. However, proponents (including the MDM technician) have pointed out that sustainable groundwater development is fundamental

in order to provide universal access to safe drinking water (RWSN, 2010). (Mutamba, 2015) argues that groundwater is more appropriate in rural settings than surface water because it can be easily developed closer to homesteads; it is generally of an acceptable quality with low contamination risk; it is relatively cheap to develop; is more reliable and drought-proof compared to surface water and it is less susceptible to seasonal and perennial fluctuations. As GLM is largely rural and facing challenges of basic water supplies to communities in these areas, investing in rural groundwater supply schemes will have positive attributes in improving basic water supplies.

In areas where groundwater borehole schemes are used, GLM regularly provides diesel for boreholes in terms of the standing SLA agreement with MDM. However, according to the SWC member and the technicians, the municipality experience challenges with theft of borehole pumps and vandalism. The Municipal Systems Act mandates municipalities to develop a culture of municipal governance that complements formal representative government with a system of participatory governance (MSA, 2000). As such, the municipality has engaged in various public awareness campaigns regarding the necessity of protecting borehole water schemes from theft and vandalism. This practice should also instil a sense of ownership and awareness in terms of the necessity of service delivery infrastructure. The SWC has engaged more directly with the SAPS around this issue. The municipality was mainly informed of the engagements by the SWC member.

4.3.2 B2B and IDP/Budget: Planning Implications

The IDP is a key strategic plan which guides all the actions of the municipality. One key question is on the linkage of B2B to the IDP. Although the B2B concept document makes reference to a number of municipal plans (i.e. procurement plans, financial and recovery plans, community engagement plan, fundable consolidated plan, ward level service plan, Disaster Management Plan) it does not provide guidance on how B2B should be assimilated to the municipal IDP. From the interview findings, it is clear that municipalities view B2B as a separate programme to the IDP. The respondents have pointed to the necessity of incorporating the B2B to the municipal IDP so that B2B can be properly planned and budgeted for in line with the IDP process. The respondents regard the IDP as a key municipal planning tool that guides the development needs of the municipality. This problem is further compounded by the fact that municipalities are required to report separately on a quarterly basis regarding progress on the B2B implementation as well as compiling quarterly progress reports in terms of their SDBIP targets, which are aligned to the IDP. In terms of reporting against both the IDP and

B2B progress, each municipal department is expected to compile separate reports, which are not related and submit to the PMS Manager for consolidation. This involves all municipal officials within their respective departments to report in terms of their quarterly plans. This is an IGR matter, especially as B2B is regarded more like a top-down national programme, whereas the IDP is locally-owned and Council-approved

This poses challenges regarding the planning and implementation of B2B by the municipalities. As a result, municipalities find it difficult to implement B2B priorities as the programme is not necessarily informed by the municipal IDP. It is clear that non-inclusion of B2B in the municipal planning system and the subsequent separate reporting systems is problematic to the municipalities. Afesis (2015) observed that "B2B is incomplete and ill-targeted if it fails to guide planning and resource allocation in local municipalities through the IDP. The GLM respondent has also suggested that the municipality officials regard the B2B as a separate mandate outside of the formal planning structures of the municipality". As a result, commitment to the attainment of the B2B priorities could be compromised.

Afesis (2015) has recommended that IDP can be regarded as the core document with other plans feeding in and out. As such, B2B plans could serve as an integral part of the numerous plans that constitute the municipal IDP. One of the fundamental challenges is that B2B is not necessarily a funded mandate, which implies that B2B targets set by municipalities might not necessarily be achieved due to lack of funding. As a result, it is recommended that B2B Action Plan should find expression and integrated within the municipal IDP and budget allocation as the other numerous plans that form part of the IDP. This need to be clearly articulated and guidelines be developed in the B2B policy document.

4.3.3 Limited availability of water infrastructure, operations and maintenance

The water technicians raised concerns about extending water supplies to rural areas given the lack of sufficient water infrastructure, and operation and maintenance (O&M) of water distribution systems. Their concerns were confirmed in the desktop review that highlighted key challenges concerning water infrastructure development. For instance, the MDM (2015) highlighted that water infrastructure in the GLM experiences constant bursts as the dilapidated infrastructure has exceeded its lifespan and has become difficult to operate and maintain. This is further compounded by technical capacity constraints within the municipality. As a result, water infrastructure is not operated sustainably and maintained accordingly in order to function

without continuous disruptions. These constraints indicate that the GLM experiences difficulties in ensuring sustainable and reliable water supplies to rural communities, and water supplies are below RDP level (25 litres per person per day) due to a shortage of pipelines to villages (MDM, 2015).

The GLM technician suggested that the root problem in relation to rural water infrastructure is inadequate funding, recruitment and continuous training of skilled personnel for O&M of infrastructure and making resources available for the purchase of repair parts in a manner that will provide reliable water services. As a result, communities in rural areas continue to experience water shortages due to continuous infrastructure failures. Adequate infrastructure funding, or lack of, is directly linked to the ability of municipalities to raise additional sources of funding for the development of new water infrastructure and being able to operate and maintain them for consistent water supplies.

According to Infrastructure Dialogues (2015, p4) "local government in rural areas struggle to secure funding and generate revenue as there are limited industrial customers, and most of their household customers are poor and do not have the ability to pay for water". These problems are systematic and widespread among rural municipalities. Although the B2B policy document prescribes that 7% of the municipal budget be dedicated to O&M, dysfunctional municipalities by their nature have dysfunctional systems so are unlikely to manage these imperatives without adequate support provincial and national government. Hence, the B2B programme does not provide additional funding to municipalities for water infrastructure development, or O&M. Where there is water infrastructure in place, O&M of the existing water infrastructure is not adequately carried out in order to ensure optimal functioning.

4.3.4 Municipal water policies

In considering the findings of this study, one can argue that the adoption of neoliberal policies and the subsequent commodification of water resources has hindered sustainable water supplies to poor rural communities. It is clear that the municipality there is no equitable distribution of water resources among communities in the surrounding townships, including the town of Giyani and more the poor rural communities. As cost recovery for water distribution in rural areas is highly unlikely, these areas are not prioritised for water provision and water infrastructure development. The implementation of FBW policy at the local government level

Bond (2014) observed that "instead of making more substantial investments in water infrastructure, offering more subsidies for operating and maintenance, in 1994 the national government turned to an explicitly neoliberal strategy to many basic needs including water, sanitation and electricity with adverse implications" (p. 4). In the context of GLM, this approach led to the decline of existing water infrastructure and the government's reluctance to provide new water infrastructure that would roll-out water services to poor communities who find it difficult to pay for water services. The case of the GLM clearly demonstrates policy contradictions that characterize neoliberal policy reforms to the commercialization of water services in a society dominated by the poor majority in contrast to universal basic services provision policy. The SWC member has demonstrated the impact of neoliberal water reforms to water management when he highlighted that water sustainable water supplies is prioritized in favour of township residents who can afford to pay. This suggests that the needs of the poor are not taken into account by the authorities as they cannot afford to pay for water services and undermines people's constitutional right to access to water.

4.3.5 Institutional Arrangements

The Department of Water and Sanitation is the overall custodian of water resources and ultimately responsible for regulation and water policy formulation and implementation in the water provision value chain. The DWS's primary responsibility is to ensure that water resources are protected, managed, controlled and distributed in a sustainable and equitable manner to the benefit of all. The Water Services Act generally provides four different institutions in the water management and supply to the end-user.

The LNW provides the bulk of water supply to MDM. According to Pressend (2011), these water boards were established on the understanding that the pricing of water was not to yield profit, but was calculated to cover costs only. However, this is no longer the case as water boards currently also consider making a profit from the bulk water sales to WSAs. The MDM as a WSA finds it difficult to buy sufficient bulk water from the LNW as the district municipality is unable to recover operational costs from the GLM as most households are unable to pay. Muller, 1994 (quoted in Schur, 1994) pointed out that at the regional level, Water Boards are restricted in their operations by requirements that their tariffs cover costs and that they supply local authorities rather than individual consumers.

With regard to the fact that each municipality should set aside 7% of its operating budget for the implementation of the B2B programme, the MDM technician pointed that this need to be clarified because the district municipality is the WSA and is responsible for the funding and implementation of water projects in all five local municipalities. This means that the district municipality will have to set aside an additional 35% water infrastructure projects in for all the five local municipalities. This will result in budget constraints for the district municipality and will impact negatively on other services such as sanitation which is the responsibility of the MDM. This creates further confusion because local municipalities such as GLM do not have the budget for water infrastructure projects as they are only WSP on behalf of the MDM.

The existing SLA agreement between MDM and GLM further complicates the nature of institutional arrangements between the two municipalities, particularly with respect to water service revenue collection and payment arrangements. As it has emerged in the interviews, MDM alleges that GLM has failed to honour the agreement with respect to the payment of water services revenue it collects on behalf of the district. On the one hand, the MDM technician pointed out that non-payment of water services by GLM to the MDM affects the district's ability to purchase additional bulk water to cover all households in the GLM. On the other hand, the GLM technician insists that revenue collected for water usage is paid to the MDM. However, the desktop review confirmed that all local municipalities within the MDM did not pay the district revenue collected for water services. This was highlighted in the 2014 Auditor-General's Management Report for MDM which confirmed that local municipalities within the MDM failed to honour water services payment agreement to the MDM.

Another problem that has been raised by the GLM technician is that the SLA compels the local municipality as a WSP to purchase diesel and spare parts to fix water infrastructure. According to the GLM technician, this is a challenge because the local municipality is not reimbursed by the MDM. As a result, the municipality seek to review the SLA. This suggests that there are some gaps in terms of the clarity of roles between MDM and GLM related to the SLA. Hoffman and Nkadimeng (2015) argue that a clear separation of roles between WSP and WSA will improve coordination which is necessary for operations management.

Critics have pointed out to the weakness of multi-agency involvement that results in poor water distribution to poor communities due to fragmented and poorly coordinated plans and implementation of water projects within joined-up government principles. For instance, the

GLM technician has pointed out that the local municipality was not consulted when DWS and LNW intervened and took over the Nandoni to Giyani water project. However, for this arrangement (i.e. joined-up approach to water services delivery) to function properly, it requires a commitment to a multi-pronged integrated process for planning, implementation and reporting among all stakeholders involved in the water supply value chain. According to Hoffman and Nkadimeng (2015), "in order for water operations to run optimally, it is therefore important for all stakeholders to understand these linkages". It is also equally important for role players within the joined-up government systems to ensure that consultation and coordination mechanisms for of all activities are effectively implemented as water supply involves various actors in South Africa. All role players in the water sector should recognize the important linkages between the following functions:

- The management of the bulk system,
- The management of the branch and local systems,
- The coordination, both horizontally and vertically,
- Regulatory and operations functions,
- Active multidisciplinary professional support service.

(Hoffman and Nkadimeng, 2015).

These functions are significant in order to ensure that all stakeholders in the water provision value chain are effectively involved and fulfil their responsibilities to deliver on the desired outcome.

4.3.6 Insufficient grants and funds allocation for improved water supply

According to the technicians, the available financing mechanisms to GLM water allocations are inadequate to roll-out the necessary water services infrastructure to all communities, particularly in rural areas where there is no leverage for cost recovery measures. Municipalities that have low revenue streams and comprise of mostly indigent households such as GLM largely depend on the Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) and Equitable Shares for the implementation of water services infrastructure development.

One of the key issues that emerged in this study is that the existing capital grants are insufficient. The MDM technician argued municipalities comprised largely of indigent households should be prioritized to receive additional funding for water services as these municipalities do not recover operation and maintenance related costs. This finding suggests

that municipalities that have financial constraints such as GLM find it difficult to sustain and extend water supplies to indigent communities that are not served as there are cost recovery problems resulting in limited revenue. As it has emerged in this study, the GLM only bill households and businesses in the town and townships where meters have been installed. This poses a challenge for municipalities to achieve basic water services delivery targets as envisaged in the B2B programme. This is one of the major constraints facing GLM to plan and implement rural water supplies, thereby leaving the municipality in a dysfunctional state.

4.4 Implications of poor water supplies to rural communities

Provision of inferior water supply on rural households that do not have access to general public services such as reliable water provision impacts negatively on the health, social and economic well–being of the communities. As it has been shown in the study, rural areas are mostly characterised by high incidences of poverty, hunger and disease, especially among the poor. However, it has emerged in this study, the government has not adequately prioritised the quest for water provision in rural areas due to their economic status and inability to pay for water services, leaving rural communities vulnerable to health-related challenges. This is evident in the case Nkhensani Hospital, as illustrated in this study where the health issues compelled the DWS to intervene by commissioning the LNW to undertake water supply project from the MDM due to capacity related matters and corrupt practices related to the appointment of private service providers. Furthermore, the rural nature of GLM, high levels of poverty and unemployment as revealed in the statistics suggests that the majority of poor households in rural areas depend on subsistence farming for their livelihood.

In view of the above, some of the key findings that respond to the research question and sub-questions are summarised in the table below.

Research questions	**Findings**
Research question: *To what extent has the implementation of the B2B programme addressed the long-standing challenges of facilitating water supply to Giyani LM, a rural municipality categorised as 'dysfunctional'?*	*B2B has achieved limited successes in facilitating universal water supplies to rural communities. Evidence shows that some rural households in the GLM still do not have access to basic water supplies.*

Sub-question 1: *How have the successive national government programmes attempted to reform municipal performance, and facilitate improved service delivery (especially water supply)?*	*Evidence shows that reform programmes implemented by municipalities have a bearing in the unequal distribution of water resources. Rural areas are often neglected in terms of water supplies as the municipality is unable to recover costs. Priority is given to urban areas.*
Sub-question 2*: What are the intentions of the B2B programme, and how does it relate to cooperative governance and municipal planning?*	*B2B aims to ensure that municipalities categorised as 'dysfunctional' are able to deliver adequate services to all communities. B2B is a programme implemented by all spheres of government at a local level in a cooperative manner as guided by the IGR framework. Municipal IDP is therefore central in giving effect to B2B Planning and implementation. However, evidence shows that B2B was not accorded appropriate planning platforms for municipalities to engage with sector departmental plans to adequately incorporate them into municipal IDPs and budget.*
Sub-question 3: *What are the challenges in supplying water to rural areas in GLM?*	*There are a number of interconnected factors in the GLM that result in the poor supply of water services to rural communities. These include lack of infrastructure, operations and maintenance; poor planning and coordination among key sectors; inadequate funding; clarification of roles between WSA and WSP; and lack of investment in alternative water sources.*
Sub-question 4: *How has the recent implementation of the B2B programme impacted upon rural water supply in GLM?*	*Evidence demonstrates that rural communities in the GLM still experience water shortages. Among some of the challenges identified in the study, this problem can also be attributed to corruption associated with the appointment of contractors in water-related projects that are aimed for improved water supply to rural areas.*

Sub-question 5: *Is the B2B programme an appropriate response to the existing water supply challenges facing 'dysfunctional' municipalities?*	*Although it has been pointed out that the findings in this study may not necessarily reflect challenges facing other municipalities, it is clear that in the context of the GLM the B2B programme fails to respond to existing water supply challenges.*

4.5 CONCLUSION

The findings in this study demonstrate that for the municipality B2B programme to achieve its priorities of universal basic water delivery to rural areas, a broad range of interrelated obstacles need to be addressed. These challenges represent key systemic issues underlying sustainable water supplies to indigent households in the GLM that comprise of largely rural areas:

(i) Lack of significant investment in alternative water sources such as groundwater where available to leverage water scarcity. Siyandhani village is located along the Letaba River. The existing borehole water supply schemes in the area are insufficient to provide reliable and water supplies to all households, while some are not fully functional due to O&M challenges. Although no specific scientific groundwater availability assessment report was obtained for this study, it is assumed that communities living within close proximity to rivers are more likely to have groundwater availability than that who are not. Siyandhani village is located along the Letaba River. As a result, investment in groundwater schemes is required to improve water supplies in those areas.

(ii) It has emerged in this study that GLM's existing water infrastructure is dilapidated and water pipes experience continuous bursts that result in water losses. Sustainable O&M of water services infrastructure is hampered by a lack of experienced technicians and unfilled positions in the technical department.

(iii) Although the IGR structures have been established, the functioning of these structure have produced minimal results in ensuring that GLM is supported to overcome water challenges. For instance, the intervention by both LNW and DWS has been largely influenced by the Court Order and the attention given to the Nandoni to Giyani project by the media, particularly on the fact that it posed health challenges. The IGR structures have also operated outside the municipal IDP with

regard to water projects in the GLM. According to DPLG, 2006), the concept of cooperative governance embraces the realisation that a single sphere of government cannot handle the responsibility of a developmental state…and that not one sphere can be successful without the successful performance of the other spheres" (DPLG, 2006). This is specifically important in the water distribution as the sector is comprised of various actors.

(iv) Poor planning, coordination and lack of support from other stakeholders in the water services value chain have also been identified in the study. It has emerged that although stakeholders in the water sector have committed to support the B2B initiatives, this is not always the case when it comes to interventions and support at the municipality level. This is evident in terms of the 2017 fourth quarter B2B progress report where rural water supply remains a huge backlog. In order to achieve its intended objectives, the B2B programmes should form part of the municipal planning systems.

(v) Insufficient funding for water services infrastructure remains a constraint as GLM is financially distressed. The municipality is unable to generate and allocate sufficient funds for water capital projects. Government grants such as MIG and ES are insufficient to ensure the roll-out for water supplies projects to all its communities. This problem is inherent to municipalities that are largely rural such as GLM as there is no sufficient revenue to cross-subsidize the poor in rural areas.

(vi) The study has highlighted some aspects that do not relate to the "good governance" principles. The corruption associated with water supply projects in the MDM proves that reform efforts along the good governance model do not necessarily produce the desired outcome. Although there are numerous anti-corruption mechanisms in municipalities, this has not deterred official to engage in corrupt practices. This problem can also be attributed to the introduction of NPM models which emphasizes the importance of outsourcing municipal water services to the private sector. The MDM case proves that corrupt practices usually occur between government officials and the private sector.

In the light of these challenges, coupled with the ineffectiveness and weaknesses of public sector reforms the B2B programme is not likely to achieve its goals. In comparison, B2B is qualitatively not different from the previous municipal support qualitatively. The fact that B2B does not find expression in the municipal IDP makes it difficult to implement as it is not prioritized in comparison to other programmes in the IDP. Although PMS is clearly stated in the B2B implementation, GLM finds it difficult to measure the performance of the programme on water provision as a WSP as the municipality key decision are made by MDM. Furthermore, PMS is not fully institutionalized and cascaded to all officials in the municipality. This implies that the municipality has limited mechanisms to monitor the implementation of the institutional plan (IDP) and measure the performance of its employees against planned targets.

In order to ensure that dysfunctional municipalities are able to deliver the universal and adequate level of water as envisage in the B2B approach, it is of fundamental importance to recognize and confront these range of challenges that are deeply entrenched in municipalities that are resource constrained viable such as GLM. As a result, prioritizing indigent households in terms of provision of additional funding for water infrastructure, improving intergovernmental planning and coordination and investment in other sources of water such as groundwater, which remain largely undeveloped in the GLM would provide solutions to these challenges and enables enable the municipality to supply universal basic water supplies to all communities in the GLM in line with the B2B water services delivery targets.

Furthermore, there are other key aspects that emerged in the study. The adoption of neoliberal policy reforms to water management in municipalities that comprise of largely indigent households has impacted negatively to the extension of water services and infrastructure to the poor as these households are unable to pay for water. This was exacerbated by corrupt practices in the tender processes. The implementation of NPM reforms has not necessarily yielded tangible outcomes instilling a culture of inefficiency, ineffectiveness and poor performance management in municipalities. Evidence shows that in the GLM for instance, planned water services delivery projects have been hindered by weak planning and coordination mechanisms, leading to failure in the delivery of water to rural communities. As a result, municipalities find it difficult to achieve the objects of DLG.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Concluding remarks

The thrust of this study is to ascertain the extent in which B2B implementation in the GLM has addressed the long-standing challenges of facilitating water supply to rural communities in a "dysfunctional" municipality, using the case study of the rural Siyandhani village. It is clear that municipal reforms and the accompanying support programmes that have been implemented since the formation of new local government structures in 2000 have not achieved satisfactory outcomes. There are still many households in rural communities who do not have access to basic services such as water distribution.

An examination of the case study reveals a number of challenges that have implications in the general performance of the municipality, particularly in the provision of water services. The study first considered the influences of public sector reform paradigms implemented in the post-apartheid South Africa The models of public sector management reforms considered in the study include "good- governance", the NPM, Joined-Up governance, and the Intergovernmental relations and coordination. The study revealed that although there is some notable progress in increasing water services to rural communities, there are still limits in relation to the successes of these public management reforms in influencing public policy and programme achievements. This led to the partial successes of local government support programmes initiated by the national government within the framework of cooperative governance. This has been demonstrated through the persisting and inherent challenges infrastructure provision and funding mechanisms for extending rural water supplies and infrastructure development for rural communities, the socio-economic status of rural communities, lack of operations and maintenance, and poor planning and coordination within the water sectors. These are some of the challenges that confront local government.

It is clear that earlier local government support programmes failed to take cognisance of the underlying service delivery problems that undermine service delivery initiatives, leading to a breakdown in service delivery, particularly in dysfunctional rural municipalities. This is demonstrated through the various successive local government support programmes. The assessment of the effectiveness of each local government support programme highlighted some worrying trends that led to the introduction of another programme, hence, the core challenges remained.

By means of privatization of public services and decentralization of government in line with the NPM principles as management reforms meant that government relinquishes its responsibility of providing public services to the markets. This has a negative impact in service delivery to the poor as water services is not duly extended to poor households who are unable to pay for services. The commodification of water has resulted in government reluctance expand water services infrastructure to alleviate water shortages in rural areas as the water authorities prioritised urban areas. Although the involvement of the various stakeholders in the water sector within the model of "joined-up" government has yielded positive outcomes in terms of the implementation of water projects, the study has on the other hand revealed that the level of commitment is inadequate, leading to poor coordination in planning and implementation of water projects. This suggests that these successive municipal support programmes that accompanied the radical management reforms were not able to deal effectively with service delivery challenges.

The intentions of the B2B programme are to ensure that all dysfunctional municipalities are able to provide at least basic services to all their residents. As a point of comparative consideration, data revealed that by implication the B2B programme has not been able to effectively turn-around GLM from a dysfunctional state as evidence show that rural communities still experience chronic water shortages. Evidence also suggest that B2B programme is not integrated within the municipal planning systems. As a result, B2B is viewed as an "outside" programme and municipal officials tend to focus more on the delivery of IDP priorities. The B2B programme emphasises the role and collaboration of all three spheres of government. In the context of the GLM, all water sectors were involved in developing support plans. Evidence, however suggests that the GLM does not receive the necessary support to ensure that all rural areas have access to water supply. As water distribution involve various actors, greater emphasis should be placed on strengthening the IGR forum and improve coordination among key sectors. In terms of the AP, GLM has not achieved its planned B2B annual targets for water provision to all rural households, although some of the rural areas have benefited through the implementation various water projects.

The evidence shows that the B2B is not an appropriate response to the existing water supply challenges facing some of the 'dysfunctional'. For B2B to respond to the existing challenges facing dysfunctional municipalities, the programme needs to be adequately funded for water infrastructure development in rural areas rather than relying on the 7% of the municipalities'

operation budget. Dysfunctional municipalities such as GLM are too financially distressed to implement water projects for the benefit of all rural communities. GLM is not a WSA, and as a result there is a need to clarify the roles of WSP and WSA in the implementation of B2B programme.

5.2 Recommendations

Having examined the B2B programme in the GLM the study has pointed out to various shortcomings in achieving basic water services delivery to all households, including those in rural areas. In order for the municipalities to achieve high success in the supply of universal basic water targets through the implementation of B2B programme, the study recommends the following (some of the recommendations are interrelated to the findings discussed above).

i) *Investment in rural ground water schemes:* it is recommended that a significant proportion of municipal budget allocated for water provision be ring-fenced for the roll-out of rural underground water schemes development as an alternative to alleviate chronic water shortages since the conventional water supply projects have proven to be too expensive for rural municipalities such as GLM. This can be achieved through improved commitment among the various stakeholders to support and prioritise and accelerate investment in the development of ground water projects. This should be informed by technical assessment on the availability of sustainable underground water among the rural communities.

   Mutamba (2015) pointed out that rural focused groundwater supply programmes are an important and commendable initiatives capable of providing redress to the inequalities of the past and respite to the rural poor who in most instances have never had the privilege to access clean drinking water. The process of groundwater development should also involve and capacitate municipal water technicians in critical areas such as planning, technical and engineering skills to enable them to operate these water facilities in a sustainable manner.

ii) *Introduction of Special Grant for new rural water infrastructure, O&M:* adequate budget allocation is key to the implementation of rural water projects. Currently government allocates the MIG for capital spending on water related assets and equitable shares for municipal basic services infrastructure development. However, it is evident that the funding model is inadequate for rural municipalities given the complexities and dynamics related to rural water supplies on the ground. This problem is exacerbated by municipalities' limited internal sources of revenue to complement the government grants. GLM is one such municipality that experience financial constraints to implement water related capital projects.

In addition to the MIG and ES, the special grant should allocation should be specifically for the implementation of basic water supply projects, operations and maintenance. In order to ensure tangible outcomes, the special grant to dysfunctional rural municipalities should be informed by a comprehensive assessment plan for infrastructure requirements and long term O&M plan for sustainable functioning of the water infrastructure.

iii) *Establishment of water inter-sector work-stream:* The work-stream should be constituted by representatives from all stakeholders. The role of inter-sector work-stream is to plan, monitor and oversee the implementation of interventions related to water delivery projects. Furthermore, the work-stream should also ensure that there is availability of municipal support packages, leveraging of necessary resources and unblock any administration challenges faced municipality. IGR structures need to be strengthened to improve coordination efforts through joint planning and implementation of water projects. Dysfunctional municipalities as such GLM require a renewed collective commitment, continuous support and capacity building in order to progress to an ideal or functional municipality as envisaged in the B2B programme.

iv) *Introduce an alternative equitable and participatory model of local government support:* the current municipal support models programmes that have been implemented do not take into consideration the water needs of poor communities. Municipal water services tend to be more focused on urban areas. In order for the municipal support programmes to be responsive to challenges of water delivery,

there is a need to introduce new model that will ensure inclusive and equal access to water services allocation by all communities, particularly for communities which are characterised by huge backlogs.

Equal distribution of water resources is important in that it will support economic growth, development and poverty alleviation in rural areas. This will unlock economic opportunities for rural people to participate in the mainstream economic activities, while addressing the ultimate constraints of inequality, poverty and unemployment for rural communities. Economic development is a key factor to achieve the objects of a developmental local government. In order to be effective this, alternative model should be underpinned by participation of rural communities in determining their water needs. It should also be an integral part of the planning systems and be integrated in the municipal IDP and allow for necessary budget allocation.

Furthermore, in consideration of new strategies to local government support it is important to identify dysfunctional municipalities that will receive targeted support through realistic and practical recovery plans and ensure that all water sector stakeholders concretize key areas that require interventions through a collaborative approach towards improving water services to all communities.

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