

# TUTDoR

## **E-government in enhancing good governance in local government: The case of City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.**

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**E-GOVERNANCE IN ENHANCING GOOD GOVERNANCE IN LOCAL  
GOVERNMENT: THE CASE OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN  
MUNICIPALITY**

by

**MALEKA MOGOTSI CAIPHUS**

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

**DOCTOR OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS**

In the

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FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

**TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

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2020

Declaration

I, Mogotsi Caiphus Maleka, student number 206198621, declare that this thesis entitled “*E-governance in enhancing good governance in local government: The case of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality*” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....

Signature

Maleka M.C.

.....

Date

## **Dedication**

This study is dedicated to my late father, Motshosi Paulos Maleka who departed this earth on the 7<sup>th</sup> November 2016. This thesis is for you, Dad. Often they would say “time heals all wounds”. This is not the case with me as you left an indelible void that can never be refilled. I appreciate all the sacrifices you made so that I can have a better future.

Although you are no longer physically present in my life, I still feel your impact every day. In you, I learnt love, tolerance, humility, respect and commitment. These are the values that I cherish and nurture me to be the better man I am today. As you look down from heaven, I have no doubt that you are proud of your son. May your soul continue to rest in peace.

To my son Bokang Kabo-Entle Maleka, you epitomise a precious gift. My love for you equals to none. I hope this thesis will inspire confidence in you that everything is possible once you put your mind to it. You will always have my love and indefatigable support.

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Oreneile, Olerato and Katlego, this should serve as a motivation that anything is possible once you put your mind to it. As Frantz Fanon asserted “each generation must, out of relative obscurity, discover its mission, fulfil it, or betray it”.

## **Abstract**

Local government could be regarded as the sphere closest to the people. Essentially this sphere has been given a Constitutional mandate to ensure the provision of services, promote democracy and accountability and encourage community participation in matters of local governance, among others.

In this regard, the advent of information and communications technologies (ICT) fundamentally changed the manner in which government conducts its business. As a result, the researcher asserts that ICT could be perceived as an enabler or a tool to ensure the effective fulfilment of the developmental mandate of local government, hence e-government, e-governance and e-democracy.

This research takes place within the context of local government with a particular interest in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM) in South Africa. The objectives of the study are mainly to assess the state of e-governance, effectiveness of e-services, the effectiveness of e-participation and to assess if e-governance enhances good governance in the CTMM. These objectives are driven by the notion that local governance is changing from the role of providing traditional services to addressing past inequalities, promoting sustainable development and deepening democracy through public participation, thus it has a developmental mandate. As a result, local government has to change the way it has always done things (Gamedze, 2001:5).

This study employed a mixed method research approach as a method of systematic inquiry. In this regard, qualitative and quantitative research methods for data collection and analysis were employed. The primary data collection of this study is informed by a survey that was conducted focusing on the residents of the City of Tshwane. The sample population of the study reflects three regions of the City of Tshwane. The variables such as the peri-urban, low and high-density population were taken into cognisance in the data collection process. The secondary data comprised of an extensive literature review and sources are acknowledged accordingly. Importantly, the quantitative data was analysed through the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS), while the qualitative data was analysed through a contents analysis method.

In accordance with the research findings, the researcher deduced that although an e-governance strategy in the City of Tshwane was adopted in 2013, its adoption and implementation by the residents is arguably of a low level. The evidence indicates that the majority of the research participants are oblivious of e-governance and its intended objectives.

The study makes a fundamental contribution to the body of knowledge by proposing a model that the CTMM may consider to ensure that e-governance indeed enhances good governance. This contribution to the body of knowledge is essential to aid the municipality to improve on its e-governance strategy. Through the proposed model, a culture of digital technology could indoctrinate a culture of digital governance. As a result, the benefits of the e-governance strategy and principles of good governance in the City of Tshwane could be realised optimally.

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## Acronyms

APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
AU	African Union
CTMM	City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality
DB	Demarcation Board
e-	Electronic
e-MIS	Electronic Management Information System
FRIC	Faculty Research and Innovation Committee
G2B	Government and business
G2C	Government and citizens
G2E	Government to employees
G2G	Government to government
ICT	Information and communication technologies
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMST	Information management, system and technology
IPEP	Independent Panel of Eminent Persons
LAN	Local Area Networks
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDM	Metsweding District Municipality
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NPM	New Public Management
OAU	Organisation for African Unity

POSDCORB Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting

SALGA South African Local Government Association

SITA State Information Technology Agency

UN United Nations

WB World Bank

WSIS World Summit for Information Society

### Publications from thesis

Maleka, M.C. 2016. Strengthening local government: An application of e-governance. *Journal of Public Administration*, 51(1), 165-174.

Maleka, M.C. 2017. Good governance in local government: A South African perspective. Global Business and Technology Association, Vienna, Austria ISBN: 1-932917-13-6

Maleka, M.C. 2018. E-governance and good governance in local government: A case of the City of Tshwane Municipality in South Africa, Academy for World Business, Marketing and Management Development Conference, Athens, Greece.

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

### 1.1 Introduction

The structure of South African government is comprised of the three spheres of government. Local government is regarded as the sphere closest to its constituencies. It is in this sphere of government that sound provision of basic services is expected. The citizens, as customers of public services, anticipate that local government would be an agent of change, thus enhancing their livelihood.

Conversely, the information age, characterised by the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs), is changing society and the way governments can best meet societal challenges. The traditional methodology of interacting with communities could be perceived as too rigid. Therefore, many people opt to go online and not stand in line for their public services.

This study focuses on e-governance and good governance in local government. The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM) is the case study taken into consideration. E-governance is associated with the use of information and communication technologies by government to deliver effective and efficient services, information and knowledge, while good governance is characterised by participatory, consensus-oriented, transparency and accountability.

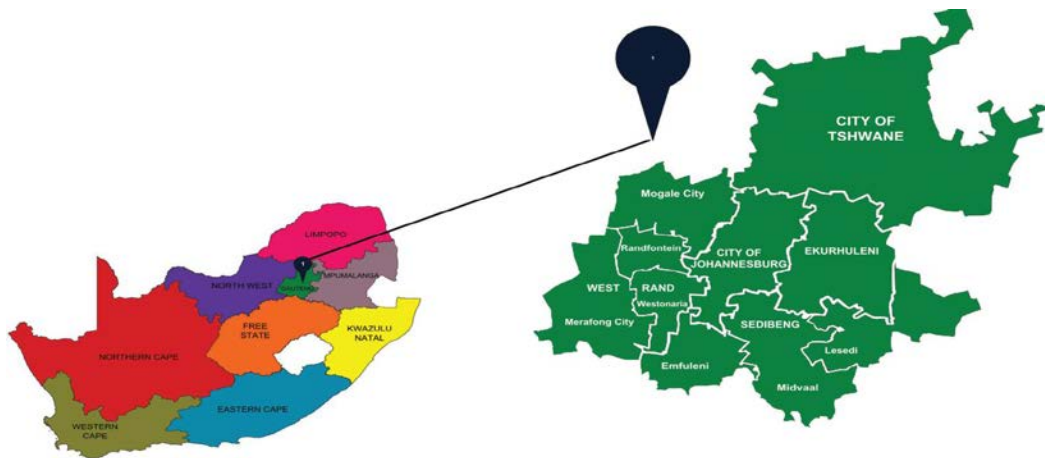
The literature indicates that the e-governance strategy in the CTMM was adopted in 2013. It is against this backdrop that the aims of this study are mainly to assess the state of e-governance, the effectiveness of e-services, the effectiveness of e-participation and, lastly, to assess whether e-governance enhances good governance in the CTMM. This study makes an important contribution to the body of knowledge by proposing a model that may be taken into cognisance by the City of Tshwane to ensure improvement in the use of information and communications technologies. This use of ICT could optimise the manner in which the City of Tshwane interacts and delivers its basic services as required by the developmental mandate of local government.

This chapter provides the background of the CTMM in South Africa. The chapter also provides a brief perspective of e-governance. Furthermore, the research problem, research question, research objectives and the outline of chapters of the study are presented.

## 1.2 Background of the study

Tshwane is strategically situated and is one of the most influential cities in the country. The City is located in Gauteng Province, the economic hub of the country. Within the province's boundaries three of the six metropolitan (Category A) municipalities of the country can be found.

The geographical area of the province is 19 055 square kilometres. Tshwane is the national capital of the Republic, with Johannesburg being the provincial capital of Gauteng province. Tshwane is the diplomatic capital with over 130 diplomatic missions and 26 international organisations represented in South Africa – second in numbers only to Washington DC (City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan Review, 2014-15:14). Figure 1.1 below depicts the Tshwane locality.



**Figure 1.1: City of Tshwane locality**

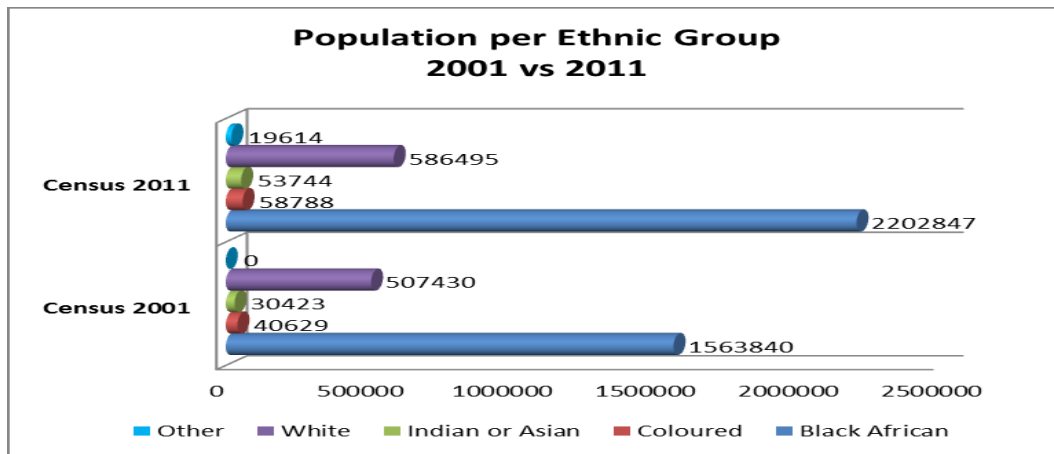
*Adapted from: City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan Review, 2014-15:14*

The CTMM was established in May 2000. In 2007, the Demarcation Board (DB) resolved that the boundaries of the City of Tshwane should be changed. This resulted in the incorporation of Metsweding District Municipality (MDM) into the City of Tshwane, after the local government elections of 2011 (City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan, 2011:02).

The City of Tshwane is the largest municipality in the country and the third largest in the world in terms of land mass. Although this vastness of land available provides opportunities to a number of land users and development, it poses big challenges in terms of infrastructure development for basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and social facilities. Due to the vastness of the

area, urban sprawl is also a concern, which inevitably puts a huge burden on infrastructure provision (City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan Review, 2014-15:14).

The City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan (2011:19) states the population of the City of Tshwane to be an estimated 2 519 308. The City of Tshwane is characterised by a rapidly growing population (a projected annual growth of 41%) because of an increase in immigrants, resulting in an increase in informal settlement. With 105 wards, the City of Tshwane is expected to develop a system of municipal governance that represents formal representation with a system of participatory governance. Figure 1.2 below depicts the population per ethnic group in the City of Tshwane.



**Figure 1.2: Population per ethnic group**

*Adapted from City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan Review, 2014-15:17*

### 1.2.1 City of Tshwane strategic focus

In 2011, the City of Tshwane approved a five-year Integrated Development Plan (IDP) under the theme: Consolidating service delivery, accelerating service delivery and strengthening the foundations for a new Tshwane: A city of excellence (City of Tshwane Integrated Development Plan Review, 2014-15:7).

To achieve the aspirations of the theme, strategic objectives and indicators were identified and these remain as per the amendment of the IDP (2014-15:7) as follows:

- (a) Provide sustainable services infrastructure and human settlement

- (b) Promote shared economic growth and job creation
- (c) Ensure sustainable, safer communities and integrated social development
- (d) Promote good governance and an active citizenry
- (e) Provide improved financial sustainability
- (f) Promote continued institutional development, transformation and innovation.

These objectives are in line with the developmental mandate of local government in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

Subsequently, through the development of Tshwane Vision 2055, the City has set a long-term development agenda that will guide all future initiatives of the City. According to the City of Tshwane Vision (2055:6), the long-term vision is to ensure that in 2055, Tshwane is liveable, resilient and inclusive and has citizens who enjoy a high quality of life, have access to social, economic and enhanced political freedoms and where citizens are partners in the development of the African capital city of excellence.

Essentially, the Tshwane vision 2055 has set out six outcomes that need to be achieved over the next four decades. These outcomes include the following:

- (a) Outcome 1: A resilient and resource efficient City
- (b) Outcome 2: A growing economy that is inclusive, diversified and competitive
- (c) Outcome 3: A City with quality infrastructure development that supports liveable communities
- (d) Outcome 4: An equitable City that supports happiness, social cohesion, safety and healthy citizens
- (e) Outcome 5: An African Capital City that promotes excellence and innovative governance solutions
- (f) Outcome 6: South Africa's capital with an activist citizenry that is engaging, aware of its rights and presents itself as partners in tackling societal challenges (City of Tshwane Vision 2055:51).

In the light of the above objectives, this study becomes pivotal as it intends to investigate the use of information and communication technologies by the City of Tshwane with an ideal of optimising good governance, thus striving towards excellence and innovative governance. An elucidation on e-governance in perspective is given below.

### 1.3 E-governance in perspective

The preceding discussion provided a background to the CTMM in South Africa. The City of Tshwane seeks to promote good governance and active citizenry in accordance with one of its objectives. As a result, the use of information communication technologies (ICT) in government has become a key priority. This ideal would ensure effectiveness and efficiency in the delivery of services to members of the public.

Backus (2001:2) confirms that e-governance could be defined as the application of ICTs in refining and strengthening the interaction between government and citizens (G2C), government and business (G2B), as well as improving internal government processes (G2G) to streamline and improve public administration.

The need for e-governance could be traced to the notion that municipalities the world over adopted various approaches to achieve good urban governance. Most of the good urban governance at the municipal level could be associated primarily with the adoption of ICT in the form of e-governance initiatives (Singh & Ogra, 2011:134).

With this perspective, Singh and Ogra (2011:134) further postulate that technology adoption programmes in municipalities have traditionally evolved from an urge to make municipalities perform better for delivery of services to citizens and achievement of overall performance in its functions. Some key areas of implementation of technology-based solutions can be, for example, property enhancement applications, complaint redressal system, registration and issue of trade licences, birth and death registrations, and provision of information to citizens through kiosks, websites, etc. These approaches are not always integrated with other modules within the system, resulting in approaches being adopted at the municipal level being isolated from one another.

Du Toit, Knipe, van Niekerk, van der Waldt and Dovle (2001:255) assert that the computer has changed the way in which we live, think and conduct business. All over the world, governments have realised the importance of this new technology in the delivery of services. Many have therefore taken up the challenge to use information technology to better the services that they render to the public at large. In this regard, the ideal of e-governance has somewhat changed the manner in terms of which government communicates with its citizens and the way it conducts its business.

The information age, characterised by the use of ICT, is changing society and the way government can best meet societal challenges. Many political and administrative processes are more open than before and many citizens are choosing to go online, not to stand in line, for their public service (van der Waldt, Khalo, Nealer, Phutiagae, van der Waldt, van Niekerk & Venter, 2014:48).

Dawes (2008:87) postulates that e-governance could be examined in terms of five interrelated objectives as follows:

- (i) A policy framework information – this includes related statutes and policies essential in legitimising a foundation for e-governance
- (ii) Enhanced public services – enhanced public service embraces a common-sense approach that replaces an organisational perspective with a customer orientation, providing access, convenience, and choice to citizens and businesses seeking information or services from government
- (iii) High quality and cost-effective government operations – this covers a wide array of managerial, professional and technical improvement goals. Not only does it address efficiency but also infrastructure investments, information management and use, organisational innovation, risk management, procurement reform, workforce capabilities, and performance assessment
- (iv) Citizen engagement in democratic processes – this is characterised by “e-participation”. Engagement often covers the spectrum of democratic processes. It includes accessibility and usability of technologies and information content, public interaction with government, public discourse on political topics, and public consultation, or the processes of engaging people in the agenda-setting process

- (v) Administrative and institutional reform – this emphasises accountability, transparency, and trust. Reform pertains to the structures and processes of government as well as to the roles and responsibilities government delegates to the private and non-profit sectors for carrying out public functions. Reform also addresses the culture of government and the way the public service perceives its role with respect to governance, citizens and society.

In the light of the above, the adoption of e-governance could be of utmost importance, thus ensuring improved provision of services, improved citizen participation and accountability in local government. E-governance, in this regard, may contribute immensely to the ideal of good governance. The research problem is discussed below.

#### 1.4 Research problem

The development approaches adopted in South Africa have evolved government's approach to realising social, political and economic transformation, and inclusion has inevitably changed, and ICT policies need to respond to this. The way people communicate and access information and services and interact with each other and government has changed dramatically over the past twenty years. People now need an electronic address as well as a physical address, access to broadband and not only to a telephone line, and the skills, means and knowledge to be able to use communications technology to improve the quality of their lives (National Integrated ICT Policy White Paper, 2016:6).

The contemporary local government is required to be responsive, transparent and accountable to the needs of its citizens. Essentially, active citizen participation is a prerequisite in a democratic and accountable local government. This may be crucial as active citizen participation embodies an element of good governance.

According to section 32 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, everyone has the right to access information held by the state, therefore, such information ought to be timely, accessible, accurate and reliable. It remains the responsibility of local government to use available technologies in disseminating information and interacting with its customers.

Although there have been significant strides made since the introduction of e-governance in South Africa, the local sphere of government conjures images of violent public service delivery protests, the inability to access e-services, particularly in rural communities, and the inability to ensure sound e-community participation in policy-making processes (Maleka, 2016:166).

Furthermore, the traditional method of public engagement – hearings and sittings – is outdated and has lost its appeal to young people, who, importantly, constitute the bulk of the population in the City of Tshwane (Ramokgopa, 2015:5).

This study is therefore a contribution to the body of knowledge on e-governance in local government with the ideal of optimising good governance. Essentially, the CTMM is employed as a case study to provide sound perspective. The research questions of the study follow below.

### 1.5 Research questions

The following research questions would aid the researcher to effectively interrogate the research problem, thus contributing to the body of knowledge:

- (a) Does e-governance contribute to good governance in local government?
- (b) To what extent does e-governance enhance citizen participation in local government affairs?
- (c) Is the adoption of e-governance optimising access of municipal services?

With this in mind, the research objectives of the study follow.

### 1.6 Research objectives

The following research objectives will help the researcher to achieve the aim of the study:

- (1) To assess the state of e-governance initiative in the CTMM
- (2) To investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the CTMM
- (3) To investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the CTMM

(4) To assess the extent in which e-governance influence good governance in the CTMM.

In the light of the above, an overview pertaining to the significance of the study is unpacked below.

### 1.7 Significance of the study

The new information age has changed the manner in which government executes its functions in society. The ability to read and write may no longer be enough, hence the adoption and use of technology. This ideal may improve the relationship that ought to exist between government and its people. The use of ICT may be essential, particularly in local government, to enhance good governance for its residents. E-governance could be pivotal in avoiding sending people from pillar to post.

The study seeks to analyse the nexus between e-governance and good governance at the local sphere of government, with an ideal of providing sound information that would contribute immensely to the body of knowledge.

Although there is significant research on e-governance and good governance, none of this attempted to investigate the role that e-governance plays towards good governance within the context of South African local government. The study therefore seeks to add knowledge in analysing the essence of ICT in local government, thus be a potential catalyst in assisting to reach the developmental objectives in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. The methodological processes of the study follow below.

### 1.8. Research methodology

The research methodology focuses on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used. It serves as the point of departure to outline specifics in terms of how data may be collected by the researcher (Mouton, 2008:56).

In addressing the research questions stipulated, the study employs a mixed method research. In Chapter 5 of this study, this methodology is unpacked in detail.

## 1.9 Limitations of the study

The limitations of this research study are that of all seven regions of the City of Tshwane, only three were rigorously considered due to the limitation of time and budget. The researcher focused primarily on three regions of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality pertaining to data collection of this study.

The researcher intended to further probe the e-readiness and the digital divide in the City of Tshwane. However, challenges were experienced in securing interview appointments with the City of Tshwane officials. As a result, only residence of the CTMM participated in the survey. Although the researcher used open and closed ended questionnaire, challenges were encountered in soliciting qualitative findings due to lack of adequate response from the research participants. Conversely, though the focal point is the CTMM, other municipalities can use the model proposed in this study.

## 1.10 Outline of chapters

The study is divided into seven chapters and the outline is as follows.

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

The objective of this chapter is to provide the introduction, and background of the CTMM. This chapter also provides a perspective on e-governance and presents the research problem, research question, and research objectives of the study.

### **Chapter 2: Local government in South Africa**

In Chapter 2, local government in South Africa receives attention. The researcher also provides an elucidation on the legislation framework that supports e-governance in the local sphere of government.

### **Chapter 3: Contextualising Public Administration and e-governance**

In Chapter 3, the researcher presents a theoretical elucidation of e-governance and models of e-governance, with a view to assessing the state of local government. Furthermore, the chapter also

contextualises Public Administration and e-governance. The reference to developed countries with e-governance, such as Singapore, is also drawn in this chapter.

#### **Chapter 4: Good governance**

Chapter 4 provides theoretical insights into the discourse of good governance. This chapter explores the principles of good governance and institutional mechanisms that could be employed to enhance good governance in the local sphere of government, among other aspects.

#### **Chapter 5: Research methodology**

The ideal of Chapter 5 is mainly to present the research methodology that was employed in gathering data. Elements pertaining to research design, sampling, data collection and analysis are explored accordingly.

#### **Chapter 6: Research findings**

The objective of this chapter is to focus on the presentation of research findings in accordance with the research objectives. Research findings on the state of e-governance, access of e-services, effectiveness of e-participation and the influence of e-governance on good governance are presented accordingly.

#### **Chapter 7: Research recommendations**

This chapter provides research findings, recommendations and conclusion of the study. The researcher also provides a proposed model that the CTMM can employ to ensure that e-governance enhances good governance.

### **1.11 Conclusion**

From the preceding discussion, it can be deduced that the role of information communication technology in local government is essential. The new information age requires citizens as well as public officials to be technologically inclined. The use of ICT has certainly changed the manner in which government conducts its business. As a result, the citizens have expectations that

government would render information and services online to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in their operations.

In this regard, it is expected that government prioritise closing the digital divide that may exist. This would ensure effective e-participation from members of the public in local government affairs as a prerequisite in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

The following chapter is an analysis of local government in South Africa.

## CHAPTER 2: LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

### 2.1 Introduction

Local government is a sphere of government whose functions are restricted to a delimited geographical area. The aim of local government is to govern within its defined boundaries, to serve the interest of the community and to promote communal wellbeing.

Local government as a sphere of government is classified into three categories, namely, Category A, B and C municipalities. Essentially, a municipality is an institution that comprises of elected and appointed officials. The municipality operates within a specific geographical area to provide services for its local community. It is important to note that a municipality has a relatively well-defined area of jurisdiction and local populace. The municipality has a right to govern on its own initiative, but is subjected to constitutional provisions as well as national and provincial legislation. An elucidation of local government in South Africa follows.

### 2.2 Local government in South Africa prior to 1994

In order to understand the importance of local government in South Africa today, it is useful to begin with examining it during the apartheid era, as many of the most explosive protests against the apartheid regime had their roots in local issues, such as lack of services. One of the most popular anti-apartheid slogans, “one city, one tax base”, reflects the salience of local issues to those who suffered at the hands of the white-led government. The reason for this is because many of the most unjust aspects of the system were most visible at the local level (Beall *et al.*, 2002, Bond, 2000).

Tsatsire, Raga, Taylor and Nealer (2009:133) maintain that it was at the local government sphere that the apartheid value system manifested itself most visibly. This was where laws separated communities in terms of race and it was not surprising, then, that the first signs of apartheid being untenable as a political value system manifested themselves at this sphere of government. As a result of apartheid, urban settlements were skewed, with blacks being relegated to the so-called

“township” residential areas, which were often located a fair distance from towns and areas of work.

The White Paper on Local Government, 1998 postulates that apartheid left its imprint on South Africa's human settlements and municipal institutions. Transformation requires an understanding of the historical role of local government in creating and perpetuating local separation and inequity, and the impact of apartheid on municipal institutions. Equally important is the history of resistance to apartheid at the local level, and the struggles against apartheid local government.

Apartheid was not the beginning of geographic, institutional and social separation at the local level. Segregation was already a policy by the time apartheid was introduced in 1948. However, the Group Areas Act, the key piece of apartheid legislation, instituted strict residential segregation and compulsory removal of black people to “own group” areas.

Ismael, Bayat and Meyer (1997:42) suggest that apartheid local government had many distinct features, such as strict control of urbanisation on racial lines; a refusal to acknowledge the expanding urban population, partly caused by “illegal” black migration; the racial segregation of settlements; racially divided local authorities; and racial disparities in access to services and housing.

Ismael *et al.* (1997:42) suggest that policies perpetuated the differentiation of structures and systems according to race or population group. For example, “white” local authorities served the whites, while management committees served the coloureds and Indians (local affairs committees served the Indians in Natal Province). Black local authorities served the blacks. These apartheid policies significantly influenced the development patterns of local authorities throughout the country, for example, by providing municipal services on a differential basis to local communities.

Through spatial separation, influx control, and a policy of “own management for own areas”, apartheid aimed to limit the extent to which affluent white municipalities would bear the financial burden of servicing disadvantaged black areas. The Group Areas Act restricted the permanent presence of Africans in urban areas through the pass system, and reserved a viable municipal revenue base for white areas by separating townships and industrial and commercial development (White Paper on Local Government, 1998).

The White Paper on Local Government, 1998 further suggests that various attempts were made under apartheid to introduce “own management” structures for black residents at the local level. This was in part to compensate for restricted rights, and in part to bolster the political and economic privileges of racial exclusion. Various attempts include the following:

- (a) In Bantustans, limited local government was established. Traditional leaders were given powers over land allocation and development matters in areas with communally owned land. Some small rural townships (the so-called “R293 towns”) were given their own administrations, but these lacked real powers
- (b) In the 1960s, “coloured” and “Indian” management committees were established as advisory bodies to white municipalities
- (c) The Bantu Affairs Administration Act of 1971 established appointed administration boards, which removed responsibility for townships from white municipalities
- (d) In 1977, community councils were introduced. Community councils were elected bodies, but had no meaningful powers and few resources. They never gained political credibility
- (e) In 1982 Black Local Authorities replaced community councils. Black Local Authorities had no significant revenue base, and were seen as politically illegitimate from the start. They were rejected by popular (and sometimes violent) community mobilisation in the mid-1980s. To some extent these forms of “own local government” acknowledged the permanent presence of black people in urban areas. However, they were designed to reinforce the policies of segregation and economic exclusion. None had resources to make any real difference to the quality of life of their constituents (White Paper on Local Government, 1998).

Against the above background, it is clear that local government stands to inherit growing responsibility for service delivery, primarily because South Africa has inherited a public sector marked by fragmentation and gross inequalities at all spheres of government activity. It is, however, widely acknowledged that local government is also marked by some dramatic deficiencies in terms of its capacity and structure to meet those demands of service delivery. It is also widely accepted that apartheid policies and legislations are to be blamed for this inefficiency

and ineffectiveness of the current and existing local government system (Nyalunga, 2006:8). Following is an analysis of local government after 1993.

### 2.3 Local government in South Africa post 1994

Local government is a key part of the reconstruction and development effort in South Africa. The aims of democratising society and growing the economy inclusively could be realised through a responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system that is part of a developmental state (Local Government Turn-Around Strategy, 2009:3).

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, in its Chapter 3, confirms the structure of the South African government. Section 40(1) states that in the Republic of South Africa, government is constituted as National, Provincial and Local spheres that are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 directly addresses matters of local government. Section 151(1-4) indicates that the local sphere of government consists of:

- (a) municipalities, which must be established for the whole of the territory of the Republic
- (b) the executive and legislative authority of a municipality is vested in its Municipal Council
- (c) a municipality has the right to govern, on its own initiative, the local government affairs of its community, subject to national and provincial legislation, as provided for in the Constitution
- (d) the national or a provincial government may not compromise or impede a municipality's ability or right to exercise its powers or perform its functions.

It could then be stated that municipalities are autonomous, although their powers should be within the domain of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Below the objectives of local government are given.

### 2.3.1 Objectives of local government

Subsequently, since local government is a sphere closer to the people, it has been given a developmental mandate in accordance with section 152 of the Constitution, as follows:

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

In this context, the provision of timely and accessible service delivery remains the responsibility of the local sphere of government. Members of the community also have a pivotal role to play, thus ensuring that those responsible for such provision of services are held accountable.

Furthermore, it is imperative to note that the transformation of local government in the post-apartheid dispensation ought to be administered in accordance with the basic values and principles embodied in section 195(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Following are the basic values and principles:

- (a) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained
- (b) Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted
- (c) Public administration must be development-orientated
- (d) Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias
- (e) People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making
- (f) Public administration must be accountable
- (g) Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information

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

These values and principles remain pivotal in ensuring that there is efficiency and effectiveness in executing government policy. It is important that government officials should adhere to the aforementioned guidelines if the South African government is to reach its transformational goal. An elucidation of developmental duties of municipalities follows.

### 2.3.2 Developmental duties of municipalities

The South African Constitution, 1996 provides for the legal directives by which municipalities have to be transformed and restructured. Moreover, new status and new developmental roles are granted in terms of section 153 of the Constitution. Hence, the municipalities are no longer referred to as lowest tier or level of government, but as a sphere that enjoys equal constitutional status with the provincial and national spheres of government (Binza, 2000:82).

According to section 153 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, a municipality must ensure that it:

- (a) structures and manages its administration, and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community
- (b) participates in national and provincial development programmes.

In giving effect to basic needs, every municipality ought to develop an integrated development plan that addresses the challenges of the area of its demarcation. These are given below.

### 2.3.3 Categories of municipalities

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 delineates three categories of municipalities as category A, B and C. Table 2.1 below depicts the categories of municipalities in South Africa as follows:

**Table 2.1: Categories of municipalities**

<p>a.     <b>Category A:</b> According to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, category A refers to a municipality that has exclusive municipal executive and legislative authority in its area.</p> <p>b.     <b>Category B:</b> The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 refers to a category B municipality as a municipality that shares municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with a category C municipality within whose area it falls; therefore, areas that fall outside of the six metropolitan municipal areas are divided into local municipalities. There are 231 of these local municipalities with each municipality being subdivided into wards. The residents in each ward are represented by a ward councillor.</p> <p>c.     <b>Category C:</b> The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 defines a category C municipality as one that has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality. District municipalities are often made up of a number of local municipalities that fall into one district. A district municipality has to co-ordinate development and delivery for the whole district.</p>
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*Source: The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 section 155(1)*

The City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in this context falls under category A municipality. Some of the challenges facing municipalities follows below.

### 2.4 Challenges facing South African municipalities

Problems at municipalities range from issues of poor governance and accountability, weak financial management, high vacancies in critical senior management posts and in a number of

instances, to an inability to deliver even a core set of critical municipal services efficiently and effectively (Delivery agreement for Outcome 9, 2010:6). Because of these challenges, South African municipalities have been characterised by ongoing community protests in recent years. Such reasons include, but are not restricted to, governance failures, poor service delivery, and unresponsive local government (Manyaka, 2018:53).

The Local Government Turn Around Strategy (2009:17) also identified the main problems and their root causes in local government as follows:

- (a) Service delivery: the delivery of basic services in municipal areas: these may include water, sanitation, refuse removal and electricity, among others
- (b) Spatial conditions: these include geographic considerations such as characteristics of urban areas and conditions in former “Bantustan” areas
- (c) Governance: this may include elements such as political leadership, institutional organisation, administration, capacity and skills, oversight and regulation
- (d) Financial management: this includes municipal budgeting and income
- (e) Labour relations: this includes the manner in which the management of municipalities and the workforce of the municipality organise and cooperate.

It is of utmost important that local government should minimise these challenges to ensure sound improvement in the livelihoods of its constituency.

The Local Government Turn-Around Strategy (2009:18) further reiterates that there are serious leadership and governance challenges in municipalities, including weak responsiveness and accountability to communities. What is also notable is that municipalities are unable to deliver basic services or grow their economies, and the legacy of apartheid spatial development patterns and inequality continues.

The White Paper on Local Government, 1998 succinctly and lucidly captures some of the challenges that local government in South Africa faces. These challenges include the following:

- (i) Huge backlogs in service infrastructure in historically underdeveloped areas, requiring municipal expenditure far in excess of the revenue currently available within the local government system
- (ii) The need to rebuild relations between municipalities and the local communities they serve. Municipalities should be particularly sensitive to the needs of groups within the community who tend to be marginalised, and responsive and accessible to people with a disability
- (iii) Great spatial separations and disparities between towns and townships and urban sprawl exist, which increase service provision and transport costs enormously. Most urban areas are racially fragmented, with discontinuous land use and settlement patterns. Municipalities in urban areas will need to develop strategies for spatial integration, while managing the continuing consequences of rapid urbanisation and service backlogs, among others.

Post-1994, in a democratic South Africa, Manyaka, (2018:56) implies that a better life for all meant adequate access to decent jobs with better pay, education, health, security, decent houses and other basic amenities, such as water, electricity, sanitation, and access to roads. Access to these socio-economic opportunities was viewed as the surest way of righting the wrongs and injustices of the past. With over 24 years of democracy, the triple challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequality continue to worsen, particularly among the youth. In this regard, the access to information and communication technologies could bridge the gap of inequality, hence provide adequate access to public information and services. An exposition on the Outcome 9 of local government is given below.

## 2.5 Vision for Outcome 9 in local government

The aforementioned triple challenges, among others, suggest that local government needs to address seven critical issues in order to achieve the overarching goal or vision of a responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government, as stipulated by the Local Government Turn-Around Strategy. These seven issues include the following:

- (a) Ensure improved access to essential services
- (b) Initiate ward-based programmes to sustain livelihoods

- (c) Contribute to the achievement of sustainable human settlements and quality neighbourhoods
- (d) Strengthen participatory governance
- (e) Strengthen the administrative and financial capability of municipalities
- (f) Address co-ordination problems and strengthen cross-departmental initiatives (Delivery agreement for Outcome 9, 2010:6).

Within this context, clearly local government ought to be an agent of change. This would ensure pivotal transformation in redressing past imbalances. Members of the community should be encouraged to forge a sound relationship with those in power. Transparency and accountability in local government affairs should be a principle cherished at all times.

On the other side, Leach, Davis and Associates (1996:3) argue that there are key strategic choices facing future local authorities that need to be considered if municipalities want to pride themselves on the success of transformation. These include the following:

- (a) The extent to which the municipality wants to go beyond its responsibilities for service provision to exercise a wider role of local governance
- (b) The degree to which the municipality improves and sustains local economic development and creates employment for local dwellers
- (c) The relative importance it gives to service delivery including service to individual customers or communities
- (d) The extent to which it gauges public perceptions about its governance, and the manner in which local economic development impacts on inhabitants.

In this regard, Hobbs (2001) suggests that e-governance strategy seeks to transcend traditional organisational boundaries and provide customers with true one-stop shopping for government online. Public services can now be delivered to businesses and the community on an anywhere, anytime basis. Below is an elucidation on the South African Local Government Association.

## 2.6 South African Local Government Association (SALGA)

The South African Local Government Association was established in accordance with the Organised Local Government Act, 1997 (Act 52 of 1997) with the aim of providing recognition to national and provincial organisations representing different categories of municipalities and to determine procedures through which local government may consult with national and provincial governments.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 emphasises that the Republic of South Africa has three spheres of government that are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. The three spheres should co-operate with one another in mutual trust and in good faith by ensuring the following:

- (i) Fostering friendly relations
- (ii) Assisting and supporting one another
- (iii) Informing and consulting with one another on matters of common interest
- (iv) Co-ordinating their actions and legislation
- (v) Adhering to agreed procedures
- (vi) Avoiding legal proceedings.

In ensuring sound co-operative government as mandated by the Constitution, SALGA seeks to represent the interests of local municipalities in the National Assembly, National Council of Provinces and various intergovernmental forums. In representing the interests of municipalities, SALGA aims at ensuring the following:

- (a) To transform local government to enable it to fulfil its developmental role
- (b) To upgrade the role of provincial local government associations as provincial representatives and consultative bodies on local government
- (c) To raise the profile of local government
- (d) To ensure full participation of women in local government
- (e) To act as the national employers' organisation for municipal and provincial member employers

- (f) To provide legal assistance to its members, using its discretion in connection with matters that affect employee relations (South African Local Government Association [www.salga.org.za/about](http://www.salga.org.za/about) accessed on the 26/03/2016).

In the light of the above, SALGA is the sole employer-body representing all municipalities in the country. In its drive to ensure that local government achieves its developmental mandate, SALGA acknowledges local government as the key site of delivery and development, therefore it is central in reaching the transformational process of a new democratic country (SALGA [www.salga.co.za/about](http://www.salga.co.za/about) municipalities accessed on the 26/03/2016). An exposition on legislation supporting e-governance in local government is given below.

## 2.7 Legislation and institution supporting e-governance in local government

In giving effect to the adoption and utilisation of technology in government, certain legislation is worth mentioning. This includes the State Information Technology Agency, Act 88 of 1998 and Public Administration and Management Act, Act 11 of 2014. An exposition of this legislation and State Information Technology Agency as an institution follows.

### 2.7.1 State Information Technology Agency, Act 88 of 1998

Du Toit, Knipe, van Niekerk, van der Waldt and Dovle, (2001:2566) maintain that for many years, information management, system and technology (IMST) in government had been managed in an unco-ordinated and sometimes duplicating manner. Most state departments had internal IT facility divisions that to a lesser or greater degree performed IMST-related work. The Presidential Review Commission Report (Republic of South Africa, 1998: Online) confirms that the Government lacked an overall vision and strategies for the IMST and that, in the absence of such a strategy, individual departments would find it difficult to define their own IMST strategies. Most departments would therefore pursue their policy agendas independently, with IT systems being developed and/or operated to meet only the specific departmental policy objectives. In the absence of effective policy co-ordination, IMST strategy would then remain incoherent. The cost implications of this situation are enormous.

In this regard, there were a number of factors that led to the establishment of the State Information Technology Agency (SITA) and these include the following:

- (i) A large number of departments were unable to recruit suitably qualified, experienced or knowledgeable IT staff to perform these functions and such led to recruiting consultants or contracting the work to the private sector
- (ii) These consultants became full time “employees” at considerable cost to the department
- (iii) The consequent over-dependence of government on contractors and the need to reduce costs for service rendered are therefore some of the challenges that led to the establishment of SITA (du Toit *et al.*, 2001:256).

In accordance with aforementioned challenges, the year 1998 prompted Parliament to promulgate the State Information Technology Agency Act, 88 of 1998. The main objective of the Act would be to provide for the establishment of a company that would provide IMST and related services to, or on behalf of, participating departments. Through the Act, SITA acts as an agent of the South African government.

### 2.7.2 Overview of SITA

SITA was established in 1999 to consolidate and co-ordinate the State’s information technology resources in order to achieve cost savings through scale, increase delivery capabilities and enhance interoperability. SITA is committed to leveraging IT as a strategic resource for government, managing the IT procurement and delivery process to ensure that the government receives value for money, and using IT to support the delivery of e-government services to all citizens. In short, SITA is the IT business for the largest employer and consumer of IT products and services in South Africa – the government (SITA) [www.sita.co.za](http://www.sita.co.za) (Accessed on 18 March 2016).

SITA is a private IT company that provides IMST services to the public sector as its biggest client. The South African government, however, is the sole shareholder and the Minister of Public Service and Administration, on behalf of the state, exercises the rights attached to the shares. SITA, in this regard, operates within the Information Communication Technology (ICT) sector of South Africa (du Toit, Knipe, van Niekerk, van der Waldt & Dogle, 2001:257).

Du Toit *et al.* (2001:259) further confirm that the mandate given to SITA through legislation states that the main client base of SITA would be the following: all government national departments, provincial and local governments; and all organs of the state.

In the light of the above, section 7 of the SITA Act, Act 88 of 1998 outlines the following as the functions of SITA:

- (a) Provide data processing services
- (b) Provide information technology and information systems training
- (c) Provide application software development and maintenance services
- (d) Promote the effective utilisation of information technology to enhance the efficiency at all levels of public service
- (e) Provide technical, functional and business advice and support regarding information technology
- (f) Provide information technology and information and information system management services
- (g) Act as a procurement agency in respect of information technology requirements
- (h) Perform any other functions which the Minister may, from time to time, determine to give effect to the objective of the agency.

SITA could be regarded as an entity established mainly to provide technological solutions to its entire client base.

Below is an exposition on the Public Administration and Management Act.

### 2.7.3 Public Administration and Management Act (Act 11 of 2014)

In accordance with section 14 of Public Administration and Management Act, Act 11 of 2014, the head of an institution must acquire and use information and communication technologies in a manner which ensures the following:

- (a) Leverages economies of scale to provide for cost effective service
- (b) Ensures the interoperability of its information systems with information systems of other institutions to enhance internal efficiency or service delivery
- (c) Eliminates unnecessary duplication of information and communication technologies in the public administration
- (d) Ensures security of its information systems
- (e) Use information and communication technologies to develop and enhance the delivery of its services in public administration
- (f) Align the use by staff of information and communication technologies to achieve optimal service delivery
- (g) Promote the access to public services through the use of information and communication technologies.

In this regard, the Minister of Public Service and Administration, on behalf of the state, exercises these powers in accordance with SITA.

## 2.8 Conclusion

The preceding discussions were on local government and the legislative framework that supports the notion of e-governance. Local government has been given a developmental mandate to ensure transformation in the country given the historical imbalances of the past. Conversely, the emergence of information and communication technologies has changed the manner in which government executes its approach to governance.

The legislation framework that supports e-governance is an indication that the South African government embraces digital technology towards digital governance. SITA was established with an ideal, among others, to use information and communication technologies to enhance efficiency in all spheres of government.

Essentially, within the context of transformation through the developmental mandate of local government, the use by government of information and communication technologies becomes pivotal and a paradigm shift of governance to e-governance.

The following chapter is an elucidation about e-governance and Public Administration.

## **CHAPTER 3: CONTEXTUALISING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND E-GOVERNANCE**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) by government could be regarded as a key element supporting the growth of the e-governance initiative. De Wet (2014:27, in Thornhill, van Dijk & Ile, 2014) suggests that P(p)ublic A(a)administration as a discipline and as an area of operation shapes the main thrust behind democratic and developmental initiatives within the country and the object of enquiry being local government.

Public Administration is concerned with organisational relationships and the complex dilemma of integrating areas that relate to citizens, the structure of government, society and the economy, the human factor in administration and stages of national development, among others (Basu, 2004:35). It is against this backdrop that this chapter seeks to explore the relation between Public Administration and the use of ICT in government.

In this regard, this chapter endeavours to provide a theoretical analysis of Public Administration and e-governance. This chapter outlines the paradigm shifts in the evolution of Public Administration and the conceptual framework of e-governance. The chapter also attempts to contrast the e-governance concept with other related concepts such as e-government and e-democracy. The models of e-governance receive scrutiny with an ideal of assessing the state of e-governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The e-readiness and digital divide are among issues deliberated in this chapter. The state of e-governance in South Africa and Singapore is taken into consideration to reflect on the progress made by the two countries. Essentially, Singapore was chosen, as it is one of the leading countries in e-government developments (UN, e-government survey 2018:89). The chapter also analyses the challenges and benefits of e-governance. The following section provides an elucidation of Public Administration.

### 3.2 Public Administration and public administration

In the Public Administration Dictionary, Fox and Meyer (1995:105) refer to public administration as the executive branch of government; civil service; bureaucracy charged with the formulation for, implementation, evaluation and modification of government policy.

Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:2) are of the view that public administration can be defined as “that system(s) of structures and processes, operating within a particular society as an environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy and the efficient execution of the formulated policy”. These terms therefore refer to government and its relationship with society promoting government policy responsive to societal needs.

According to Pauw (1999:22), Public Administration investigates public administration, which he refers to as the “organised, non-political, executive functions of the state”. In the Handbook of Public Administration, Rabin, Hildreth and Miller (2006:5) are of the opinion that the 1880s were the starting point of public administration. For many scholars in Public Administration Woodrow Wilson’s essay, “The study of administration”, published in 1887 in the *Political Science Quarterly*, laid the foundation for a study of Public Administration. What follows is an elucidation of the paradigms of Public Administration.

#### 3.2.1 Paradigms of Public Administration

Somekh and Lewin (2005:207) assert that a paradigm may be regarded as a worldview, a general perspective, and a way of breaking the complexity of the real world. A paradigm is the authority of a certain theoretical tradition and therefore a paradigm shift directs the efforts of scientists away from solving the serious administrative problems there are to the study of theories (Babbie & Mouton, 2006:6).

Maserumule (2013:477) suggests that the discourse in the field of Public Administration failed to evolve into a consensus on a universally acceptable theory of Public Administration. Essentially, new Public Administration paradigms should be developed to solve new problems. Certain scholars, however, proclaim that Public Administration cannot be given paradigmatic status

because it does not have universally accepted theories, and could be regarded as more of an art than a science (van Jaarsveldt, 2010:28).

Nevertheless, Basheka (2012:34) is of the view that Public Administration has developed as an academic discipline through a number of stages. These stages could then be regarded as paradigms. Different authors have given their classifications although there is a great deal of uniformity in their scholarships.

In this regard, an elucidation follows pertaining to seven paradigms in the development of Public Administration since the birth of the field, which is commonly identified with Woodrow Wilson's article entitled "The study of Administration" published in *Political Science Quarterly* in 1887. Following is an elucidation on the paradigm shifts.

(a) **Paradigm 1: Politics/Administration (1887-1926)**

The key assumption and strategy during this epistemological period was the idea to separate politics and the administration functions of government as a strategy for promoting efficiency and effectiveness. The period also believed that administration of the public sector was different from administration in the private sector. During this period, it was believed that as a strategy for promoting efficiency and effectiveness in the running of government, there had to be a clear distinction between those involved in the game of politics and those who were charged with the business of administration (Basheka, 2012:35).

The *trias politica* was seen as further evidence of this separation of political and administrative functions of government. Emphasis in Paradigm 1 was the locus of the discipline, put differently, where should public administration be (Henry, 1975: 379)? Goodnow (1900), however, argued that government's bureaucracy is the locus of public administration. In the academic world Public Administration was viewed as a natural subfield of Political Science. Notable in this era was the publication of White's *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* in 1926.

Basheka (2012:35) is of the view that Woodrow Wilson in his article proposed four issues for study and discussion, namely:

1. Separation of politics and administration
2. Comparative analysis of political and private organisations

3. Improving efficiency with business-like practices and attitudes toward daily operations
4. Improving the effectiveness of public service through management and training of civil servants, as well as encouraging merit-based assessment. The separation of politics from administration has been the subject of lasting debate.

In essence, this paradigm dealt with the notion of separating public administration from politics, which became popularly known as the Politics/Administration dichotomy.

**(b) Paradigm 2: Principles of Public Administration (1927-1937)**

Henry (2010:29) suggests that Public Administration had a reputational zenith during this second phase (principles of administration) of its development. Mukonza (2014:504) confirms the notion of Willoughby's work *Principles of Public Administration* through Henry (1975:379) that if Public Administrators are to be experts in their work, they had to learn certain principles in the field.

Basheka (2012:41) confirms an assertion by Stone and Stone (1975:30) that both as a discipline and practice, Public Administration commanded a high degree of respect and its products were in great demand both in government and business during this period. It is reported that by 1925, for example, a person would not have talked about Public Administration so that people knew what that person meant. This perception changed during the principles period. As an academic backtrack, while there may have been between 30 and 40 Public Administration programmes in universities and many subordinated to political science departments, between 1927 and 1936, the number of universities that had Public Administration as a course on their menu had quadrupled.

Henry (2010:29) postulates that during this period, there was a claim that Public Administration had matured to become a science. As such, there was a belief that there existed certain "scientific principles" (or proverbs as Herbert Simon later called them) of Administration that could be relied upon to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of government. The period saw a number of Public Administration scholars give what they believed constituted the core administrative principles that could shape the discipline of Public Administration. It was believed that the "principles" of Administration worked in any administrative setting regardless of sector, culture, function, environment, mission or institutional framework.

Henry (2010:29) suggests that in 1937, Gullick and Urwick, who were confidants of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, wrote their “Papers on the science of Administration” in the form of a report to the President’s Committee on Administrative Science. They promoted seven principles of administration and, in so doing, gave students of Public Administration that snappy anagram, POSDCORB, which stood for planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. These principles have to date had lasting impact on the management and administrative discourse.

Basheka (2012:43) confirms that Mooney and Reiley (1939) set out a number of common principles that relate to all types of organisations. They gave particular attention to (1) the principle of co-ordination – the need for people to act together with unity of action; (2) the exercise of authority and the need for discipline; (3) the scalar principle – the hierarchy of organisation, the grading of duties and the process of delegation; and (4) the functional principle – specialisation and the distinction between different kinds of duties. In the 1940s the discipline was subjected to searching criticism of its core beliefs, and heterodoxy came to replace orthodoxy. The criticism and new orienting ideas were clearly foreshadowed in the 1930s. In 1936 there had appeared the *frontiers of public administration*, a series of essays by John M. Gaus, Leonard D. White, and Marshall E. Dimock, in which these prominent figures of the orthodox period introduced points of view later to become important.

In essence, Mukonza (2014:504) acknowledges Henry (1975:380) who stated that there were two objections raised; firstly, politics and administration could not be separated and secondly, the principles of administration were logically inconsistent. In 1947, Simon further proved that for every principle put forward there was a counter principle, and that rendered the whole idea of principle arguable.

(c) **Paradigm 3: Public Administration as Political Science (1938-1947)**

Basheka (2012:43) postulates that by 1914, the American *Political Science Quarterly* had listed Public Administration as one of the five disciplines of Political Science Administration, Comparative Government, Public Law, International Law and Political Theory. Public Administration was therefore one of the critical foundations of Political Science and Political Science was its natural home. But the two disciplines divorced when Public Administration started training people for public service with a curriculum largely independent of Political Science.

By 1939, Public Administration had made great strides in its development into a science and in that year the American Society for Public Administration was formed with its quarterly journal, the *Public Administration Review*. The journal was used to propagate the Public Administration message. Today, the journal is still very actively used for communicating the Public Administration message. The American Society of Public Administration provided a forum for the scholars and practitioners to meet and exchange views, which helped to spread theories and ideas, and led to the development of the science of Public Administration (Basheka, 2012:43).

This era saw scholars revisiting the locus of Public Administration. Henry (1975:381) is of the view that Public Administration was just an area of interest or even a synonym of political science. Interest in the field of Public Administration went down especially in America. Henry (1975:382) confirms Waldo's (1968) idea that animosity exhibited by political scientists towards their counterparts in public administration was conspicuous and postulated that public administration scholars felt they were no longer welcome in "the house of their youth".

In essence, Thornhill (2006:796) postulates that scholars during this generation questioned Wilson's ideas in terms of separating politics and public administration, and the distinction between the two fields was relativised.

#### **(d) Paradigm 4: Public Administration as Administration Science (1948-1970)**

Kettle (2000:10) asserts that soon after the end of the Second World War, Public Administration's place within Political Science declined precipitously. Simple principles about the pursuit of efficiency, based in an administration separate from politics, seemed unacceptably shallow in the light of the war's administrative experience.

Henry (1975:382) postulates that this ideal came into being mainly as a result of the contempt shown to the field by Political Scientists. According to scholars during this paradigm, administration remains administration irrespective of where it is practised; in fact, they further argued that public, business and institutional administration were false distinctions.

During the 1950s and early 1960s, Public Administration suffered from lack of a theoretical guide and a comfortable disciplinary home. While it had come to the realisation that politics mattered, it had not developed a persuasive explanation of how. Meanwhile, much of Political Science had convinced itself that Public Administration had little to offer a more behaviourally-oriented field.

Although some Public Administration scholars started calling for peace talks with Political Science, the conditions of such efforts were stringent (Kettle, 2000:12).

Basheka (2012:48) confirms a notion by Fesler (1975) that the field lacked focus and thus had no identity, noting that some critics had long felt the field was being “slowly nibbled to death” by the behavioural sciences. Political science scholars started developing theories to explain the challenges of the time and this was in complete disregard of the contribution of the discipline of Public Administration as they charged those in Public Administration with having had a very serious poverty of theories. Public Administration was accused of being concerned with mundane or low-level activities of government, unlike Political Science, which was concerned with higher-level strategic activities. Public Administration during this period lacked a natural home as the discipline was no longer welcome in the house of its youth – Political Science. As a result, this period saw several reactions:

- (a) A group of scholars decided to return to their mother discipline of political science, but they were largely not welcome until they fulfilled certain conditions
- (b) Another group of scholars formed a new field of administrative sciences
- (c) Other scholars developed the development and comparative public administration sub-fields
- (d) There emerged calls for the separation movement of public policy from public administration, agitating for the new sub-discipline of public policy separate from public administration.

The development and comparative administration group gained a high degree of recognition during the period. After World War II came to an end, the independence of the colonies came about and the need for development of administrative systems suited to these colonies emerged (Basheka, 2012:49).

Henry (1975:382) postulates that scholars during this period were more interested in the focus and not the locus of the field. Furthermore, it was suggested that organisational theory should be the overarching focus of Public Administration. The major problem would be that the Administrative Science paradigm tended to eliminate the “public” in the administration; this would mean the field

could be absorbed as a subfield in Business Management just as it was regarded as a subfield in the schools of political sciences.

**(e) Paradigm 5: Public Administration as Public Administration (1970-1990)**

During the early 1970s focus on the locus of Public Administration seems to have been diminishing, especially with the realisation that the field is not stagnant. In other words, the traditional rigid distinction between the public and private sector lost currency. The interdisciplinary nature of public administration was also realised as scholars in the field began to have an interest in related fields such as policy science, political economy and others (Henry, 1975:383).

Henry (1975:384) is of the view that one of the important points is that, based on organisational theory and management science, scholars in Public Administration endeavoured to build an autonomous educational curriculum with epistemological uniqueness. The second point was that Public Administration at universities needed to stand on its own rather than to continue being housed in either departments of Political Sciences or Business Management where its growth was likely to be hampered (Henry, 1975:384). The utility of Public Administration in society appeared to be well appreciated and this was a good reason for the field to be autonomous.

**(f) Paradigm 6: Public Administration as New Public Management (1991-?)**

Hughes (2003:48) suggests that governments (and academics) were unconvinced that the traditional system of administration provided an effective form of management of their public services, especially when compared to the robust systems used by the private sector. This thinking brought about the need to inject an entrepreneurial spirit in the running of government using techniques and approaches borrowed from business administration. New modes of delivering public services that relied on business-like styles were proposed. As a result of this thinking all governments, particularly those from the west, including the Scandinavian countries, suggested a comprehensive package of reforms seen as prescriptions to cure the ills of the public sector. It is within this period that somewhere a managerial approach began.

Basheka (2012:52) postulates that the state started rolling back in both developed and developing countries for various reasons, and the emphasis shifted from the state and the public sector to the private sector. The public sector was generally “diagnosed” to have had an acute sickness whose

symptoms manifested themselves in inefficiency and corruption, among others. With this diagnosis, the experts forcefully argued that the prescriptions had to come from an efficient doctor who was only to be found in the private sector. Government was a patient and it needed a doctor! The prescriptions to governments were very clear: liberalise, privatise and stabilise. The implementation was later to see a number of reforms right from the structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) through the capacity-building reforms of the 1990s and the new service improvement reforms of the 2000s.

Minogue, Polidano and Hulme (1999:17) suggest that the focus during this period was on how to make government more economic and efficient in its provision of goods and services to the public. There was contestation of concepts and models during this period and there were many New Public Management (NPM) models put forward.

Basheka (2012:53) is of the view that during this period, there was a collective assault on the organisation of government and vehement questioning of the conventional and traditional ways of doing things. The modalities that had long been relied on to deliver government services became a subject of attack. A clear distinction between private and public administration emerged. A general trend advocating for more “client” or “customer” oriented approaches, decentralisation of authority and being more “business oriented” gained high momentum. There emerged what was labelled the New Public Management (NPM) movement.

The ideas of the NPM were grouped into two strands, namely, those ideas that derived from managerialism (which emphasised management in government) and those ideas emanating from new institutional economics, which emphasised markets and competition as a way of giving choice and voice. NPM became a collective name for a bundle of particular management approaches and techniques, many of which were borrowed from the private sector (Basheka, 2012:53).

According to Minogue *et al.* (1999:18) the following actions needed to be carried out in order for NPM to be realised:

- (a) Restructuring of the public sector, particularly through privatisation
- (b) Restructuring and slimming down central civil services

- (c) Introducing competition, especially through internal markets and contracting out public services to the private sector
- (d) Improving efficiency, especially through performance auditing and measurement.

In this regard, the New Public Management paradigm treats citizens as customers of public services and the ideal is mainly to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in government operations.

Mukonza (2014:506) confirms Minogue *et al.* (1999:17), who stated that these actions further propounded that the above reforms would give birth to a public management characterised by ensuring the following:

1. A separation of strategic policy from operation management
2. A concern with results rather than processes
3. An orientation to the needs of customers rather than bureaucratic organisations
4. A withdrawal from direct provision in favour of a steering or enabling role
5. A transformed bureaucratic culture.

In this regard, Basheka (2012:54) acknowledges a perception of Hughes (2003) that following the changed role of the state and growing demands for good governance globally, the New Public Management (NPM) paradigm emerged to implant a new approach into traditional public administration. This new approach was geared towards enhancing efficiency, productivity, improved service delivery and accountability, and emphasis was oriented to results as opposed to the process – which was the orientation of traditional public administration.

Louw (2012:93) is of the view that the implementation of NPM was not only restricted to developed countries, but has also expanded to developing and transnational societies, in Asia, Latin America and Africa. In South Africa, the NPM was seen as an administrative agenda that included privatisation, deregulation and the re-conceptualisation of the appropriate role of a government in the economy and society. The *Batho Pele* framework in South Africa aligned itself with the global trend of adopting the NPM philosophy.

Emphasis was on the “reinvention of government” and infusion of private sector ideas into the public service, therefore referring to citizens as customers or clients. It is the researcher’s view

that the ideological and value-based assumption of the NPM is based on the presumption that management can be applied to both the public and the private sectors and that it is possible to use the economic market as a model for political and administrative affairs. The NPM is just another management fad, a trend, another thing promising everything. It is nothing more than a set of management gear found to be appropriate for the public service. NPM is the practical result of the normative idea of the 1980s based on the assertion “that private is better than public” (Louw, 2012:93).

Basheka (2012:54) suggests the new approach called for a reduction in the exclusive reliance on public bureaucracy for service delivery to a system that advocated for the increased use of the private sector and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) as alternative mechanisms of service delivery. The new model advocated for the use of private sector-style models, organisational ideas and values to improve the efficiency and service-orientation of the public sector. The politics–administration dichotomy and the principles period were long gone but still alive in reality.

(g) **Paradigm 7: Public Administration as Governance (1995-?)**

The belief that lack of “good governance” might be the main hindrance to economic growth in Africa was firmly set in the minds of the international community following a World Bank report published in 1989 that categorically declared that “Underlying the litany of Africa’s development problems was a crisis of governance”. By “governance” it was meant the exercise of power to manage a nation’s affairs. Since then, the phrase “governance” has attained the status of a mantra in the development business. It is presented as the “discovery of new truths” that must be hammered into the benighted minds of African policy makers. The Africans themselves often consider it as one more item on the list of aid conditionality (Mkandawire, 2007:679).

The new inspiration word came from African scholars although the current use of the concept diverges significantly from their own original understanding. In the preparation of the 1989 report, the World Bank did the then unusual thing of consulting African scholars and commissioning them to prepare background papers, apparently at the insistence of Africans within the World Bank; and it is from this effort that governance became regarded as an important element of any government machinery (Basheka, 2012:58).

Minogue, Polidano and Hulme (1999:4-5) are of the perception that the New Public Management paradigm overly concerned itself with how government could achieve its objectives of becoming economic and efficient in delivering goods and services to the people in a liberal environment where individual preferences dominated over collective ones.

Mukonza (2014:506) confirms a suggestion by Bovaird and Loffer (2003:9) that the concept of governance as used in the public sector has its roots in the private sector where the term “corporate governance” was first mooted to refer to issues of control and decision making in private entities.

According to Thornhill (2006:803), the concept of governance entered the field of Public Administration in the 1980s; however, it did not have a clear meaning. The governance paradigm indicates movement from viewing government as the only driver of society to considering other stakeholders, namely, citizens and business as equally capable of shaping public discourse and the governing processes. Governance, as a term, although reflecting coming together of society’s stakeholders in the process of governing, does not have a universal meaning.

In governance, as Henry (2010:38) sums up, “we are moving away from government, or the control over citizens and the delivery of public benefits by institutions of the state, and we are moving towards governance, or configuration of laws, policies or organizations, institutions, cooperative arrangements, and agreements that control citizens and deliver public benefits”.

Government is institutional; and yet governance is institutional and networked. Much of the new thinking referred to above originated from the developed nations. It filtrated down to developing countries through technical assistance and structural adjustment programmes. The majority of countries in the developing part of the globe experienced rising debt levels and an inability to meet their international obligations. As a solution, most of these countries acceded to reducing the role of the state through implementing whatever prescriptions were suggested by the powerful nations of the world (Henry, 2010:38).

Borrowing from the United Kingdom’s Department of International Development (1993), Minogue, Polidano and Hulme (1999:5-6) argue that governance needs to cover four aspects, as follows:

1. Legitimacy – government must operate with the consent of the governed

2. Accountability – which implies the existence of mechanisms and systems that ensure public officials and political office bearers are answerable to the people for their actions or inactions and (mis)use of public resources
3. Competence of public officials and institutions in implementing public policies that result in efficient service delivery
4. Respect for the law and protection of human rights in the entire system.

The aforementioned principles certainly contribute to ensuring that good governance could be realistic.

Hughes (2003:76) provides a distinction between government and governance. He opines that government is the institution itself, whereas governance is a broader concept describing forms of governing that are not necessarily in the hands of the formal government. It is within this same context that concepts such as corporate governance, local governance, and global governance emerged. Corporate governance, for example, was used to refer to how the private sector structures its internal mechanisms to provide for accountability to its stakeholders. While government may be involved through company law in the affairs of the private sector, there are a number of aspects in which it does not have much control.

Governance is not the preserve of the government alone but certainly it is one of the key players. Other players that may include private sector organisations, the church, non-governmental organisations, professional associations, traditional cultural institutions, and a number of other citizens' groups are important ingredients of good governance machinery. Initially, governments, private institutions, and civil society organisations were seen as critical institutions of governance. It was believed that their participation was crucial in mobilising the knowledge and insight necessary to take advantage of the potential benefits of globalisation and to mitigate or prevent its potential threats. However, inclusion of other players was seen, and continues to be seen, as a mechanism of increasing the whole spectrum of citizen participation (Hughes, 2003:76).

Basheka (2012:60) postulates that to better understand governance, new and sophisticated tools have been developed and are being used to measure the performance of governments. The results from such measurements are now taken seriously by African leaders, policy makers and academics across different fields.

Rotberg and Gisselquist (2009, in Basheka, 2012:60) suggest that an Africa Governance Index could be regarded as one of the tools to measure governance. It has been widely accepted and leaders such as in Rwanda have shown great interest in understanding what they can do to improve their ranking in a given category. However, some leaders dispute specific rankings, but this still implies the measurement system makes them aware of how their governance is perceived domestically and internationally. Some leaders have shown willingness to make changes in their own actions in order to change these perceptions.

The index offers a report card on the accomplishments of each government for the years being investigated. The idea of the index is to measure this statistically, and be able to compare increases or declines in governance. The index results allow citizens of individual countries, and civil society institutions to accurately monitor how well their government is performing. The index is updated annually and even the sources of information are continuously updated both through the efforts of the measuring institutions and other related projects (Basheka, 2012:60).

Within the governance paradigm, Public Administration can be seen as a component of the broader strategy of “good governance” (Minogue, Polidano & Hulme, 1999:6). While governance is accepted as a neutral concept, the grand question is whether it is possible to have a universally accepted good governance model. It also goes without saying that a clear understanding of “bad governance” assists in expounding the governance paradigm.

### 3.3 Contextualising ICT in Public Administration

Mukonza (2014:508) is of the perception that in terms of paradigms in the field of Public Administration, e-governance can be viewed from three different perspectives. These are discussed below.

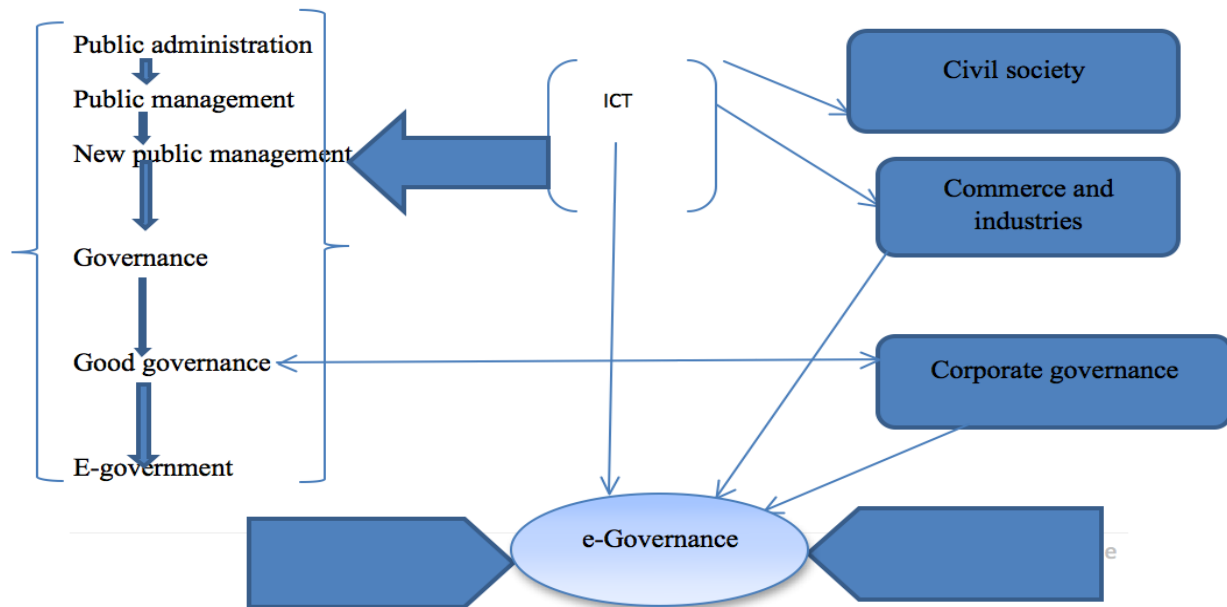
Firstly put to the fore, an introduction of ICTs in governance mainly aided government to be efficient in its delivery of goods and services, and e-governance can be placed in the Public Administration as New Public Management paradigm. This is because this is where the theme of efficiency and effectiveness of government dominated. In this case, the introduction of ICTs in government could be viewed or merely seen as tools that were meant to ensure that NPM goals are met. However, this view ignores the fact that in e-governance, ICTs are not only used in the

operations of government but rather they go beyond to influence how government relates to other stakeholders in society (Chadwick, 2006:179).

Secondly, the introduction of ICTs in the administration of public affairs can be argued to have entrenched democratic practices in society (Misuraca, 2007:9). This view particularly sees the improvement in information sharing between government and stakeholders in society as a result of the introduction of ICTs as a major development in Public Administration. ICTs have given both government and citizens opportunities to interact, thereby enhancing good governance. Satyanarayana (2004:1) aptly argues that ICTs in government are meant to enhance access, transparency and accountability. In this case, e-governance can be seen as belonging to the Public Administration as governance paradigm.

Lastly, it could be argued that e-governance needs to be viewed as a paradigm on its own. Preceding discussions demonstrated that academics and practitioners have changed conceptual preferences on Public Administration as a field of study at different epochs of history. The adoption of ICTs in the running of government has changed its character. This is true whether viewed from the internal government operations point of view (G2G) or from how government interacts with other stakeholders (G2C & G2B). Muhammad and Abu Momtaz (2007:31) argue that the introduction of ICTs in governance has improved the image of government in the eyes of citizens. For a long time, government has been associated with rigidity, wastefulness and being unresponsiveness, among other things.

In this regard, e-governance as a development in Public Administration is greatly influenced by developments in other sectors, such as Information Communication Technology and Commerce. The developments in these fields had significant impacts on e-governance. As a result of government lagging behind other sectors within the contexts of ICT, there was clearly a need to borrow lessons from sectors such as Commerce. This culminated in ensuring effectiveness and efficiency in how government relates to its stakeholders. Figure 3.1 below illustrates how e-governance has been influenced by other fields and sectors (Mukonza, 2014:508).



**Figure 3.1: Contextualising e-governance to public administration**

*Adapted from: Mukonza, 2014:509*

Figure 3.1 illustrates that while developments were taking place in the field Public Administration, there were also developments in other areas that have had an influence on e-governance as we know it today. Major contributions are, of course, from the field of ICT, as any developments in this area had an impact on the adoption and use of ICTs in government. The introduction of corporate governance in the private sector influenced the governance paradigm and consequently e-governance. In this regard, e-governance is also dependent to a large extent on the adoption of ICTs by civil society (Mukonza, 2014:509).

It can be argued that the developments in Public Administration coupled with contributions from the fields of Commerce and ICT have given rise to a transformed state in Public Administration.

### 3.4 The nexus between ICTs, citizens and governance

The United Nations has long recognised the role of information and communications technology (ICT) as a tool for development. The Millennium Development Goals 2015 (MDGs), which were adopted in 2000, underscored the urgency of ensuring that the benefits of new technologies, including ICT, are available to all (United Nations, 2010:xi).

The ICT applications are pervading society at all levels, including government. They have become commonplace in such sectors as trade, commerce, banking, education, health, employment, environment and agriculture (United Nations, 2010:xii).

The introduction of digital governance could be a way to ensure that citizens have equal right to be part of decision-making processes that affect them directly or indirectly, and influence their conditions and quality of lives. The use of new technologies in governance can undoubtedly provide an opportunity to raise the quality of life, foster economic growth and help citizens in their everyday lives (Mokhele & de Beer, 2007:65).

ICT is a vital tool for enhancing governance because it can improve transparency, accountability and the free flow of information between institutions and departments within a government. ICT eases the participation of citizens in the adoption of decisions that influence their living standards and enables the diffusion of information between citizens and governments. The ideal of better governance is achieved by the means of ICT enabling the convergence of societies for more participation and information sharing (Hellstrom, 2008:2).

In the historical context of the 21st century, advanced ICTs can and are expected to play key roles in both governance “the looking after and making decisions about”, that is, regarding the whys and hows of governing, as well as the government “office, authority, or function of governing”, that is, regarding the what, who, when, and where of government. The degree of smartness in governance and government, that is, the “intelligent and adaptive action” with regard to governance and government, is then related to the facilitating capabilities and enabling uses of advanced ICTs. This, in turn, raises the issue of how the governance of ICT structures and processes in public administration has to be formed and developed (Scholl & Alawadhi, 2016:23).

In this regard, the technological innovation and convergence in information and communications have led to the development of the so-called information or knowledge societies, with resulting changes in social interaction, economic and business practices, political engagement, education, health, leisure and entertainment. Over the past decade, there has been a growing understanding that these technologies can be powerful instruments for advancing economic and social development through the creation of new types of online and offline activities, economic activities, employment opportunities, education and training, improvements in health-care delivery and other

services, and the enhancement of networking, participation and advocacy within society and, above all, transparency and efficiency through e-governance (United Nations, 2010:xv).

ICT has great potential to improve interaction between governments and citizens, fostering transparency and accountability in governance. While the potential of ICT for stimulating economic growth, socio-economic development and effective governance is well recognised, the benefits of ICT have been unevenly distributed within and between countries (United Nations, 2010:xvi).

Schellong (2009:13, in Wagenaar, Boersma & Meijer, 2009) provides a notion that governments of any form interact with citizens and businesses. This is central to the business of government. Interactions can be initiated by either side and can be either mandatory or voluntary. They can be of a very short nature or can last a lifetime. Moreover, interactions can happen through various channels: in person (e.g. with a police officer or case worker), at the office, through the mail, a call centre or the Internet.

ICTs' capillary penetration into our daily lives further challenges traditional political processes by enhancing the participation of non-conventional and non-governmental actors. Not only do networked digital technologies support actors in their organisational activities, but they also contribute to the opening up of new spaces for interaction. In this sense, beside official institutional venues such as high-level summits and consultations, relations between governmental and non-governmental actors can be established online with a view to achieving common goals and policies but also to promote alternative, and sometimes conflicting, frames (Podovani & Pavan, 2016: 351).

Schellong (2009:13, in Wagenaar *et al.*, 2009) postulates that advances in ICT and a rapid adoption of it by society in the late 1990s forced governments to draw their attention to utilising the possibilities of the internet and other technologies. The potential of online citizen–government interactions was identified in two areas. On the one hand, e-government was supposed to offer citizens a convenient and easy way to interact with government at any time. At the same time this was expected to reduce the transaction costs of government services. On the other hand, e-government was supposed lead to a transformation of the citizen–government relationship. By allowing for new forms of participation and greater transparency, it was hoped that the democratisation of the political system would be facilitated.

The information and communication technologies provide many opportunities for government, such as:

- (a) increased operational efficiency by reducing administrative costs and increasing productivity
- (b) better quality of services provided by government agencies
- (c) increased responsibility
- (d) more accurate delivery of services
- (e) reduction of time, especially for repetitive administration tasks, etc. (Angeleski, Mitrevski, Rocheska & Lashkoska, 2014:2).

In this regard, the use of ICT by government optimises the delivery of services to its citizens in a manner that is cost effective.

The use of ICT in government should be implemented to facilitate a more effective and efficient use of development resources by fostering greater accountability, transparency and by reducing corruption through better financial, public information management, procurement and administration systems. The realisation of electronic government and transformation of service delivery would be accompanied by basic decisions and day-to-day practical actions in governance (Mokhele & de Beer, 2007:66).

Furthermore, good governance relates to a broad array of practices that maximise the common practices and management styles. Some of its visible attributes are participation in government, rule of law, transparency and accountability. In the public management realm, good quality of service valued by citizens, promotion of increasing managerial autonomy, especially the reduction of central agency controls, demands, measures, etc., are emphasised. In this regard, electronic service delivery can and does contribute to good governance (Mokhele & de Beer, 2007:63).

### 3.5 Clarification of key concepts

Maserumule (2004:78) suggests that the clarification of concepts is a very important intellectual exercise that needs to be seriously inculcated among policy makers. It must precede any policy development initiative so as to ensure that the objectives intended to be achieved are properly

captured and clearly understood using appropriate concepts, as they are important tools used in the thinking process.

The usage of the “e-” prefix (which is an abbreviation for “electronic”) has become common practice nowadays. Wherever it appears it gives the idea of a particular field related to the usage of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). E-government is one of the issues increasingly included. At the same time, terms such as “e-government, e-governance and e-democracy” have appeared in order to define how the state uses ICT for carrying out its duties (Obi, 2007:26).

Following is the clarification of e-government, e-governance and e-democracy, in order to have a better understanding of these concepts, given the fact that they are usually used as synonyms.

### 3.5.1 E-government

There are multiple definitions of e-government among researchers and specialists, but most of them agree to define electronic government as government use of information communication technologies to offer citizens and businesses the opportunity to interact and conduct business with government by using different electronic media such as telephone touch pad, fax, smart cards, self-service kiosks, e-mail and the internet. It is about how government organises itself in terms of its administration, rules, regulations and frameworks set out to carry out service delivery and to coordinate, communicate and integrate processes within itself (Almarabeh & Abuali, 2010).

Du Toit *et al.* (2002:263) suggest that e-government can be regarded as the means of using digital technology to enable citizens, taxpayers and visitors to access information and services from government. E-government in this context is the utilisation of ICT to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in the operations of government.

E-government refers to the delivery of national or local government information and services via the internet or other digital means to citizens or businesses or other governmental agencies. E-government is a one-stop internet gateway to major government services. E-government facilitates provision of relevant government information in electronic form to citizens in a timely manner; delivers better service to citizens; empowers people through access to information without the

bureaucracy; improves productivity and cost savings in doing business with suppliers and customers of government; and allows participation in public policy decision making (Palvia & Sharma, 2015:1).

### 3.5.2 E-governance

The concept of e-governance is much broader than the concept e-government. It allows citizens to communicate with government, participate in the government's policy making and in the democratic political process, and to communicate with each other (Angeleski *et al.*, 2014:1).

E-governance can be regarded as the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) to support public services, government administration, democratic processes, and relationships among citizens, civil society, the private sector, and the state (Dawes, 2008:36). The concept of e-governance is associated with the public sector's use of information and communication technologies with the aim of improving information and service delivery, encouraging citizen participation in the decision-making process, and making government more accountable, transparent and effective (UNESCO, 2011).

E-governance seeks to provide services to citizens, businesses and other arms of government through the use of information technology in order to improve the delivery of public services and internal efficiency or processes of democratic governance (Al-Hossienie & Barua, 2013:153).

Van der Waldt (2014:48, in van der Waldt, Khalo, Nearler, Phutiagae, van der Walt, van Niekerk & Venter, 2014) further suggests that e-governance involves using technology to bring government to recipients of services, businesses, and other partners and clients in new ways. It is the pragmatic use of the most innovative ICTs, such as the internet, to deliver efficient and cost-effective services, information and knowledge.

Al-Hossienie and Barua (2013:153) further suggest that e-governance involves new styles of leadership, new ways of debating and deciding policy and investment, new ways of accessing education, new ways of listening to citizens, and new ways of organising and delivering information and services. E-governance is generally considered to be a wider concept than e-

government, since it can bring about a change in the way citizens relate to governments and to each other.

### 3.5.3 E-democracy

The concept of e-democracy can be regarded as the use of information and communication technologies and strategies by democratic sectors within the political processes of local communities, states/regions, nations and on the global stage. The democratic sectors in this case include governments, elected officials, media and major on-line portals, political parties, interest groups, civil society organisations, international governmental organisations and citizens/voters (Clift 2004:38).

E-democracy could bring greater and more active citizen participation enabled by the internet, mobile communications and other technologies. It could also bring about a different role for government and a more participatory role for government and more participatory forms of direct citizen involvement in efforts to address public challenges (van der Waldt, 2014:48, in van der Waldt *et al.*, 2014).

The concept of e-democracy is associated with efforts to broaden political participation by enabling citizens to connect with one another and with their representatives via new information and communication technologies (Chadwick, 2003:448). E-democracy could then be regarded as an application of information and communication technologies to enhance and promote democratic practices in a country's systems of governance.

### 3.5.4 Relationship among concepts

The idea that will lead this section is that e-government and e-governance are not meant to be used as synonyms. The concept of e-governance is a broader one, and the result of an evolution of the way the state interacts with its citizens, a broader topic that deals with the whole spectrum of the relationship and networks within government regarding the usage and application of ICT (Obi, 2007:28).

The term e-government refers to the usage of ICT as tools that will allow the state to communicate with its citizens, and the citizens with their state agencies. The term e-governance refers to ICT used in order to boost the active participation of the citizens in the political procedures of their country, giving a channel to “hear their voice” in a dynamic process of continuous feedback. Given this difference, it can be said that the concept of e-governance is closely related to the concept of e-democracy, which considers the usage of ICT for ensuring the participation of the relevant actors in the political life and processes of a country (Obi, 2007:29).

In accordance with the similarities that exist between e-governance and e-democracy, there is a temptation from authors to treat e-democracy as e-governance (Cliff, 2004). On the other hand, Maserumule (2004:78) argues that the two should be treated differently and e-democracy should rather be treated as an extension of e-government.

A prominent difference between e-governance and e-government is that the former goes beyond the scope of the later and e-governance does not just refer to a website and e-mail. It is further argued that e-governance changes the relationship between government institutions and the environment, which includes business and civil society (Mukonza, 2014:501).

The analysis of the selected definitions of e-government and e-governance has shown that they should be used for different purposes: e-government is a tool to be used by the state to give better services to citizens. This should encourage the citizens to actively engage themselves in the political processes of their country, which is the main goal to be achieved by e-governance.

### 3.6 The origin of e-governance

Mukonza, (2014:502) suggests that it appears there is no general consensus about where and when e-governance really started, just as much as scholars do not make a clear-cut distinction on e-government manifesting before e-governance.

Pabhru (2012:5) attempts to give a historical account that cuts across geographical regions; he asserts that Chile is credited with implementing the earliest form of e-governance in the nineteen seventies. It is also argued that the origins of e-governance globally are closely linked to the

concept “Information Super Highway”, which is first attributed to former United States of America’s Vice President Al Gore in the 1990s.

Mukonza (2014:502) confirms a view by Prabhu (2004:5) that the Information Super Highway as a term was defined largely in terms of information infrastructure at the national level by countries such as Canada, the United States of America, United Kingdom, Australia and India.

Pabhru (2012:5) further asserts that during this period, emphasis was placed on the development of components of infrastructure such as fibre optic networks both within and across different states. With time, interest moved to socio-economic considerations with development of the concept of Information Society or Knowledge Society which, among other things, encompassed e-governance. Initial focus was on implementing information systems in government departments and public institutions.

Mukonza (2005:502) confirms an assertion by Muhammad and Abu Momtaz (2007:34) that the core idea of e-governance is associated with the “putting government online”, which first emerged in the technologically advanced countries in the West in the 1990s. At these early stages emphasis was put on cost reduction through increased efficiency, and little was mentioned of citizen participation in governing.

Prabhu (2012:5) is of the view that the adoption of ICTs in government generally lagged behind that of the world of commerce. He contends that the commercial world, including the industrial world, had gone far ahead of governments in harnessing the potential of the ICTs in their internal business as well as in periphery activities (Prabhu, 2012). In the 1980s and 1990s, commercial entities increasingly adopted and utilised ICTs to improve the quality of their services to clients. This enhanced efficiency, speed and convenience of private sector services. The adoption of ICTs in business was termed e-commerce and common activities include the use of Automated Teller Machines (ATMs), electronic shopping, integrating cable television with the internet, and many others.

### 3.7 Why e-governance?

The fundamental motivation of e-governance is a slogan to provide SMART government – the acronym of “SMART” being Simple, Moral, Accountable, Responsive and Transparent government. This, without a doubt, proves to be a laudable ideal, as difficult as it may be to achieve in reality. Through this plausible initiative, we may conceive a Smart village, or Smart municipality or a Smart state, all very difficult, but ideal models (Pabhru, 2012:2).

Heeks (2001:3) suggests that all over the world, government in the developing nations costs too much, delivers too little, and is not sufficiently responsive or accountable. E-governance in this regard may offer a new way forward, helping improve government processes, connect citizens, and build interactions with and within civil society.

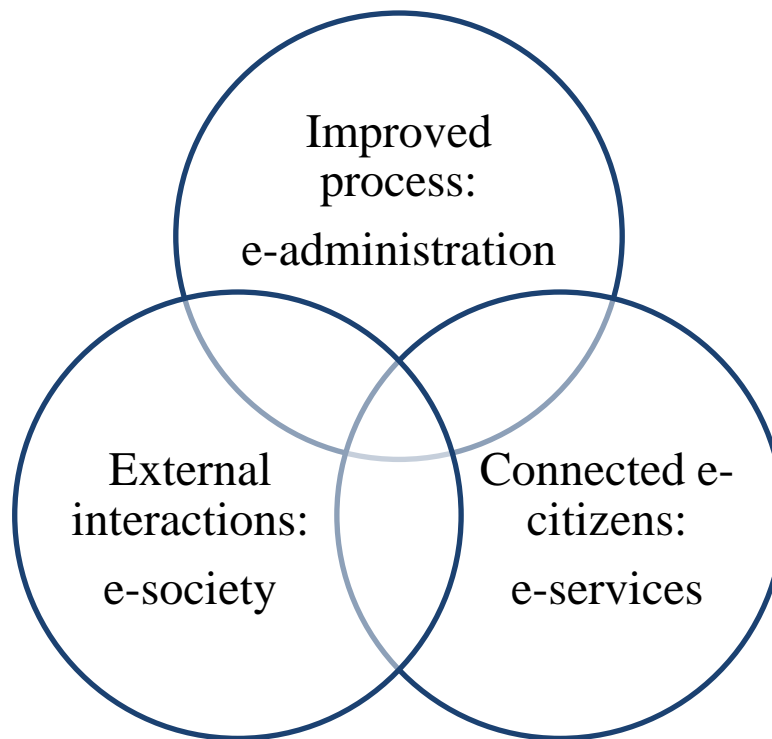
A clear objective of e-governance can be cutting the cost of governance and also minimising the complexities of procedures by possible business process reengineering. The concomitant benefit is empowerment of people through eliminating the middleman or tout between the government and the people (Prabhu, 2012:2).

E-governance at its root has the power of ICTs, which provide three basic change potentials for good governance essential for development, as follows:

- (a) Automation: this involves replacing current human-executed processes, which involve accepting, storing, processing, outputting or transmitting information, for example, the automation of existing clerical functions
- (b) Informatisation: this includes supporting current human-executed information processes, for example, supporting current processes of decision making, communication and decision implementation
- (c) Transformation: this includes creating new ICT-executed information processes or supporting new human-executed information processes, for example, creating new methods of public service delivery (Heeks, 2001:3).

E-governance targets three related objectives of improving government processes (e-administration), connecting citizens (e-citizens and e-services), and building external interactions

(e-society) (Heeks, 2001:2). In Figure 3.2 below, Heeks succinctly and lucidly captures the three related objectives of e-governance. These objectives are discussed briefly in the following section.



**Figure 3.2: E-governance's three related objectives**

*Source: Adapted from Heeks, 2001:15*

### 3.7.1 Improving processes: e-administration

This initiative deals particularly with improving the internal workings of the public sector (Heeks, 2001:5). This may include, among others:

(a) Cutting process costs

This initiative involves the notion of improving the input:output ratio by cutting financial costs and/or time costs. Automation can replace higher human costs with lower ICT costs to support efficiency/productivity improvements. Informatisation can support decisions and implementation in downsizing or rightsizing exercises. The rationale is to address the large amount of public sector expenditure and/or the inefficiency of many of its processes.

(b) Making strategic connections in government

This entails connecting arms, agencies, levels and data stores of government to strengthen government's capacity to investigate, develop and implement the strategy and policy that guide government processes. Examples of such connections may include central-to-local, ministry-to-ministry, executive-to-legislature, and decision maker-to-data store. Automation and informatisation support this by digitising existing information channels. Transformation, on the other hand, supports this by creating new digital channels (Heeks, 2001:5).

### 3.7.2 Connecting citizens: e-citizens and e-services

Heeks (2001:8) is of the view that connecting citizens primarily focuses on the relationship between government and citizens either as voters/stakeholders from whom the public sector derives its legitimacy, or as customers who consume public services. These initiatives include a broader remit of the following:

#### (a) Talking to citizens

This initiative concerns itself with providing citizens with details of public sector activities. This mainly relates to certain types of accountability: making public servants more accountable for their decisions and actions. Informatisation and transformation support this by providing the new information flows from government to citizens on which accountability depends.

#### (b) Listening to citizens

This initiative seeks to increase the input of citizens into public sector decisions and actions. This could be flagged as either democratisation or participation. The main potential is for informatisation and transformation to support this by providing new information flows from citizens to government. The rationale is to make public decisions more responsive to citizens' views or needs (Heeks, 2001:9).

### 3.7.3 Building external interactions: e-society

With regard to building external interactions, Heeks (2001:12) suggests that the fundamental ideal is mainly that of dealing particularly with the relationship between public agencies and other

institutions – other public agencies, private sector service providers, non-profit and community organisations – and with the relationship between civil society institutions. This initiative includes a broader remit of the following:

(a) Working better with business

This involves enhancing the interaction between government and business. This includes digitising procurement from and services to business to improve their quality, convenience and cost.

This initiative uses all the potentials of ICTs to deliver the informational components of public services to business in digital form. It also includes digital support for opening up government to business through outsourcing and other public–private partnerships. The direct rationale is to drive costs down and quality up within government, but there is also an indirect rationale of improving the efficiency and responsiveness of local business.

(b) Developing communities

This entails building the social and economic capacities and capital of local communities. This uses all the potentials of ICTs to strengthen current information connections and to build new information connections within communities and between communities and other institutions. The rationale is to improve the wealth-creation potential and quality of life of community members (Heeks, 2001:12).

(c) Building partnerships

Strengthening institutional relationships has two parts. First, the focal point is largely on building government partnerships: strengthening relations between government and other institutions such as NGOs or international organisations. Secondly, the focus is on building civil society partnerships, thus strengthening relations between the institutions of civil society, such as between NGOs. This uses all the potentials of ICTs to strengthen current information connections and to build new information connections between institutions. The rationale is to create a strong economic, social and political “fabric” within society (Heeks, 2001:12). Table 3.1 below illustrates the main group interactions in e-governance.

**Table 3:1 Main group interactions in e-governance**

	<b>E-democracy</b>	<b>E-government</b>
<b>External</b>		
G2C: Government to citizen	X	X
G2B: Government to business	X	X
<b>Internal</b>	X	
G2G: Government to government	X	X

*Source: Adapted from Backus, 2001:4*

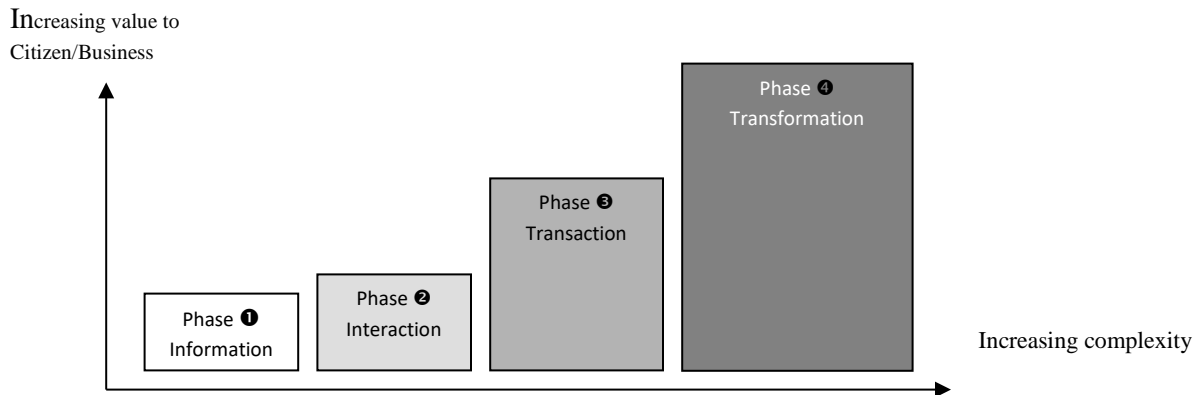
In the light of the above, the three main target groups that could be distinguished in e-governance concepts are government, citizens and businesses/interest groups. The external strategic objectives focus on citizens and businesses and interest groups, the internal objectives focus on government itself (Backus, 2001:4).

### 3.8 Models of e-governance

Accenture (2002) affirms that e-governance transforms according to four stages, namely:

- (a) Information: Presence
- (b) Interaction: Intake processes
- (c) Transaction: Complete transactions
- (d) Transformation: Integration and change.

In each of the four phases, the delivery of online services and use of ICTs in government operations serve one or more of the aspects of e-governance: democracy, government, business (Backus, 2001:5). The figure below depicts the models of e-governance.



**Figure 3.3: Models of e-governance**

*Source: Adapted from Backus, 2001:5*

Following is the elucidation of the transformational stages of e-governance.

### 3.8.1 Stage 1: Information

Islam and Ahmed (2007:40) postulate that this first stage of e-governance means being present on the web, providing the external public government to citizen (G2C) and government to business (G2B) with relevant information. The format of the first government websites is similar to that of a brochure or leaflet. The value to the public is that government information is publicly accessible; processes are described and thus become more transparent, which improves democracy and service. Internally government to government (G2G), the government can also disseminate information with static electronic means, such as the internet.

### 3.8.2 Stage 2: Interaction

Backus (2001:6) maintains that in stage 2 of e-governance transformation, the interaction between government and the citizen (G2C) and government to business (G2B) is stimulated with various applications. People can ask questions via e-mail, use search engines for information and are able to download all sorts of forms and documents. These functionalities save time. In fact, the complete intake of (simple) applications can be done online 24/7. Normally this would have only been possible at a counter during open hours. Internally (G2G), government organisations use Local Area Networks (LAN), intranets and e-mail to communicate and exchange data.

### 3.8.3 Stage 3: Transaction

Islam and Ahmed (2007:41) suggest that in stage 3 of e-governance the complexity of the technology is increasing, but customer (G2C and G2B) value will also be higher. Complete transactions can be done without going to an office. Examples of online services are filing income tax, filing property tax, extending/renewal of licences, visa and passports and online voting. Furthermore, this stage is mainly complex because of security and personalisation issues, e.g. digital (electronic) signatures are necessary to enable legal transfer of services. On the business side the government is starting with e-procurement applications. In this phase, internal (G2G) processes have to be redesigned to provide good service. Government needs to create new laws and legislation that will enable paperless transactions.

### 3.8.4 Stage 4: Transformation

Backus (2001:6) is of the view that this stage concerns itself as the transformation in which all information systems are integrated and the public can get G2C and G2B services at one (virtual) counter. One single point of contact for all services is the ultimate goal. The complex aspect in reaching this goal is mainly on the internal side, e.g. the necessity to drastically change culture, processes and responsibilities within the government institution (G2G). Government employees in different departments have to work together in a smooth and seamless way. In this phase cost savings, efficiency and customer satisfaction reach highest possible levels.

In accordance with the above segment, the four models could be summarised in tabular form as depicted in Table 3.2 below.

**Table 3.2: Models of e-governance**

<b>Overview e-governance solutions</b>			
	<b>External: G2C</b>	<b>External: G2B</b>	<b>Internal: G2G</b>
Phase ①: Information	Local/Departmental/ National information (mission statements)	Business information	Knowledge base (static intranet)

	<p>and organisational structure</p> <p>Addresses, opening hours, employees, telephone numbers</p> <p>Laws, rules and regulations</p> <p>Petitions</p> <p>Government glossary</p> <p>News</p>	<p>Addresses, opening hours, employees, telephone numbers</p> <p>Laws, rules and regulations</p>	<p>Knowledge management (LAN)</p>
<p>Phase ②: Interaction</p>	<p>Downloading forms on websites</p> <p>Submitting forms</p> <p>Online help with filling in forms (permits, birth/death certificates)</p> <p>Intake processes for permits, etc.</p> <p>E-mail</p> <p>Newsletters</p> <p>Discussion groups (e-democracy)</p> <p>Polls and questionnaires</p> <p>Personalised web pages</p> <p>Notification</p>	<p>Downloading forms on websites</p> <p>Submitting forms</p> <p>Online help with filling in forms (permits)</p> <p>Intake processes for permits, etc.</p> <p>E-mail</p> <p>Notification</p>	<p>E-mail</p> <p>Interactive knowledge databases</p> <p>Complaint handling tools</p>
<p>Phase ③: Transaction</p>	<p>Licence applications/renewals</p>	<p>Licence applications and</p>	<p>Inter-governmental transactions</p>

	Renewing car tags, vehicle registration Personal accounts (my tax, my fines, my licences, etc.) Payment of (property) taxes Payment of tickets and fines Paying utility bills Registering and voting online	renewals via website Payment of taxes Procurement	
Phase ④: Transformation	Personalised website with integrated personal account for all services	Personalised website with integrated business account for all services	Database integration

Source: Adapted from Backus, 2001:7

### 3.9 Bridging the digital divide

The nature of the digital divide is complex and contentious therefore an accurate diagnosis of its causes is imperative in order to discern and implement the proper solutions (Stoiciu, 2011:38). The digital divide has been perceived as being between those with and those without access to the internet. Whether this divide is shrinking or growing, and what difference it makes for individuals and societies, has become one of the central issues (Dutton, Shepherd & di Gennaro, 2007:32, in Anderson, Brynim, Gershung & Raban, 2007).

Cullen (2003:247) postulates that the concept of digital divide could be regarded as the metaphor used to describe the perceived disadvantage of those who either are unable or do not choose to make use of ICT in their daily lives. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2001:12-23) perceives the digital divide as the gap in the information

infrastructure, and approaches the digital divide with four indicators, namely, access to ICTs and the internet, the price of access, using the internet, and alternative internet access.

Mariscal (2005:410) defines the concept as the gap between individuals, households, business and geographic areas at different socio-economic levels with regard both to their opportunities to access information technologies and to the use of such technologies for a wide variety of activities.

The digital divide concept may refer to the differences in resources and capabilities to access and effectively utilise ICT for developments that exist within and between countries, regions, sectors and socio-economic groups. The digital divide is manifested by low levels of access to ICT. Inadequate network infrastructure, insufficient content in local language, the inability of people to afford it, poverty, illiteracy, lack of computer literacy, are among the factors impeding access to ICT, especially in the developing countries (UN, 2010:xvi).

The concept of the digital divide has been evolving over the years, being generally defined as a social issue linked to the different amount of information between those individuals who have access to the information society and information and communication technology and those who do not. It also refers to countries, regions, cities, and businesses that are at a differentiated socio-economic and cultural level with regard to ICT accessibility (Stoiciu, 2011:37).

The digital divide also refers to the gap between people who obtain and use information through computers and those who do not in a narrow sense, and the phenomenon that inequality in information acquisition causes the disparity of wealth in a broad sense (Baum & Mahizhnan, 2014:272).

Castells defines the digital divide as inequality of access to the internet (Castells, 2002:248). Access to the internet is, moreover, a requisite for overcoming inequality in a society whose dominant functions and social groups are increasingly organised around the internet (Castells, 2002:248).

Looking at the different perspectives of the digital divide, Helbig, Gil-Garcia and Ferro (2009:90) suggest three commonly used approaches to the digital divide:

1. Access divide
2. Multi-dimensional digital divide

### 3. Multi-perspective digital divide.

In this regard, the access divide focuses on the division between individuals and groups that do or do not have access to technologies, simplifying therefore the divide as a gap that exists solely as a technological problem. Based on this technological determination, information technologies can solve social, political, economic and organisational problems. Therefore, ICTs have the potential to improve government actions (e-government) and to eliminate the digital divide (United Nations e-government survey, 2016:96).

According to the United Nations e-government survey (2016:96), the multi-dimensional digital divide implies that the digital divide is not just about access, but more about other social, political, educational and economic issues. The UN e-government survey (2016:96) affirms this perspective of Norris and Pipa (2002), that the digital divide could be seen as a mirror of social inequality, thus being a global divide, social divide and democratic divide. The public policy response thus aims to address social, political, educational, and economic factors.

The United Nations e-government survey (2016:96) suggests that the multi-perspective digital divide builds upon the multi-dimensional digital divide and focuses on the interrelationships of technology with race, gender and culture. In this regard, the digital divide may be understood by examining the various ways that different factors (e.g. age, gender race, etc.) interact to shape the experiences of the users (Helbig, Gil-García & Ferro, 2009:90).

The widening of the digital divide causes the gap in information literacy and economic activity, which in turn, leads to inequality in opportunities of communication and participation, hindering social inclusion and damaging social values and foundations needed to enter a line of advanced countries. Bridging the digital divide has become an important informatisation policy area for both strengthening of national competitiveness and social welfare (Baum & Mahizhnan, 2014:272).

Mphidi (2009:1) acknowledges the view of Kroukamp (2005) that disparity in access to information and communication technologies (ICTS) that may result from differences in class, race, age, culture, geography or other factors can effectively deprive certain citizens of participation in the global economy.

The digital divide brings about and increases inequality among classes and regions, and reduces the economic and social benefits created as a result of ICT development. A country therefore needs

to consider the issue as a national challenge and approach it from the perspective of balanced growth and inclusion (Baum & Mahizhnan, 2014:272).

South African communities, especially those in rural areas and other disadvantaged parts of the country, have very limited access even to electricity and telephone lines. Another main barrier to ICT access relates to the high cost of internet access, connectivity problems, lack of technical skills to support maintenance and a low number of computers with internet connectivity at schools, libraries and other public places (Mokhele & de Beer, 2007:64).

Stoiciu (2011:39) suggests the key elements in developing e-governance as a defining factor in bridging the digital divide are as follows:

- (a) International, national and regional co-operation
- (b) Harmonisation of the legal framework and regulation
- (c) Ensuring a minimum package of interconnected and e-services
- (d) Promoting ICT skills and digital literacy in a non-discriminative manner
- (e) Educating and preparing the population of less-developed regions for the Information Society and encouraging e-readiness
- (f) Running pilot e-services in less-developed regions, together with the proper technical assistance
- (g) Developing e-learning and suitable ICT content
- (h) Developing e-participation and the inclusion of various social categories in policy making and decision making, even by using new media technologies, such as social networks
- (i) Usage of mobile communication as infrastructure for the dissemination of e-services
- (j) Increasing the transparency in decision making and budget spending by implementing e-services
- (k) Involving citizens in all aspects of local and national public administration processes
- (l) Increasing the quality of life in all its aspects through better e-services and access to knowledge.

In this regard, government needs to provide more training to the ordinary citizens on how to use these ICT facilities to access e-governance service. They also need to address the issue of human capital by ensuring that competent staff is appointed to develop and maintain e-governance services. The government also need to assist their citizens with access to affordable internet services so that these people are able to use more e-governance services. Essentially, more funding needs to be allocated to e-governance projects. These projects will require a large amount of funds (Mphidi, 2009:1).

### 3.10 E-services

Prabhu (2011:1) maintains that various manifestations of e-governance initiative will be in terms of the government delivering to citizens services of transacting business, offering general information, or conducting interactions with the general public and business using information technology tools as follows:

- (a) E-mail
- (b) Internet web site publishing
- (c) Web Application Proxy (WAP) application and publishing
- (d) SMS connectivity
- (e) Intranet development and usage
- (f) Promotion of citizen access.

Information and communication technologies could then be regarded as a catalyst to providing timely and accessible information to citizens.

In the light of the above, Buckley (2003:456) defines an electronic service or e-service as the delivery of public services to citizens, business partners and suppliers, and those working in the government sector by electronic media including information, communication, interaction and contracting, and transaction.

Similarly, Rowley (2006:341) defines e-services as “deeds, efforts or performances whose delivery is mediated by information technology. Such e-service includes the service element of customer support, and service delivery”.

Asgarkhani (2012:28) stresses typical applications of e-services as follows:

- Providing access: making information accessible to citizens (public kiosk, internet, CDs, and so on)
- Connection to a process or service: providing information and/or access to government ICT-based systems, information management solutions and true web-based services
- Raising awareness: providing information on the political process, services and options that are available for the decision-making process
- Facilitating consultation and/or communication: initiating and developing the means of capacity building, exchanging prior gained experiences, access to experts, and any other information/knowledge of mutual interest
- Active citizen involvement/participation: involving citizens in government decision making, problem solving and election processes.

In this regard, information communication technologies encompass reform through improvement in terms of which government executes its functions. Such reform should also improve the relations that exist among government, citizens and business.

### 3.11 Benefits of e-governance

The application of e-governance presents various benefits to government and citizens, respectively. Table 3.3 below illustrates the benefits of e-governance.

**Table 3.3: Benefits of e-governance**

<b>Advantage</b>	<b>Brief explanation</b>
Is cost effective	Reduces cost in rendering service

Is time saving	Reduces delays in delivering services
Improves communication	Allows for communication between government and citizens
Expands access	Citizens gain access to public sector information
Increases transparency and public accountability	Offers strong bonds between public and servants based on transparency and accountability
Increases efficiency	Produces more output at the same total cost in less time
Increases effectiveness	Governance that works better: producing the same outputs at the same cost in the same time, but to a higher quality standard

*Source: Adapted from Mphidi, 2009:5*

Hobbs (2001) suggests that an application of e-governance offers many benefits for the government, corporate sector and society at large. Following are some of the benefits in this regard:

- (a) Improved government decision making
- (b) Increased citizen trust in government
- (c) Increased government accountability and transparency
- (d) The ability to accommodate the needs of the public
- (e) The ability to effectively involve stakeholders, including NGOs, business and interested citizens, in new ways of meeting societal challenges.

The use of ICT may uphold transparency and accountability in government. This may result in ensuring that the tenets of good governance are maintained and promoted in the public sector (Maleka, 2016:171).

### 3.12 Challenges of e-governance

According to Kroukamp (2005:55), introducing e-governance may pose huge challenges to many governments. Difficulties may arise in the development, implementation and updating of e-

government sites. Mphidi (2009:6) acknowledges the view of van Themaat (2004) that the issue of e-government in South Africa could be part of the country's historical and social context and e-government initiatives in the country therefore have to deal with a number of challenges.

The Presidential Review Commission (1998) identified a lack of strategic direction in the utilisation of information management, information management systems and information technology, to support government's goals. These are among a number of challenges that need to be addressed for South Africa information systems to be able to deliver on the development priorities (Mokhele & de Beer, 2007:64).

In this regard, Kroukamp (2005:56) asserts the serious challenges that could emanate from e-governance as follows:

- (a) Privacy: Many e-government systems collect, store and use the personal details of those who use their services or visits websites. That can pose a threat to individual privacy
- (b) Security: Governments will need to protect their information and systems from breaches of computer security that threaten not only the integrity and availability of services but also the confidence of users and the general public in the system
- (c) Economic disparities: The economically disadvantaged have the lowest level of access to e-governance
- (d) Education: Educated people are more likely to use the internet. Essentially, this implies that as the standard of education rises, so does use of the internet.
- (e) Accessibility: Ensuring accessibility to all members of society is essential. This must include individuals with disabilities being able to use e-government websites
- (f) Citizen awareness and confidence: Creating awareness of the advantages of e-governance and persuading people to become users of the system are bigger challenges.

In accordance with the aforementioned challenges, government has a responsibility to bridge the past inequalities and irregularities of society to ensure equal access to pertinent services.

Amid the aforementioned challenges of e-governance, Former President Thabo Mbeki (2004) affirmed that the Departments of Public Service and Administration, Provincial and Local

Government, and Communications will work together to ensure that modern information and communication are introduced to assist in the developmental and governance efforts. The following section explains mobile governance.

### 3.13 The mobile government

Mobile government (m-government) is defined as an ICT application to provide citizens with government information and services through mobile technologies (Mtingwi & van Belle, 2013:221). Contrarily, e-governance has been perceived as a key to better governance (Narayan, 2007:1). The ideal of e-governance is perceived as the public sector's use of information and communication with the objective to optimise information and service delivery (Mphidi, 2009).

M-government is the extension of e-government to mobile platforms, as well as the strategic use of government services and applications that are only possible using cellular/mobile telephones, laptop computers, personal digital assistants (PDAs) and wireless internet infrastructure. In addition, m-government is a better option than e-government in delivering services and public information to citizens due to it being available anywhere, anytime and from any internet enabled device (Kadu, Bagret & Verma, 2015:459).

M-government affords a powerful and transformational capacity to both extend access to existing services, expand the delivery of new services, and to increase active citizen participation in government operations, moving beyond the initial concentration of e-government on commerce and e-taxation, and improving internal operations. This will foster civic engagement and transparent democracy, as well as educational advancement and innovative health services. The amalgamation of mobile devices and new media applications – which support quick access to integrated data, location-based services, and empowered citizens from any place at any time – is the cornerstone of the emerging impact of mobile governance. Mobile technologies are enhancing the value of government services from an electronic wallet (OECD, 2011:26).

It is also important to note that mobile government addresses the mobility of government itself. M-government is not meant to be a replacement for e-government but a complement to e-government (Kadu *et al.*, 2015:459).

Mobile technology is significantly expanding governments' capacity to produce benefits and deliver outcomes for governments, citizens, businesses, and to impact positively on national overall economic growth. The most notable progress will be in developing countries that have been historically limited by poor or non-existent communications infrastructure that, in turn, have constrained economic development and social improvements. However, m-government development will also provide countries with more developed e-government and the opportunity to tackle a number of issues – such as those related to the digital-divide – that remain a critical factor in the levels of e-government services take-up, which are lower than expected in many countries (OECD, 2011:25).

Kadu *et al.* (2015:459) suggest that in general, there are four primary delivery models of m-government, namely, government-to-citizens (G2C), government-to-government (G2G), government-to-business (G2B) and government-to-employees (G2E).

Mobile applications and services are to a large extent G2C services. However, G2G, G2B and G2E m-government services also exist.

Furthermore, the OECD (2011:29) suggests that m-government G2C services fall into four categories, namely, informational and educational services, interactive services, transactional services, and governance and citizen engagement. What follows is an elucidation of these categories.

### 3.13.1 Informational and educational services (push services)

Kadu, Bagret and Verma (2015:459) view this type of G2C as a service that involves distributing information to citizens, that is, information related to services, schedules, education, emergencies, regulations and other flat content. The government service is mainly comprised of pushing information through SMS or making it available on a web- or WAP site. Much of the information is static and there is little interaction with citizens. Most inquiries to government from citizens are for basic service information, and providing push services both enables real-time communications to citizens and creates cost savings for government.

M-government services can be related to general information such as weather forecasts, tourism details, health tips, public safety, contact information, services, and regulations can be provided to citizens on their mobile phones. Specific information, such as exchange rates, market rates, exam results, events and programme details, news, road closures, holiday schedules, public hearing/meeting schedules, service or fee changes, can be made easily available to citizens on their mobile phones (Kadu *et al.*, 2015:459).

### 3.13.2 Interactive services

Through interactive G2C services, citizens can engage in dialogue with government and send inquiries, problems, comments, or service requests to specific agencies. Citizens can also access forms, applications and databases. In this stage, the interaction becomes more personalised, detailed and targeted to specific citizen interests and service needs, and specific agency divisions and service areas.

The communication becomes one-to-one, rather than one-to-many. The focus is on citizen convenience and increased participation, with citizens choosing to receive specific notifications, such as neighbourhood crime reports, exam results or the availability of a special library book (OECD, 2011:31).

### 3.13.3 Transactional services

With G2C transactional services, governments begin to transform themselves by expanding two-way interactions between citizens and government to new levels. In this stage, citizens can complete their transactions with government electronically and at their convenience. This includes self-service options for paying taxes, making payments, lodging tax returns, applying for services and grants, as well as other similar G2C interactions, allowing the citizen to access these services 24/7 (OECD, 2011:33).

#### 3.13.4 Governance and citizen engagement

A key result area for connected governance is citizen engagement. Mobile technologies facilitate achievement of that goal by increasing ease of access and participation.

One mobile tool, SMS, or “texting”, has become a powerful and prevalent communication channel for government and citizens, and a fundamental foundation of effective m-government strategies, positively impacting the democratic process. Services can be related to: citizen engagement to strengthen a citizen-centred approach to government and to involve citizens in policy development and decision making (Kadu *et al.*, 2015:460).

In the light of the above, m-governance is a subdomain of e-governance. It ensures that electronic services are available to people via mobile technologies using devices such as mobile phones. These services bypass the need for traditional physical networks for communications and collaboration. Mobile services are also cheaper as well as accessible in most rural areas.

M-governance, in this regard, could be defined as a strategy for the implementation of governance with its implementation involving the utilisation of all kinds of wireless and mobile technologies, services, applications, and devices. It improves the benefits for those involved in e-governance, including citizens, businesses, and all government units (Kadu, Bagret & Verma, 2015:459).

#### 3.14 E-readiness

E-readiness implies infrastructural prerequisites for taking up any e-governance initiative. In as far as e-readiness is concerned, developing countries may face serious constraints and limitations or challenges in fully adopting e-governance (Prabhu, 2012:26). Abdelghaffar and Elmessiry (2012:187) postulate that e-readiness could be defined as the degree to which a community is prepared to participate in the networked world. E-readiness assessment is an essential step for countries, especially developing countries, to measure their e-readiness to participate in the connected world. Although e-readiness assessments are important as an initial step towards measuring to what degree citizens, businesses and the society are able to benefit from e-commerce, e-business and e-government projects, these assessments present various problems that might have

a negative effect on identifying which factors are important to citizens or businesses in being e-ready.

Lack of e-readiness contributes to both lack of and failure of e-governance initiatives. Six key questions can be asked of developing country's governments in order to assess how strategically prepared they are for e-governance (Heeks, 2001:17):

(a) Is the data systems infrastructure ready?

Are the management systems, records and work processes in place to provide the quantity and quality of data to support the move to e-governance? In many countries, data quality and data security – for example – are very poor, and there are few mechanisms to address these issues (Heeks, 2001:17).

The core of e-governance may be regarded as e-MIS (electronic management information system). This may imply the database being ready and usable in such e-MIS, as data is the core of MIS. Data quality and security in this regard are very important (Prabhu, 2012:27).

(b) Is the legal infrastructure ready?

This concerns itself with whether the laws and regulations required to permit and to support the move to e-governance are in place. In many countries, for example, digital signatures cannot be accepted (Heeks, 2001:17). Apart from statutory laws pertaining to information technology, legal acts and legislation may be required for enabling smooth and successful implementation of specific e-governance initiatives (Prabhu, 2012:27).

(c) Is the institutional infrastructure ready?

Heeks (2001:17) suggests that e-governance may only be progressed if the institutions exist to act as a focus for awareness and to act as a means for facilitation of e-governance. In many countries, there are no institutions to co-ordinate and lead and drive e-governance.

Prabhu (2012:27) maintains that for any government to implement successful e-governance projects, the requisite institutional infrastructure has to be in place and as such, most governments are not ready as they do not have any.

(d) Is the human infrastructure ready?

This entails the attitudes, knowledge and skills in place – especially within the public sector – that are required to initiate, implement and sustain e-governance initiatives. In many countries, key skills gaps relate to business analysis and system design, and to project management, contract management and vendor management. There are also “mind-set” gaps: general resistance to change; lack of customer-orientation; resistance to data-sharing; etc. (Heeks, 2001:17).

Human resource development through training is an essential requirement. Human infrastructural preparedness comes from well-trained manpower, both technical and non-technical. The government employees and staff who are the stake-holders in all e-government projects as the end users and operational users of such projects are required to be appropriately trained and oriented for change management from a manual government environment to e-governance environment (Prabhu, 2012:28).

(e) Is the technological infrastructure ready?

Technology is fast changing in the ICT domain. Rapid obsolescence of hardware and software and the maintenance and support they require results in great financial demands from time to time (Prabhu, 2012:28).

Heeks (2001:18), however, is of the view that although there have been great strides forward, the fact remains that most developing countries are a long way short of the computing and telecommunications infrastructure on which many northern e-governance initiatives have been based.

(f) Is the leadership and strategic thinking ready?

A critical pre-condition in successful e-governance for development is an e-champion or small group of e-champions: leaders with vision who put e-governance onto the agenda and make it happen. Cases like those described above show that such leadership can smash through many operational barriers. Conversely, all the operational e-readiness in the world is of limited value if there is no vision and leadership to give direction to e-governance.

Khalil (2011:389) confirms a view of the UN (2008:13) and Holliday and Yep (2005) that a nation's e-government readiness depends on factors such as the availability of economic, human, and technological resources, a government's willingness and/or interest in understanding and

catering to the needs of the people, the sufficiency of infrastructure and adequacy of service delivery, content accessibility, usefulness and accuracy of digital information and e-services, languages, trust, and confidentiality. Following is a discussion on e-participation.

### 3.15 E-participation

The evolution of citizen participation in public administration decision making faces a new phase as many government agencies have initiated electronic government (e-government) development and taken advantage of internet-based applications to facilitate community development and communication with constituents and to provide online application services (Heeks & Bailur, 2007; Norris & Moon, 2005; West, 2004, in Kim & Lee, 2012:819).

E-participation could be regarded as the extension and transformation of participation in democracy through the use of ICT. Its goal is to promote active citizen engagement in a democracy by providing meaningful impact and change in public policies (Reddick & Norris, 2013:198). The e-participation thus is contextualised as the use of ICTs to enable and improve the effectiveness of citizen involvement in deliberation and decision-making processes (Macintosh, 2004).

In this regard, government efforts are focused on using new technologies to enable greater citizen participation in policy formation and evaluation and to create greater information exchange between citizens and government (Komito, 2005; Macintosh & Whyte, 2008; Norris, 1999; OECD 2001, in Kim & Lee, 2012:819).

Kim and Lee (2012:819) further affirm a view of the OECD (2003) that many governments have adopted various forms of electronic participation (e-participation) applications, including online forums, virtual discussion rooms, electronic juries, and electronic polls. Following are the overarching objectives of e-participation:

- (a) To reach a wider audience to enable broader participation
- (b) To support participation through a range of technologies to cater for the diverse technical and communicative skills of citizens
- (c) To provide relevant information in a format that is both more accessible and more understandable to the target audience to enable more informed contributions

- (d) To engage with a wider audience to enable deeper contributions and support deliberative debate. The technology should also be harnessed to analyse contributions and provide relevant and appropriate feedback to citizens to ensure openness and transparency in the decision-making process (Macintosh, 2004:2).

In this regard, through electronic participation, citizens are afforded greater opportunities to influence policy decisions in government. A global perspective of e-governance is given below.

### 3.16 E-governance: a global perspective

Nshimbu (2012:11, in Finger & Sultana, 2012) postulates the aim of any government as that of improving the socio-economic conditions of citizens in a cost-effective and efficient manner that is non-discriminatory. The best way to ensure an acceptable means of service delivery that positively impacts the governed is by ensuring that they participate and are able to contribute their ideas and voices to issues of the economy and development that affect them.

In enhancing socio-economic conditions, global leaders and policy makers embraced the use of ICT for development at the two-stage World Summit for Information Society (WSIS), which took place in 2003 (the Geneva phase) and 2005 (the Tunis phase). The WSIS highlighted the urgent need to harness the potential of knowledge and technology to achieve the Millennium Development Goals and guided a development-focused “Plan of Action” to put the potential of knowledge and ICTs at the service of development for 10 years (2006-2015). The WSIS Geneva Plan of Action stated that “ICT applications can support sustainable development in the fields of public administration, business, education and training, health, employment, environment, agriculture and science within the framework of national e-strategies” (United Nations, 2016:121).

In accordance with the United Nations (2016:121), the WSIS called on governments to ensure the following:

- (a) Implement e-government strategies focusing on applications aimed at innovating and promoting transparency in public administrations and democratic processes, improving efficiency and strengthening relations with citizens

- (b) Develop national e-government initiatives and services, at all levels, adapted to the needs of citizens and business, to achieve a more efficient allocation of resources and public goods
- (c) Support international co-operation initiatives in the field of e-government, in order to promote transparency, accountability and efficiency at all levels of government.

In this regard, countries in all regions are increasingly embracing innovation and utilising ICTs to deliver services and engage people in decision-making processes. One of the most important new trends is the advancement of people-driven services. It addresses the growing demand for more personalised services that reflect individual needs, as well as people's aspiration to be more closely engaged in the design and delivery of services. These new demands are transforming the way the public sector operates (United Nations, 2016: iii).

Nshimbu (2012:11, in Finger & Sultana, 2012) is of the view that in many regions around the world, governments and other regional organisations are putting in deliberate regulations and measures to promote the usage of ICTs in governance through cost-effective applications. It has been widely recognised in recent years that with ICTs there is an impact in engaging citizens on issues of governance, be it through the use of radio, mobile phones or indeed the internet.

Angeleski *et al.*, (2014:1) suggests that e-governance is a much broader concept than e-government. Since e-governance could then be treated as a subset of e-government in the utilisation of ICTs thus ensuring sound governance, the latest UN e-government survey could be used as reference in analysing the global progress.

According to the UN e-government survey (2016:110), more countries are advancing towards higher levels of e-government. They are responding to people's increasingly varied and complex needs, as well as to the persistent call for new, better and faster public services. There is also growing recognition of e-government to support sustainable development in the three dimensions, namely, economic growth, social inclusion and environmental protection.

In as far as the rankings are concerned, Denmark is ranked the leading country according to the UN e-government survey (2018:89). Australia and the Republic of Korea retain their previous spots which are second and third respectively in comparison with the previous UN e-government survey (2016:110). Essentially, the previous survey of 2016 ranked Singapore in the fourth

position globally and currently it sits in seventh position (UN e-government survey, 2018:89). Table 3.4 below shows the top 10 ranked countries in e-government globally.

**Table 3.4: Top 10 ranked countries on e-government globally**

Country	Region	2018 rank
Denmark	Europe	1
Australia	Oceania	2
Republic of Korea	Asia	3
UK	Europe	4
Sweden	Europe	5
Finland	Europe	6
Singapore	Asia	7
New Zealand	Oceania	8
France	Europe	9
Japan	Asia	10

*Source: UN, 2018:89*

### 3.16.1 E-governance in Africa

Muthien and Khosa (2002:377) acknowledge a view of Castells (1998) that the benefits of the ICT revolution flowed naturally to the developed world while most developing countries have been unable to reap the benefits. The diffusion of information and communication technology has been extremely uneven. As Castells (1998) argues, “most of Africa is being left in a technological apartheid” and the same is true of many other regions of the world.

It is within the context of the global ICT revolution, globalisation and the continued marginalisation of the continent that the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) was

born. NEPAD acknowledges the marginalisation of Africa from the global market and argues that, while no corner of the world has escaped the effects of globalisation, the contributions of the various regions and nations to ICT have differed markedly. Outside the domain of the major industrialised nations, only a few countries in the developing world play a substantial role in the global market (NEPAD, 2001).

NEPAD acknowledges that ICTs, driven by the convergence of computers, telecommunication and traditional media, are crucial for the knowledge-based economy of the present and future. These have opened new windows of opportunity for African countries to accelerate economic growth and development (NEPAD, 2001).

In the light of the above, Adera and Waema (2011:2) postulate that African governments are attempting to revitalise their public administration to be more proactive, efficient and service-oriented. To achieve this transformation, governments are introducing innovations in their organisational structures, practices and capacities, and in the ways they mobilise, deploy and utilise human capital. In addition, they are also using their information, technological and financial resources to deliver services to citizens. This trend has resulted in increasing demands for access to public information, which has implications for information and communications technology applications in this digital era.

Contexts and institutional frameworks within African countries are therefore changing rapidly with, policy makers, and private and public telecommunications service providers having introduced reforms. In this regard, reforming countries are reaping the benefits through improved infrastructure, increased applications and better accessibility and affordability of ICT equipment and services. However, one of the major challenges confronting Africa is to develop the capacity and strategies necessary to take full advantage of the opportunities offered by ICTs, especially at the local level (Misuraca, 2007:3).

The UN (2016:112) suggests that Africa continues to lag globally with a low average at 0.2882, a figure that falls far below the leading European e-government development index (EGDI) of 0.7241. The African continent has large gaps in infrastructure, including broadband infrastructure, and access to broadband services, where it exists, is very expensive (UN e-government survey, 2018:133).

The UN (2018:135) further notes that in Africa, only four countries, namely, Mauritius, South Africa, Tunisia and Seychelles are in the top fiftieth percentile along with countries that have EGDIs above the world average of 0.549. Mauritius, ranked 66<sup>th</sup>, South Africa, ranked 68<sup>th</sup>, Tunisia, 80<sup>th</sup> and Seychelles, 83<sup>rd</sup>, are the only countries in Africa in the top 100. Table 3.5 shows the top 10 ranked countries on e-government in Africa.

**Table 3.5: Top 10 ranked countries on e-government in Africa**

Country	Region	2018 rank
Mauritius	Eastern Africa	66
South Africa	Southern Africa	68
Tunisia	Northern Africa	80
Seychelles	Eastern Africa	83
Ghana	Western Africa	101
Morocco	Northern Africa	110
Cabo Verde	Western Africa	112
Egypt	Northern Africa	114
Rwanda	Eastern Africa	120
Namibia	Southern Africa	121

*Source: UN E-government survey, 2018:135*

### 3.16.2 E-governance in South Africa

E-governance in South Africa could be traced back to the recommendations by the Presidential Review Commission on the Transformation of the Public Service (1998). The Presidential Review (1998) identified a lack of strategic direction in the utilisation of information management, information management systems and information technology, to support government's goals. The

South African government was urged to give serious consideration to migrating to completely electronic communication “within the next five years”. The recommendations influenced the establishment of the State Information Technology Agency (SITA), whose role is to rationalise information technology (IT) procurement, provide IT-related services and support effective use of IT in government (PRC, 1998, section 6.9.9).

In accordance with the Department of Public Service and Administration (2001), the Minister of Public Service and Administration (MPSA) is responsible for overall policy making on electronic government and as such published a formal E-government Policy in 2001. The e-government programme had commenced in 1999, after publication of the PRC report (1998), with the goal of transforming the interaction between government and society from paper-based modes to electronic interaction, in line with international practice.

The aim was the improvement of public services and of the internal management of public services, focusing on improved productivity and cost-effectiveness, inter-operability, information technology security, economies of scale, and the elimination of duplication in the delivery cycle (DPSA, 2001).

Cloete (2012:133) postulates that in 2011, 10 years after the adoption of the e-government policy, the e-government programme was still largely stuck at the stage of static information provision, although limited progress had been made in the various spheres of government towards the interactive and transactional stages. An example of the interactive phase is that of enabling land-owners who have submitted building plans to Johannesburg municipality to monitor progress on the approval of plans online and to interact with the responsible unit to address any obstacles in this process.

Mawson (2012) suggests that other individual instances of successful e-government implementation include the national governmental gateway portal, South Africa Government Online (available at [www.gov.za](http://www.gov.za)), which enables access to information on government and public services. The South African e-government programme also extends to local government level, the best examples of which are programmes of the metropolitan municipalities of Cape Town, Johannesburg, Ekurhuleni, Tshwane and eThekweni. Cape Town has an integrated GIS-based application that has improved the efficiency and effectiveness of a number of its technical and financial operations significantly (Cloete & Needham, 2004).

According to the UN e-government survey (2014:36), within the continent, South Africa was ranked number six, and Tunisia and Mauritius were two highly ranked countries. In accordance with the latest rankings of 2016, South Africa has made some strides as it is ranked third on the continent (UN, 2016:113).

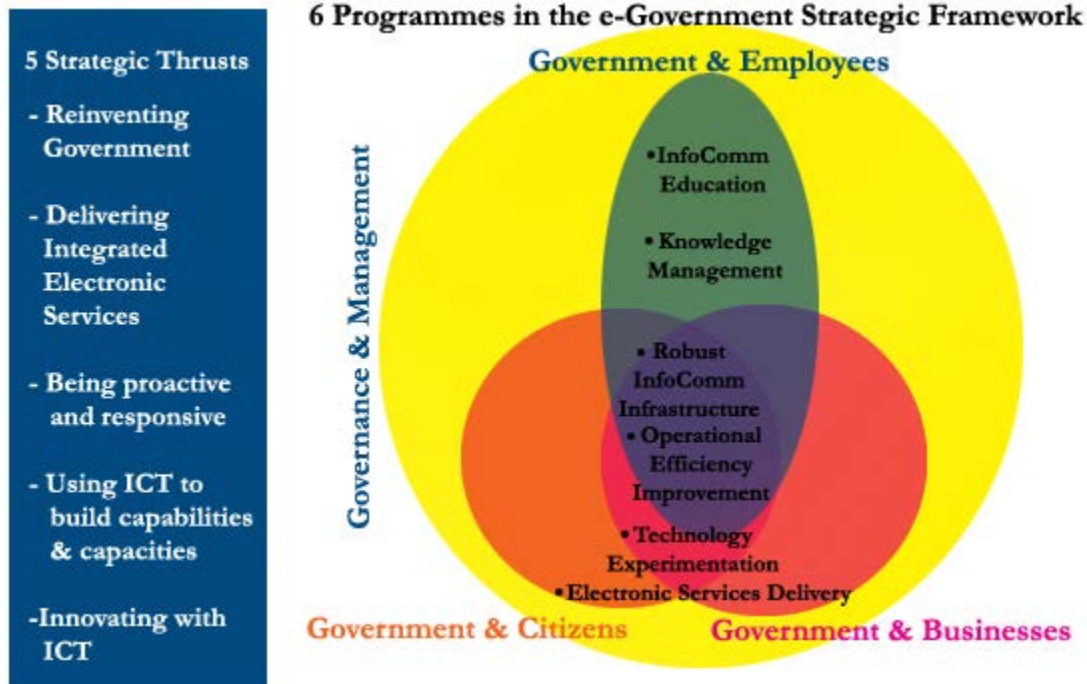
### 3.16.3 E-governance in Singapore

Hairong, Detenber, Lee and Chia (2005:31) acknowledge a view of IDA (2003) and Tan (2001) that a debut of the e-citizen portal ([www.gov.sg](http://www.gov.sg)) in 1999 marks the beginning of e-government in Singapore, after two decades of civil service computerisation programmes as necessary preparations.

The e-government Action Plan I: 2000-2003 was initiated in June 2000. Backed by a budget of S\$1.5 billion (US\$843 million), the plan prescribes the broad directions of ICT deployment with five strategic thrusts and six programmes. The five strategic thrusts include the following:

1. Reinventing government
2. Delivering integrated electronic services
3. Being proactive and responsive
4. Using ICT to build capabilities and capacities
5. Innovating with ICT (Hairong *et al.*, 2005:31).

In this regard, the aforementioned programmes were treated as objectives with an ideal of making significant strides in the domain of ICTs, respectively. Figure 3.4 illustrates the strategic framework of the e-government action plan (2000-2003) in Singapore.



**Figure 3.4 Strategic Framework of E-government Action Plan (2000-2003) in Singapore**

*Source: Singapore e-government journey – moha.gov.la*

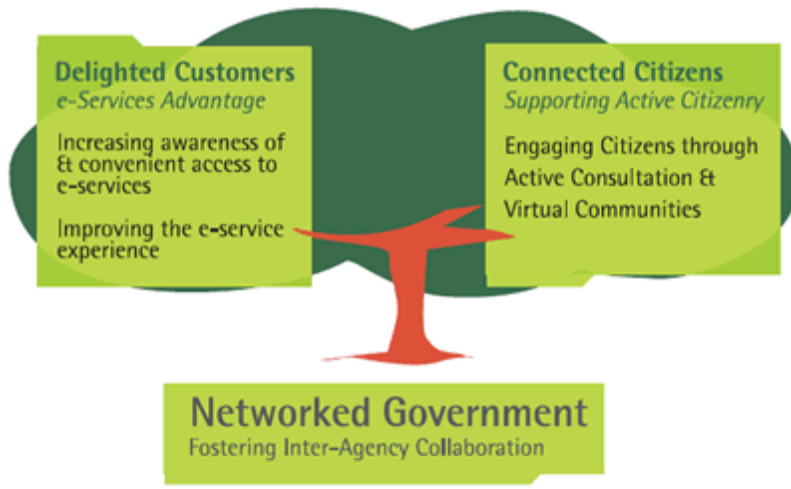
Baum, Yigitcanlar, Mahizhnan and Andiappan (2007:69) observe that with the completion of e-government Action Plan I, the government launched its second plan in 2003 (eGovII) with the objective of moving ahead from the gains already established and taking the e-government sector to the next level by achieving three outcomes:

1. Delighted customers
2. Connected citizens
3. Networked government.

In this regard, the launch of the second plan on e-government in Singapore would be marked with an ideal of increased awareness, convenient access, active citizenry, and effective government machinery. Figure 3.5 illustrates the strategic framework of e-government action plan II (2003-2006) in Singapore.

# E-Government Strategic Framework

Strategies To Realise The Vision & Outcomes



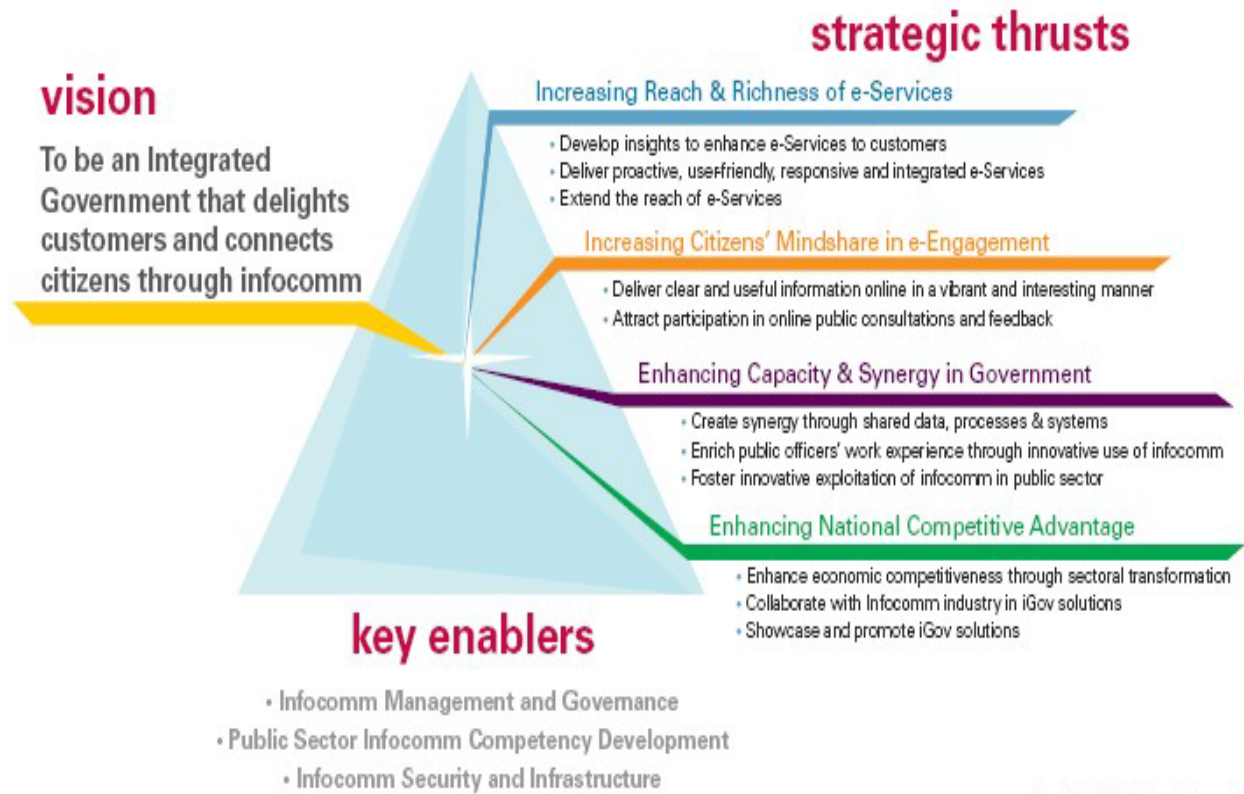
**Figure 3.5: Strategic Framework of E-government Action Plan II (2003-2006)**

*Source: Singapore e-government journey – moha.gov.la*

As with previous strategic plans, followed the integrated government plan 2010 (iGOV2010) which aims to fulfil several goals, including:

1. Increasing the reach and richness of e-services (improving the quality of e-services)
2. Increasing the citizen's mindshare in e-engagement (improving online information and encouraging greater participation)
3. Enhancing capacity and synergy in government (improving the internal running of the bureaucracy)
4. Enhancing national competitive advantage (transforming industry sectors and fostering a pro-business environment).

Among other things, the iGOV2010 aims to move towards full e-government maturity whereby agencies act as seamless entities, information is shared, and citizens are increasingly active in the business of government. Figure 3.6 illustrates the strategic framework of e-government action plan (2006-2010) in Singapore.



**Figure 3.6: Strategic Framework of iGov2010 (2006-2010)**

*Source: Singapore e-government journey – moha.gov.la*

### 3.16.4 E-governance and local government

Streib and Willoughby (2005:78) postulate that much has been said over the past two decades about the mounting responsibilities of local governments and their resource constraints. Recent years have brought the challenges of devolution and reinvention, and now the gauntlet has been thrown down once again. Local governments must meet an entirely new set of standards and responsibilities arising from the automation of government-to-government, government-to-business, and government-to-citizen interactions.

The need for e-governance can be traced to the notion that municipalities world over adopted various approaches to achieve good urban governance. Most of the good urban governance at the municipal level could be associated primarily with the adoption of ICT in the form of e-governance initiatives (Singh & Ogra, 2011:134).

Van der Waldt (2011:53) suggests that local government is a sphere that interacts closest with communities and therefore must work closely with citizens and groups to enhance the quality of life. As earlier referred to, Heeks (2001:8) mentions that e-governance seeks to connect citizens with their governments. This initiative seeks to increase the input of citizens into public sector decisions and actions. This could be flagged as either democratisation or participation.

Essentially, public participation is encouraged by the democratic dispensation through various policy initiatives such as the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, which states that the National Assembly (NA) must facilitate public involvement in the legislative and other processes of the Assembly and its committees (Mfenguza, 2007:1).

Similar provisions of public involvement are made in other pieces of legislation, such as the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000) and Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998). The intention in this legislation is to ensure that public participation becomes a democratic culture of the system of governance. Municipalities are entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring that political, social and economic exclusions created in the era of apartheid are eradicated in the new democratic government.

Furthermore, section 5(1)(a) of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000) affirms that it is a right and duty of members of local communities to contribute to the decision-making processes of the municipality. This implies that community members need to be consulted, through public participation, in any decision-making processes.

In the light of the above, pertinent to the concept of e-governance is that of participation of citizens in decisions about service delivery. Enabling citizens to effectively communicate personal values, priorities and expectations for public service delivery and improve their participation in shared decision making are important elements of participation. Such participation should lead to a more comprehensive appreciation of the e-governance problem and the management solutions and outcomes that are agreed on between citizens and government agencies. It should also generate greater citizen understanding of the challenges government agencies face in providing services, and greater satisfaction with the state of public service delivery may ensue (Ochara, 2012:30).

Essentially, a need to facilitate, through e-governance, greater online public participation and deliberations with respect to social issues has wide-ranging implications and requires a major shift

in the way in which citizens are engaged. However, participation of the citizenry in e-governance is largely muted. To make e-governance more participatory, society should recognise how the internet and the foundational infrastructure for e-government are currently reinforcing existing social and political patterns (Margolis & Resnick, 2000).

In the light of the above and contrarily, Streib and Willoughby (2005:81) acknowledge the view of Symonds (2000) that beginning an e-governance initiative and making it work in local governments will require bold action. While governments can now employ some proven technologies to enhance services, the online world still rewards risk takers. Aggressive entrepreneurs spurred the development of the internet, and it remains somewhat untamed today. Some have suggested that, as monopoly suppliers, local governments may lack the incentives needed to pursue e-governance vigorously.

Streib and Willoughby (2005:84) stress conditions for e-governance success as follows:

- (a) Slack resources: Based on the resources, it should be kept in mind that inadequate resources can produce a variety of unsatisfactory outcomes. No e-governance may be better than a failed effort that alienates users (Streib & Willoughby, 2005:86)
- (b) Knowledgeable leadership: Essentially, a comprehensive e-governance application may need a leadership team as has been recommended for local government strategic management applications (Poister & Streib, 1997). It is unclear what level of knowledge is needed to provide leadership for e-governance, but credible leadership is essential (Streib & Willoughby, 2005:87)
- (c) Skilled and supportive staff: The quality and commitment of local government staff will play a major role in the success of any e-governance initiative. Staff can be viewed as the actual implementers of any new e-governance policies or programmes (Streib & Willoughby, 2005:88)
- (d) Good communication: The effective implementation of good communication requires that subordinates (or implementers) know what they are supposed to do. Their model requires policy standards and objectives to be transmitted clearly, accurately, consistently, and in a timely manner (van Meter & van Horn, 1975:478).

In this regard, technology adoption programmes in municipalities have traditionally evolved from an urge to make municipalities perform better for delivery of services to citizens, and to achieve overall good performance in their functions. Some key areas of the implementation of technology-based solutions can be property enhancement applications, complaint redressal systems, registration and issues of trade licences, birth and death registrations, and the provision of information to citizens through kiosks, websites, etc. These approaches are not always integrated with other models within the system, resulting in approaches adopted at the municipal level being isolated from one another (Singh & Ogra, 2011:134).

### 3.17 Theoretical foundations discourse

The concept of theory originates from the Greek *theoria*, meaning contemplation or speculation (Bell & Bryman, 2011:34). It is generally a systematic and formalised expression of previous observations, and is predictive, logical and testable. In principle, scientific theories typically are tentative, and subject to corrections or inclusion in a wider theoretical structure (Bell, 2005:26). The basic functions of theory are thus to describe, explain, predict or control phenomena in a variety of contexts.

Dassah (2014:342, in Thornhill, van Dijk & Ile, 2014) suggests that there are three common main theories of public administration and information technology. The nexus between information technology and public administration is located in three theories, namely, technological determinism, reinforcement theory and sociotechnical theory. Below is the elucidation of these theories.

#### 3.17.1 Technological determinism

Technological determinism, simply put, is the idea that technology has important effects on our lives. This idea figures prominently in the popular imagination and political rhetoric, for example, in the idea that the internet is revolutionising the economy and society (Adler, 2006:1). Underlying technological determinism is the assumption that new technologies have a life of their own and

inevitably cause social and economic changes in organisations and society, irrespective of context (Reddick, 2012:5).

Bimber (1990:336), in the discussion paper on Marx and technology, is of the view that interpretations of the technological determinism concept emphasise, for one reason or another, the significance of technology to social change, but they differ as to why and how technology is so influential.

Adler (2006:1) suggests that one prominent variant of technological determinism takes inspiration from Marx. In this orthodox reading of Marx, the “forces of production” (technology plus workers’ capabilities) form the infrastructure for both the structure of relations of production and the superstructure of politics and culture; the productivity of the forces of production tends to develop over time; the overall direction of this change is largely independent of the social structure, although the latter can accelerate or retard the rate of the change; and over time, the relations of production and the superstructure are forced to adapt to accommodate further technological change. From a global context, Reddick (2012:5) suggests that technological determinism is a strong driver of the adoption of new technologies by organisations and governments. Typically, the cost reduction and performance-boosting potential of benefits of technology underpin much adoption of technologies.

The issue underlying technological determinism is how societies can employ ethical conceptions to exert conscious, wilful control over the norms of practice involved in technological progress. This view sees technological enterprise as an essentially human activity, driven by individuals acting together. Their actions are guided by goals and explicit judgements about the public and private good, and are informed by the norms of practice. The problem is that industrial society has developed an over-reliance on norms of efficiency, reason and productivity in directing this enterprise. By adopting these as guides to decision making about technology to the exclusion of other ethical criteria, society produces a self-correcting process that can operate autonomously of larger political and ethical contexts (Bimber, 1990:336).

Technology could be considered autonomous and deterministic when the norms by which it is advanced are removed from political and ethical contexts and when goals of efficiency become surrogates for value-based debate over methods, alternatives, means and ends (Bimber, 1990:337).

The form of technical determinism that leaves the greatest role for human agency is the idea of technological politics (Winner, 1980), thus, intentions could be inscribed into technologies, which then influence others. The view is that technological decisions are similar to legislative acts or political findings that establish a framework for public order that will endure over many generations (Dafoe, 2015:1053).

### 3.17.2 Reinforcement theory

Reddick (2012:5) suggests that reinforcement theory derives from political science and holds that public sector managers adopt technology thought to be in line with their views of the future direction of the organisation. This implies that if public managers lack strategic organisational vision, that is to say, if they do not know where their organisations are headed, adoption of technologies is likely to be minimal or even absent.

The reinforcement theory argues that administrators implement Information Technology if it supports their view of the organisation change. This theory comes from the political science literature that examines why voters seek out candidates with which they agree. Therefore, citizens choose candidates that have a similar position to them on issues. The theory applies for the adoption of information technology in the public sector. This technology is adopted if it agrees with the view of the public manager on the future direction of the organisation (Reddick, 2012:5).

### 3.17.3 Sociotechnical theory

The term “sociotechnical” was introduced by the Tavistock Institute in the 1950s for manufacturing cases where the needs of technology confronted those of local communities. Social and technical were seen as separate side-by-side systems, which needed to interact positively (Whitworth, 2009:394).

According to Reddick (2012:5), sociotechnical theory is the most commonly used theory to explain how technologies impact on organisational change, and it sees organisations as social systems inhabited by people whose use of tools, techniques and knowledge influence change. The main aspect of this theory, however, is that technical change within the organisations is greatly

influenced by the vagaries of the external environment. The theory underlines the need for public managers to be knowledgeable about both the technical and social aspects of information technology.

Sawyer (2013:1) holds that the sociotechnical premise can be articulated as the mutual constitution of people and technologies, the contextual embeddedness of this mutuality and the importance of collective action. The basic message of the sociotechnical perspective is to put the two perspectives on the same level, i.e. both the social and the technical (Aidemark, 2007:446).

According to Walker, Stanton, Salmon and Jenkins (2009:6), the word “sociotechnical” has become a synonym, a descriptive label for any practical instantiation of socio and technical, people and technology, the soft sciences meeting hard engineering. In these terms, sociotechnical does not mean a great deal as it is difficult to imagine any meaningful system these days that is not described by these two worlds colliding. Whether designed, manufactured, used, maintained or disposed of by humans, humans are involved somewhere along the line and the term sociotechnical emerges merely as a convenient, if slightly tautological, buzzword for what results. There is more to the word sociotechnical than this, however. In fact, sociotechnical has a very specific meaning.

### 3.18 Conclusion

The current chapter postulates that a 21<sup>st</sup> century government has an obligation to strive for efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and responsiveness. The use of information communication technologies in governance could be a catalyst in ensuring that local government, as the sphere closest to the people, is able to provide timely and accessible services to its constituencies.

Digital technology has certainly changed the relation between government to government, government to business and government to society. The use of ICT has improved productivity, transparency and accountability in government. ICT has also enhanced the interaction between government and business, thus an ideal would be to improve their quality, convenience and cost. Furthermore, society is able to connect with its government, thus promoting e-participation in governance.

However, the use of ICT also comes with challenges in the form of the digital divide. The so-called digital divide gap may limit participation in the policy making of government. Citizens may feel excluded in the decision-making processes, hence there is a need to bridge the gap.

In accordance with the paradigm shifts of Public Administration, the New Public Management focal point was to make government more economic and efficient in its provision of goods and services to the public. This new approach was clearly geared towards enhancing efficiency, productivity, improved service delivery, accountability and responsive government. The use of ICT in government in this regard complements the paradigm shift of the New Public Management. The ensuing chapter discusses good governance in local government.

## CHAPTER 4: GOOD GOVERNANCE

### 4.1 Introduction

The ideal of good governance is to ensure that there is a transition in the manner in terms of which government provides its services. Through this transition it is intended that government strive to get the basics rights, thus ensuring effectiveness and efficiency. The Constitutional ideals of South Africa advocate for high professional ethics and norms to be taken into consideration. The needs and demands of the citizens ought to be responded to urgently. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 also encourages community participation in the processes of government.

Through the ideal of participatory democracy, citizens could be in a position to contribute and influence policy directives. The relationship between government and its custodians could be enhanced thus ensuring that trust is improved. The fundamental ideal would also entail fostering transparency and accountability, thus ensuring that citizens could hold government accountable. In this regard, these constitutional ideals seek to prohibit maladministration and corruption, which may constitute bad governance. This chapter provides an understanding of governance and good governance. Furthermore, a perspective on good governance is elucidated.

### 4.2 Governance and good governance

Maserumule (2011:264) is of the view that governance is a conceptual presentiment of good governance. Without the concept governance, good governance would not have been part of the conceptual scheme in the parlance of this contemporary development discourse. But governance does not owe its conceptual existence to good governance. The conception of governance without good governance is logically possible. However, the same cannot be said about good governance without governance. For good is an adjective qualifying the noun governance. Good governance owes its conceptual existence to governance. With this notion in mind, it is imperative that a clarification of the concept governance be unpacked before analysing good governance.

Louw (2012:94) postulates that in its original sense the word governance means “steering”, or simply, navigating, giving direction. As a result, governance has become a leading theme in policy

development discourse and social science scholarship. Although the phenomenon is well established in South Africa, and despite the popularity of the phenomenon among both theoreticians and practitioners, there is still a lack of conceptual consensus. It has multiple meanings and there is a good deal of uncertainty in its different usages.

Maserumule (2005:200) suggests that the concept governance is as old as human civilisation and that scholars in development studies and other related disciplines are cautious to commit themselves to a single definition, although in many instances, semblances of similarities of perspectives regarding its meaning do exist among them.

In the light of the above, the concept of governance may refer to the manner in which government executes its public policy to ensure that the set objectives are attained. It entails actions undertaken to ensure that desired results could be achievable. Weiss (2010:797) confirms a definition of governance by the World Bank as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources. Kettani and Moulin (2014: 74) suggest that this analysis depicts governance as the result of the activities and processes that shape the use of power within the institutional units of a national state. In this respect, the World Bank is mainly concerned with governance with respect to government institutions and how they control their internal processes.

Munshi, Abraham and Chaudhuri (2009:1) maintain that governance can be defined as the action or manner of governing. It therefore refers to all activities of government in order to achieve common goals. Bevir (2009:3) suggests that governance refers to patterns of rule wherein such patterns of rule would indicate the systems, institution and norms applicable by which the state is controlled or directed.

Weiss (2010:797) acknowledges the view of the UNDP (1997) that governance is the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It therefore comprises mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interest, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations, and mediate their differences. Kettani and Moulin (2014:75) suggest that this view highlights the two main players, a country and its citizens. In this regard, governance refers to the sum of interactions within a governmental structure and includes those who make up that structure. Specifically, it refers to the way governments (as well as civil society and other actors in this context) organise their internal

functioning and how citizens are empowered (or not) to interact with and influence this functioning.

Fox and Meyer (1995:55) indicate that governance means the maintenance of law and order, the defence of society against external enemies and the advancement of what is thought to be the welfare of the group, community, society or state itself. It explicitly says what the act or manner of governing implies.

Governance could be regarded as the connections and interactions between national, provincial and local spheres and the public they serve. Good, stable and regular connections and interactions between authorities in all spheres of government and the public may serve as good examples of governance. This ultimately promotes responsiveness and indicates an element of proactive decisions and actions (du Toit, Knipe, van Niekerk, van der Waldt & Dovle, 2001:64).

In this regard, governance could be referred to as the interaction between government and society in order to improve the people and the state (Cloete & Auriacombe, 2008:449). The involvement of citizens through public participation in the processes of government, particularly in local government, could improve development thus ensuring that local government is in a good position to attain its developmental mandate as enshrined in Chapter 7 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Participation by citizens is part of democracy and participation therefore ensures the accountability of the governor to the governed. Following is an elucidation of good governance.

#### 4.2.1 Good governance

Kettani and Moulin (2014:75) postulate that an evolution in the concept of good governance first appeared in the twentieth century and the notion of good governance began in the discussions of business analysts and economists, who were highlighting the structures and strategies of corporate management that succeed in increasing productivity and profits.

Haldenwang (2004, in Kettani & Moulin, 2014:76) suggests that in the late 1980s, scientists in the field of social and economic development also began to consider the notion of good governance, focusing on the role of government. Good governance was mainly presented by the World Bank

as a requirement, at a national level, to enable and facilitate the success of economic development reforms.

De Vries (2011:70) is of the view that the term “good governance” was a spin-off from the Washington consensus during which the World Bank and IMF agreed that good governance was a prerequisite for the granting of loans and subsidies to poor, developing countries. Such countries would only be granted loans if they guaranteed good governance – in other words, a government and bureaucracy without nepotism, corruption or maladministration.

The World Bank (2006, in Kettani & Moulin, 2014:76) suggests that good governance (or the good use of governmental power) is “epitomized by predictable, open and enlightened policy making; a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos; an executive arm of government accountable for its actions; and a strong civil society participating in public affairs, and all behaving under the rule of law”.

Caluser and Salagean (2007:13) are of the view that the World Bank’s perception of good governance is limited, apolitical and a technicist interpretation of good governance as a technical dimension of the concept. In this regard, the World Bank interpretation is concerned with the economic aspects of governance, namely, the transparency of government accounts, the effectiveness of public resources management and the stability of the regulatory environment for the private sector.

The UNDP depicts good governance as being:

among other things, participatory, transparent and accountable. It is also effective and equitable and it promotes the rule of law fairly. Good governance ensures that the voices of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard when allocating development resources, and that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus among the three stakeholders – the state sector, private sector and civil society. (UNDP, 1997, in Kettani & Moulin, 2014:76)

Abrahamsen (2000:30, in Maserumule, 2014:981) defines good governance as the “exercise of political power to manage a nation’s affairs” in a manner that ensures openness and accountability, the rule of law, freedom of press, increased grassroots participation and the building of legitimate, pluralistic political structures.

It is against this backdrop that former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan defined good governance as a process that ensures respect for human rights and the rule of law, strengthening democracy, and promoting transparency and capacity within public administration (Annan, 1997). Below are the concepts related to good governance.

### 4.3 Concepts related to good governance

For an in-depth understanding of good governance, it is imperative that key concepts that relate to good governance be unpacked.

#### 4.3.1 Democracy

Democracy is a word that has come to mean very different things to different people. In origin, it is Greek, a composite of *demos* and *kratos*. Since *demos* can be translated as “the people” and *kratos* as “power”, democracy has a root meaning of “the power of the people”. In modern times, democracy is often construed as being concerned, in the first instance, with a voting rule for determining the will of the majority. The power of the people is thus the authority to decide matters by majority rule (Ober, 2008:3).

Among the meanings that have been attached to the word democracy are the following:

- (a) A system of rule by the poor and disadvantaged
- (b) A form of government in which the people rule themselves directly and continuously, without the need for professional politicians or public officials
- (c) A society based on equal opportunity and individual merit, rather than hierarchy and privilege
- (d) A system of welfare and redistribution aimed at narrowing social inequalities
- (e) A system of decision making based on the principle of majority rule
- (f) A system of rule that secures the rights and interests of minorities by placing checks upon the power of the majority

- (g) A means of filling public offices through competitive struggle for the popular vote
- (h) A system of government that serves the interests of the people regardless of their participation in political life (Heywood, 2002:68).

In this regard, it may be deduced that democracy refers to adherence to the rule of law through a principle of majority rule. Public participation in this process is of utmost important to ensure that the public's views are taken into consideration.

#### 4.3.2 Public participation

Public participation can be broadly defined as a process where all men and women are given an opportunity to have a voice in decision making, either directly or through legitimate, intermediate institutions that represent their aspirations. Such broad participation is entrenched in freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate meaningfully. In any democratic country, such as South Africa, participation by both men and women is a cornerstone of good governance (Qorbani & Feizi, 2014:2; Mzimakwe, 2010:505).

The Gauteng Provincial Legislature (2012:08) emphasises the constitutional mandate of ensuring that citizens should be aware of the programmes or activities and policies that are carried out, as they need to be informed of aspects that concern their lives. There are many factors that contribute to the success or attainment of the delivery of services. Such contributions can only be achieved and services enhanced if the public is involved.

In this regard, communities should be co-origators of policies rather than endorsers, as this affects their lives. Kondlo's view is holistic, especially when he argues that the "dilemma of policy performance is the dilemma of the 'first' and this is about co-origination and co-authorship of policy issues with citizens and communities". Involving the public as originators of policies would assist in ensuring that policies are relevant to society (Kondlo, 2010).

#### 4.3.3 Accountability

Fombad (2014:73) suggests that accountability is a complex, elusive, abstract, multifaceted and contested issue that can be approached in different ways, depending on the role, institutional context, era and political perspective.

Accountability has traditionally been taken to mean answerability for one's action or behaviour, which came to mean that the actions of public officials had to be justified, their reasons explained and their deeds and misdeeds accounted for before the court of public opinion (Dwivedi & Jabbra, 1988).

Olum (2014:604, in Curtin, 2005) denotes that accountability ensures that actions and decisions taken by public officials are subject to oversight to guarantee that government initiatives meet their stated objectives and respond to the community's needs, thereby contributing to better governance and poverty reduction. Accountability involves two distinct stages: answerability and enforcement. Constitutionally, accountability is a bundle of rules and principles regarding checks-and-balances on public power that may be institutionalised in various ways.

Caiden (1988) suggests that accountability requires that public officials should take responsibility for all that is done in the public's name and be accountable to external bodies and, more so, be held morally and legally liable.

In the accountability process, the relationship, or the account-giving, is between the *accountor* and the *accountee*. Any accountability system should prioritise four fundamental issues:

- (a) Priority given to the transparency of data, files and records
- (b) Independent audit of financial statements, management systems and transactions
- (c) Independent review of decisions and behaviour for compliance with the law and policy
- (d) Public questioning of ministers and public officials about their policies and executive-administrative actions (Olum, 2014:604, in Aucoin & Jarvis, 2005).

Accountability in this regard is one of those terms that emerged as a universal attribute of good governance. As commonly understood, the word carries a simple meaning: those with power must answer to those they serve – the people (Diale, Maserumule & Mello, 2007: 641).

#### 4.3.4 Transparency

Armstrong (2005:1) suggests that transparency refers to unfettered access by the public to timely and reliable information on decisions and performance in the public sector. In this regard,

transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information.

According to Stirton and Lodge (2001:476), transparency can be understood to serve two separate but related functions. The first is to ensure that public service providers respect the positive rights of individuals. The second purpose relates more directly to democratic theory, which values participation by individuals in the decisions that affect them.

Transparency, in this view, has moral value because it enhances individual autonomy by involving citizens directly in the process of making decisions that affect their lives and interests. Further, transparency enhances individual autonomy to the extent that transparent institutions are predictable, allowing individuals to order their own private choices knowing the way that these are affected by public decisions (Stirton & Lodge, 2001:476).

Ghaus-Pasha (2007, in Sayeed, Reddy & Pillay, 2014: 77) denotes transparency as action that is participatory, consensus-oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive, and follows the rule of law. The South African government has sought to ensure transparency and access to information through two main pieces of legislation, namely, the Promotion of Access to Information Act 2 of 2000 and the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000. These two Acts makes provisions to overcome corruption by encouraging transparency among public servants.

#### 4.4 Good governance in Africa

According to Anders (2010:3), the good governance agenda and civil service reform in Africa, in particular, are based on the idea of the dysfunctionality of African states, stemming from an imagined disconnect between transplanted modern state institutions and traditional African society. The latter is assumed to subvert the proper functioning of the bureaucracy

In this regard, Maserumule and Gutto (2009:64) suggest that the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is not the first initiative aimed at addressing the development challenges of Africa. A variety of initiatives, some developed in Africa by Africans such as the Organisation of African Unity's Lagos Plan of Action of 1980, and others developed by multilateral

organisations such as the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), came before it.

In this regard, the failure of the Organisation for African Unity (OAU) to address Africa's developmental challenges, including the crisis of governance, led to its demise. In an attempt to promote good governance, as well as to address Africa's post-cold war legion of challenges, the successor organisation, the African Union (AU) and its attendant development programme, the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), were established to enhance governance (Akokpari, 2004:243).

However, different from previous initiatives, NEPAD places good governance and political leadership imperatives as *sine qua non* principles for sustainable human-centred development and Africa's Renaissance. The principal goals of NEPAD are to "eradicate poverty in Africa and place African countries on the path of sustainable growth and development and thus halt the marginalisation of Africa in the globalisation process. This is to be achieved by selecting "urgent priorities" that would have a "catalytic effect for the intervention in other priority areas in the future" such as "infrastructure, capital accumulation, human capital, institutions, structural diversification, competitiveness, health and good stewardship of the environment" (Maserumule & Gutto, 2009:64).

The establishment of NEPAD as a facilitator of good governance in the African continent has been done with a view to ensuring that qualifiers and characteristics of good governance are considered by countries as attempts to accelerate development. However, while good governance has been emerging since the 1980s, with most countries having regular and competitive elections, these have not been translated into good governance and effective public administration. That is, the impact on the development of Africans has been minimal and in some cases many Africans have become poorer instead, including in South Africa (Phago, 2013:107).

#### 4.4.1 African Peer Review Mechanism

Funmi (2011:183) is of the view that an African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) is a self-review mechanism for participating member states that operates on the basis of voluntary accession and is designed in such a way that the member states review the performance of their peers on a number

of set standards and parameters set out in what is commonly referred to as the Base Document. With its voluntary nature, the APRM is for Africa a first departure from the consensual approach to African matters, and an attempt to move away from the “brotherhood” mentality with which African countries operated before the establishment of the African Union (AU). Such a mentality was adequate – perhaps necessary – during the struggle for decolonialisation within the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), in as much as there was a “common enemy”. However, in contemporary times it had become obsolete, and was in fact, inhibiting progress.

The APRM is a process through which designated institutions periodically review the progress of states in matters of governance. This is achieved by assessing the adherents of states to certain principles of governance set out by both NEPAD and the AU. The review process is to be done under the auspices of the AU. The key purposes are to ensure the compliance of African states with certain standard practices of governance agreed upon by the AU summit in July 2002, as well as to assist states to improve on their policies and policy making and thereby maximise the attainment of their commitment to acceptable codes of conduct. The key benchmarks of good governance include democracy, the respect for human rights and the adoption of sound economic policies (Akokpari, 2004:252).

The APRM represents the very first attempt by African states to subject their regimes to a monitoring process administered by fellow African states. In this regard, the APRM presents fresh opportunities for strengthening democracy to ensure that the basis of governance transcends the narrow confines of personal rule, patron-client relations or ethno-religious politics. The APRM provides for the establishment of an Independent Panel of Eminent Persons (IPEP) to be responsible for the review and assessment process (Akokpari, 2004:253).

#### 4.5 Legal framework enhancing good governance in local government

Within the context of the South African government, various pieces of legislation have been enacted as a mechanism to measure, promote, encourage and enhance an effective, efficient and economical system of governance in all spheres. With respect to the local sphere of government, the following will receive scrutiny: the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2 of 2000, Municipal Finance Management Act, 56 of

2003, Municipal Systems Act, Act 32 of 2000 and the code of conduct for councillors. An exposition of this legal framework enhancing good governance is given below.

#### 4.5.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 sets out the basic values and principles governing public administration and should be adhered to by all those who practise public administration in the Republic. Chapter 10 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 clearly stipulates that public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following:

- (a) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained
- (b) Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted
- (c) Public administration must be development-oriented
- (d) Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias
- (e) People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy making
- (f) Public administration must be accountable
- (g) Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information
- (h) Good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximise human potential, must be cultivated (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

These basic values and principles governing public administration apply to all spheres of government. Thus, it is imperative that local government employees observe and adhere to the aforementioned principles in the quest of good governance.

#### 4.5.2 Promotion of Access to Information Act, Act 2 of 2000

The purpose of this Act is mainly to foster a culture of transparency and accountability in public and private bodies by giving effect to the right to access information, and to actively promote a society in which people of South Africa have effective access to information to enable them to fully exercise and protect all their rights.

It is important, therefore, to note that in South Africa, the importance of information is underscored in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. In this regard, section 32(1)(a) indicates that everyone has the right of access to any information that is held by the state and any information that is held by another person and that is required for the exercise or protection of any rights.

#### 4.5.3 Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act, Act 56 of 2003

The local government Municipal Finance Management Act, Act 56 of 2003 is arguably one of the pieces of legislation that most promotes openness, transparency and accountability in local government and is thus an important cornerstone in ensuring good governance.

The objective of this Act is to secure sound and sustainable management of the fiscal and financial affairs of municipalities and municipal entities by establishing norms and standards and other requirements for:

- (a) ensuring transparency, accountability and appropriate lines of responsibility in the fiscal and financial affairs of municipalities and municipal entities
- (b) the management of their revenues, expenditures, assets and liabilities and the handling of their financial dealings
- (c) budgetary and financial planning processes and the co-ordination of those processes with the processes of organs of state in other spheres of government
- (d) borrowing and handling of financial problems in municipalities
- (e) supply chain management and other financial matters (Municipal Finance Management Act, Act 56 of 2003).

In promoting good governance, section 22 of this Municipal Finance Management Act allows the publication of approved municipal budgets. Municipalities in this regard may furnish such information through their websites for public scrutiny. The process also encourages community participation in the local government affairs as one of the developmental mandates of local government in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

#### 4.5.4 Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, Act 32 of 2000

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act provides for the core principles, mechanisms and processes that are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of local communities and to ensure universal access to essential services that are affordable to all. It also provides for the manner in which municipal powers and functions are exercised and performed. It further provides for the building of local government into an efficient development agency for the overall social and economic upliftment of communities. To achieve these objectives, the Act sets out a code of conduct for councillors and municipal staff members. Below is the elucidation of the code of conduct for councillors.

##### 4.5.4.1 Code of conduct for councillors

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act, Act 32 of 2000 obliges elected councillors to put in place mechanisms of answerability to local communities and to meet the priority needs of communities by providing services equitably, effectively and sustainably within the means of the municipality. It further enforces on councillors accountability to communities and to report back at least quarterly to constituencies on council matters, including the performance of the municipality in terms of the established key performance areas. Furthermore, in terms of the Act, the following are expected of councillors:

- (a) Performance of functions of office in good faith, honesty and a transparent manner
- (b) To act in the best interest of the municipality so as not to compromise its credibility and integrity
- (c) To disclose to the municipal council any direct or indirect personal or private business

- (d) To disclose to the municipal council, interest that a councillor or any spouse, partner or business associate of that councillor may have in any matter before the council
- (e) Not to use the position or privileges of being a councillor or confidential information obtained as a councillor for private gain or to improperly benefit another person
- (f) Not, except with the prior consent of the municipal council, to be a party to or beneficiary of a contract for the provision of goods and services to the municipality
- (g) Not to request, solicit or accept any reward, gift or favour for disclosing privileged or confidential information (Local Government Municipal Systems Act, Act 32 of 2000).

In this regard, councillors are expected to adhere to the stipulated code of conduct as a regulative tool in guiding their behaviour and actions in executing government policy.

To further promote and encourage an efficient, effective system of good governance at the local sphere, the Handbook for Municipal Councillors was developed in 2006.

#### 4.5.5 The Handbook for Municipal Councillors

The Handbook for Municipal Councillors (2006) covers the policy and legal framework guiding local government; the role of co-operative governance and municipalities' important role in this respect; roles and functions of councillors; key municipal processes, such as the municipal integrated development planning, municipal budgeting and financial management, performance management, public participation, personal and leadership skills, as well as meeting procedures.

The Handbook (Chapter 3) sets out the roles and responsibilities of councillors, the objective being to equip them with the knowledge and skills that will enable them to carry out their work and understand their role. Good governance is described in the Handbook as where the highest quality services are delivered at the lowest cost possible for the benefit of all stakeholders. The Handbook clearly states that councillors need to be aware of the financial implications of decisions they make as good financial management by council is important for the promotion of good governance. It is for this reason that the Handbook provides an introduction to financial management and budgeting processes and clarifies the role of councillors in relation to these.

The Handbook is a useful tool to equip councillors with knowledge that enables them to play a role in preparing an Integrated Development Plan (IDP). The IDP is vital for utilising the available resources to meet the wide range of issues in a specific locality. It assists the municipality to identify and respond to issues in different sectors such as water, health, transport and community in a co-ordinated way. Integrated planning further seeks to ensure that the municipal planning meets the aspirations of communities (Mle & Mclean, 2011:1369).

Premising all the municipal processes on IDPs places councillors in a position to deliver services to the communities they serve. Public participation and citizen involvement in local governance processes enhances municipal development. The Handbook endorses this contention as it sets out legislation that promotes citizen involvement and explores the role of community development workers as a vehicle to increase public participation (Handbook for Municipal Councillors, 2006).

#### 4.6 Characteristics of good governance

The UNDP managed to establish eight general characteristics of good governance. These principles include participatory, consensus-oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive governance, and follows the rule of law. The ideal of these principles would be assuring that corruption is minimised, the views of minorities are taken into account and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard during decision making (Kettani & Moulin, 2014:76). Below is the elucidation of the principles:

- (a) Participation: Participation by a diverse demographic of society's constituents is a key cornerstone of good governance. Participation can be either direct or through legitimate intermediate institutions or representatives. It is important to point out that representative democracy does not necessarily mean that the concerns of the most vulnerable in society would be taken into consideration when making decisions. Participation needs to be informed and organised. This means freedom of association and expression on the one hand and an organised civil society on the other hand.
- (b) Rule of law: Good governance requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced impartially. It also requires the full protection of human rights, particularly those of minorities. Impartial

enforcement of laws requires an independent judiciary and an impartial and incorruptible police force.

- (c) **Transparency:** Transparency means that the decisions made and their enforcement are done in a manner that follows rules and regulations. It also means that information is freely available and directly accessible to those who will be affected by such decisions and their enforcement. It means that enough information is provided and that it is provided in easily understood forms.
- (d) **Responsiveness:** good governance requires institutions and processes to serve stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe.
- (e) **Consensus-oriented:** There are several actors and many viewpoints in any given society. Good governance requires the mediation of different interests in a society to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interests of the whole community and how this can be achieved. It also requires a broad and long-term perspective on what is needed for sustainable human development and how to achieve the goals of such development. This can only result from an understanding of the historical, cultural and social contexts of a given society or community.
- (f) **Equity and inclusiveness:** A society's wellbeing depends on ensuring that members do not feel excluded from mainstream society. This requires all groups, but particularly the most vulnerable, to have opportunities to improve or maintain their wellbeing.
- (g) **Effectiveness and efficiency:** Good governance enables processes and institutions to produce results that meet the needs of society while making the best use of the resources at their disposal. The concept of efficiency in the context of good governance also covers the sustainable use of natural resources and the protection of the environment.
- (h) **Accountability:** Accountability is a key requirement of good governance. Not only governmental institutions, but also the private sector and civil society organisations must be accountable to the public and to their institutional stakeholders. Who is accountable to whom varies depending on whether decisions or actions are internal or external to an organisation or institution. In general, an organisation or an institution is accountable to those who will

be affected by its decisions or actions. Accountability cannot be enforced without transparency and the rule of law (Kettani & Moulin, 2014:77).

These aforementioned principles of good governance seek to promote government that is ethical and responsive to the needs of the people.

On the other hand, the United Nations (2008:13) suggests that good governance is open to much interpretation but overall six core principles have become widely accepted and include the following:

- (a) Participation: The degree of involvement of all stakeholders
- (b) Decency: The degree to which the formation and stewardship of the rules is undertaken without harming or causing grievance to people
- (c) Transparency: The degree of clarity and openness with which decisions are made
- (d) Accountability: The extent to which political actors are responsible to society for what they say and do
- (e) Fairness: The degree to which rules apply equally to everyone in society
- (f) Efficiency: The extent to which limited human and financial resources are applied without waste, delay or corruption or without prejudicing future generations.

In this regard, there seems to be a general consensus on the principles of good governance. It is of utmost importance that government officials adhere to and uphold these principles. This would ensure that citizens gain trust in the government they have chosen through elections.

Furthermore, various works on the principles and characteristics of the concept of good governance are of the view that good governance is a process of decision making, as it normally happens with the planning activities in any organisation and the implementation of the action plans for effective and efficient delivery of services. It is further stated that the said decision making and implementation activities have to be carried out in a transparent manner, as envisioned in the open systems paradigm (Fukuyama, 2013:349).

In the light of the above, good governance by its very nature is democratic, participatory, transparent, responsive, equitable and consensus-oriented. Good governance requires an ethical

and accountable leadership that can find its way through the maze of service delivery-related challenges. This further suggests that the leadership that is needed to drive good governance in the public service needs to be the type of leadership that is predicated on the ethical principles of promoting goodness over badness through good governance, justice and fairness, honesty and integrity, and most of all, the principle of freedom. In more ways than one, reference is made to the kind of leadership that bears a combination of both character and competence (Bell, 2006:10). The following are institutional mechanisms that could enhance good governance: planning for responsive local government, accountability and transparency to ensure trust, strengthening the partnership between national and local government and civil society, strengthening management capacity, citizen empowerment, internal and external reporting, and performance management. Below is an exposition of these institutional mechanisms in enhancing good governance.

#### 4.7 Institutional mechanisms in enhancing good governance

There are a number of common governance and administrative weaknesses that could hamper effective governance. Low capacity (such as weak personnel and system capabilities) could be due to an inadequate skills base, low compensation and poor human resources and organisational policies (Shah, 2005:154-156). What follows are some of the institutional mechanism that may be taken into consideration in enhancing good governance in local government.

##### 4.7.1 Planning for responsive local government

Local government planning activities should involve a wide spectrum of the citizenry. As such, community-based planning that reflects the needs of the entire community is the single most effective means to develop priorities that truly reflect the needs of the community. Consequently, the implementation of participatory strategic planning techniques is increasingly important to the development of effective local government and the linking of the outcomes of such processes for the development of the budget (Fourie & Opperman, 2007:127).

The strategic plan should contain measurable objectives with an indication of outputs/outcomes, indicators and targets, which means that the objective of a budget must be clear. To ensure that

governance is supported, there should be a clear link between strategic planning, budgeting and service delivery plans in order for services to be delivered effectively and efficiently. It should also be noted that the strategic plan forms the basis for the annual reports of the accounting officers (National Treasury, 2005:15).

#### 4.7.2 Accountability and transparency to ensure trust

Citizens are increasingly demanding that government be both accountable and transparent in their actions. In the local sphere, citizen confidence in government is directly related both to the responsiveness of government to the needs of citizens and its openness to participation and involvement by them. For citizens to participate effectively in local government, they must be able both to understand and have confidence in the local government (Kroukamp, 2007:4). Local government has the opportunity to set a new standard of excellence in terms of accountability and transparency and, in so doing, help reverse the growing trend of citizen disillusionment with especially local government institutions (Charlesworth, Cook & Crozier, 2003:13). According to Veldsman (2004:31), the trust sphere determines the true sense of taking co-responsibility for the actions of government as well as the success of their service delivery efforts.

#### 4.7.3 Strengthening partnership between national and local government and civil society

National governments, on the one hand, through their legislation and fiscal policies, shape the environment within which local governments operate and can limit or support their capacity to act effectively. Consequently, it is of critical importance to the future of local government that national and local officials, as well as civil society, work together. Civil society, on the other hand, through their own independent activities and, increasingly, through their ability to influence other institutions, is beginning to shape the policies and actions of both local and national governments. It is therefore crucial that civil society organisations and local governments work in partnership to explore the most effective means for delivering services to the citizens in a given community (Prabhu, Robson & Mitchelle, 2002:38).

#### 4.7.4 Strengthening management capacity

According to Ndabeni (2007:8), local government lacks adequate capacity to develop the kind of information on citizen needs that is necessary for it to respond effectively. Critical for efficient performance is the implementation of various kinds of measurement and quality management systems, but in various communities, basic financial management practices, both in terms of budgeting and accounting, are woefully lacking. The effective implementation of these systems is critical to maintain public confidence and trust in government. The capacity of management should thus be strengthened.

#### 4.7.5 Citizen empowerment

As only part of the people being governed are involved in or in a position to influence local government, initiatives to empower inter alia the poor and the marginalised through adequate information to understand both the opportunities for and the responsibilities inherent in local government should be encouraged to prevent growing financial burdens and declining infrastructure (Kroukamp, 2002:42).

#### 4.7.6 Internal and external reporting

To obtain accountability and good governance, internal reporting is an indispensable component to ensure organisational performance. Abedian, Strachan and Ajam (1998:7) comment that accounting is the component of financial management that is concerned with the recording and reporting of financial information. Responsibility managers, who are responsible for the day-to-day operations in line functioning, have a duty to ensure that performance activities' outputs are clearly confirmed. In this process, effectiveness, efficiency and economical use of resources become fundamental in implementing internal programmes. External reporting ensures accountability and transparency. It is this form of reporting that mirrors the fit between strategic plans and the departmental budget and determines whether or not the services have been delivered not only in terms of policies but also in an effective and efficient manner.

#### 4.7.7 Performance management

Performance management is a set of techniques used by managers to plan, direct and improve the performance of subordinates in line with the achievement of the departmental goals and objectives (Spangenberg, 1994:14). It should be noted that performance management could only be used as a tool in measuring good governance where there are measurable objectives that have to be attained. Measurable objectives should be specific, quantifiable outcomes that can be achieved within a foreseeable period. They serve as a roadmap. It is the responsibility of every manager to ensure that subordinates enter into performance contracts that will guide them in discharging the functions assigned to them.

#### 4.8 Linking e-governance and good governance

Barthwal (2003:288) denotes that traditionally, the interaction between a citizen or business and a government agency takes place in a government office. With emerging information and communication technologies, it is possible to locate service centres closer to the public.

In Chapter 3 of this study, Heeks (2001:2) is referred to as postulating the effect of new information and communication technologies and how they can make a significant contribution to the achievement of good governance goals. According to Heeks (2001), the three main contributions of e-governance include improving government processes (e-administration); connecting citizens (e-citizens and e-services); and building external interactions (e-society).

Countries, therefore, face two challenges. First, the strategic challenge of e-readiness: preparing six identified pre-conditions for e-governance, i.e. data systems infrastructure, legal infrastructure, institutional infrastructure, human infrastructure, technological infrastructure, and leadership and strategic thinking. Second, the tactical challenge of closing design-reality gaps: adopting best practice in e-governance projects in order to avoid failure and to achieve success (Kalsi, Kiran & Vaidya, 2009: 214).

A central role for ICTs, as governance becomes and is recognised as more information-intensive, ICTs become an essential part of more governance initiatives. ICTs are also recognised as a key lever to change. They are no longer isolated on the side-lines. An integrated role for ICTs, e-

governance means using ICTs as servants to the master of good governance. ICTs are no longer seen as an end in themselves, and they are seen to work only as part of a wider systemic “package”. Overall, then, e-governance is the ICT-enabled route to achieving good governance (Kalsi *et al.*, 2009:214).

In ensuring good governance, Barthwal (2003:288) suggests that the use of ICT may contribute to a variety of ends thus including better delivery of government services to citizens, improved interactions with business and industry, citizen empowerment through access to information, more efficient government management, strengthening people's voice, fostering partnership and collaboration between different spheres of government, breaking bureaucratic barriers, reducing corruption, increasing transparency, greater convenience, revenue growth, cost reductions, accessible government (immediate access to pertinent information), faster government, cheaper government, efficient government, improving the quality of service to citizens (citizens can get service within minutes or hours).

Barthwal (2003:289) is of the view that ICT could help create avenues and opportunities to enable people to participate in governance processes through the following:

- (a) Issues and agendas that would be part of the larger public debate before any decision is taken on them
- (b) Expanding policy debates beyond the confines of dominant individuals and groups
- (c) Creation of strong virtual communities
- (d) Greater representation to unrepresented communities – women, the aged, children – who are otherwise kept marginalised in the democratic processes
- (e) Information disclosure by the government
- (f) The possibility of the public interacting with officials can build pressure on the latter for improved government accountability at all levels.

In this regard, the above avenues would automatically lead to good governance, for they would empower the masses and would ensure that those in the government uphold principles of good governance, subsequently being more responsive to the public demands and needs.

## 4.9 Conclusion

In the light of the above, it may be deduced that good governance intends to contribute significantly to the effectiveness and efficiency of governance. For good governance to be realised, it is of utmost importance that citizens be informed about their needs, resources and development objectives. It is also essential that citizens should participate in government processes as this would ensure sound accountability in these processes.

In this regard, through adherence to good governance principles, government may be in a position to ensure sound governance. This would certainly minimise corruption and maladministration in public service. Good governance ensures that citizens as customers of public services are engaged on policy reforms. This would certainly increase their confidence in the government they had chosen.

Furthermore, adherence to the legal framework supporting the ideal of good governance is also pivotal. As per the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, a high standard of professional ethics ought to be encouraged in the public service. This ideal certainly complements the Batho-Pele principles wherein people's needs are prioritised and taken into consideration.

## CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the literature review of good governance. This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology utilised in conducting the study. Social scientists achieve their position by virtue of their knowledge of what the field has to offer in terms of its theory and also its methodological theory (Henning, Rensburg & Smit, 2004:12).

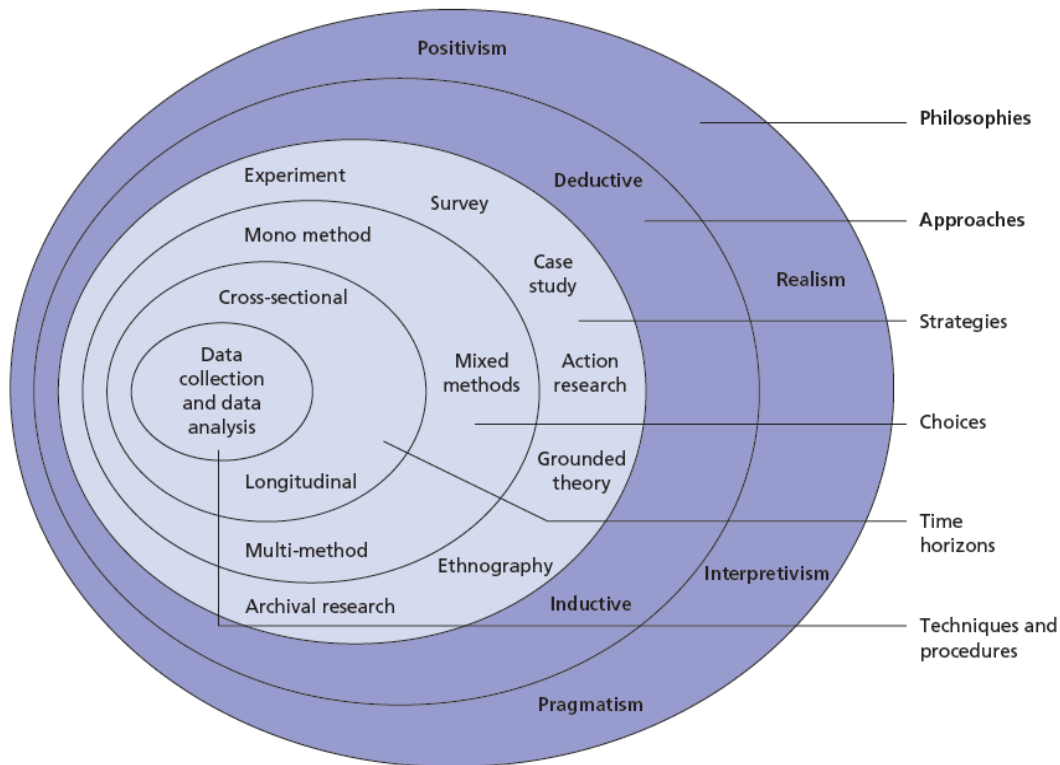
The research methodology assists in providing insights into the nature and procedure of research in finding answers to a specific problem. Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014:1) suggest that the significance of research could be closely related to the search for knowledge and the understanding of phenomena and therefore it provides scientific knowledge that could be used to determine the general applicability of objectives.

In this regard, the topic under investigation is an analysis of e-governance towards good governance in local government with a specific reference to the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. A mixed method approach is employed as a mode of collecting and analysing data.

### 5.2 Research philosophy

All research is based on assumptions about how the world is perceived and how one could best understand the world (Trochim, 2001:14). Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002: 27) suggest that if one fails to think on philosophical issues in one's research, it can seriously affect the quality of research itself. Hence, prior to conducting research, one has to think about the underlying philosophy, as philosophy is central to the notion of research design. Research philosophy in social science relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge in the social world. Research philosophy includes important assumptions about how one observes or views the social world. It involves thinking about epistemology and ontology, which have important distinctions that will affect the methods in which a researcher thinks about the research process.

The research philosophy one adopts contains important assumptions about the way in which one views the world. These assumptions will underpin the research strategy and the methods a researcher chooses as part of that particular strategy (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:108). Figure 5.1 below illustrates an onion of research philosophy as adapted from Saunders *et al.* (2009).



**Figure 5.1: Research onion**

*Adapted from Saunders et al., 2009:109*

In this regard, the above diagram emphasises that researchers need to be aware of the philosophical commitment through the research strategy.

In the light of the above, four major philosophical schools of thought are considered, namely, pragmatism, positivism, realism and interpretivism. Below is an elucidation on these philosophies.

### 5.2.1 Pragmatism

Macy (2003:52) is of the view that pragmatism offers historical strands and warrants for the new discourse of social science research, which embraces plurality of method and multiple methods

philosophies. Bishop (2015:7) suggests that the pragmatist approaches to mixed methods research generally acknowledge the epistemological differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches but do not see these forms of inquiry as incommensurable and advocate a shared aim for all research to produce positive change in the world.

### 5.2.2 Positivism

Saunders *et al.* (2009:113) postulate that if research reflects the philosophy of positivism then a researcher will probably adopt the philosophical stance of the natural scientist. A researcher in this case would prefer “working with an observable social reality and that the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists”.

A positivist investigator has an idea or notion that the universe or world conforms to permanent and unchanging laws and rules of causation and happenings; that there exist an intricacy and complexity that could be overcome by reductionism; and with the intention of asserting an importance and emphasis on impartiality, measurement, objectivity and repeatability. The scholars of positivism have equally a realist and an independent and objective analysis and view of the universe. The methodologies frequently used by positivist investigators and researchers comprise of confirmatory analysis, nomothetic experiments, quantitative analysis, laboratory experiments and deduction (Olesen, 2004).

### 5.2.3 Realism

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:114), realism is another philosophical position that relates to scientific enquiry. The essence of realism is that what the senses show us as reality is the truth: that objects have an existence independent of the human mind. The philosophy of realism is that there is a reality quite independent of the mind. In this sense, realism is opposed to idealism, the theory that only the mind and its contents exist. Realism is a branch of epistemology that is similar to positivism in that it assumes a scientific approach to the development of knowledge. This assumption underpins the collection of data and the understanding of those data.

## 5.2.4 Interpretivism

Interpretivism advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand differences between humans in our role as social actors. This emphasises the difference between conducting research among people rather than objects such as trucks and computers (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:116). In this regard, Göran, (2012:1) confirms the view of Trauth (2001b:7) that interpretivism is the lens most frequently influencing the choice of qualitative methods.

In the light of the above, the researcher utilised a pragmatism research philosophy that would allow the use of a qualitative and quantitative approach. Table 5.1 below illustrates fundamental beliefs of research paradigms in social sciences.

**Table 5.1: Fundamental beliefs of research paradigms in social sciences**

<b>Research paradigms</b>				
<b>Fundamental beliefs</b>	<b>Positivism (Naïve realism)</b>	<b>Post-positivism (critical realism)</b>	<b>Interpretivism (constructivism)</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<b>Ontology: the position on the nature of reality</b>	External, objective and independent of social actors	Objective, exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence, but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, multiple, view chosen to best achieve an answer to the research question
<b>Epistemology: the view on what constitutes</b>	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts Focus	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts	Subjective meanings and social phenomena	Either or both Observable phenomena and subjective

acceptable knowledge	on causality and law-like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements	Focus on explaining within a context or contexts	Focus upon the details of situation, the reality behind these details, subjective meanings and motivating actions	meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent on the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data
Axiology: the role of values in research and the researcher's stance	Value-free and etic Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Value-laden and etic Research is value laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing	Value-bond and emic Research is value bond, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective	Value-bond and etic-emic Values play a large role in interpreting the results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view
Research methodology: the model behind the research	Quantitative	Quantitative or qualitative	Qualitative	Quantitative and qualitative (mixed or multimethod design)

process				
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*Source: Adapted from Wahyuni, 2012:70*

### 5.3 Research methodology

Research methodology focuses on the research process and kinds of tools and procedures to be used (Mouton, 2013:56). The research methodology of collecting data necessitates a reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the research in order to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity, hence research methodology focuses on the process of research and the decisions that the researcher has to take to execute the research project (Brynard, Hanekom & Brynard, 2014:38).

In general, research in social and behavioural sciences can be categorised into three groups, namely, qualitative, quantitative and mixed methodologies (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:4). What follows is an exposition of the three types of methodologies essential in a scientific investigation.

#### 5.3.1 Qualitative methodology

Qualitative research, broadly defined, means any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification (Strauss & Corbin, 1990:17). The qualitative methodology orients social and behavioural scientists primarily working within the constructivist paradigm and principally interested in narrative data and analyses (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:4).

Qualitative research is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena. That is to say, it aims to help us to understand the social world in which we live and why things are the way they are. It is concerned with the social aspects of our world and seeks to answer questions about:

- why people behave the way they do
- how opinions and attitudes are formed
- how people are affected by the events that go on around them

- how and why cultures and practices have developed in the way they have (Hancock, Ockleford, & Windridge, 2009:7).

Qualitative research attempts to collect rich descriptive data in respect of a particular phenomenon or context with the intention of developing an understanding of what is being observed or studied (Creswell *et al.*, 2011:50).

Harwell (2011:148) confirms the view of Denzin and Lincoln (2005:3) that qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

On the other hand, Merriam (2002:4) suggests that qualitative researchers are interested in understanding what those interpretations (of those studied) are at a particular point in time and in a particular context.

The qualitative analysis results in a different type of knowledge than the quantitative inquiry because the former argues from the underlying philosophical nature of each paradigm, enjoying detailed interviewing, and the latter focuses on the apparent compatibility of the research methods, enjoying the rewards of both numbers and words (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992:8).

The qualitative methodology allows the researcher to know people personally, to see them as they are, and to experience their daily struggles when confronted with real-life experiences. This approach enables the researcher to interpret and describe the actions of people (Brynard *et al.*, 2014:39).

In this regard, Hancock, Ockleford and Windridge (2009:16) affirm certain data collection methods of qualitative research that include the following:

- Interviews
- Focus groups

- Observation
- Collection of documented material such as letters, diaries, photographs
- Collection of narrative
- Open-ended questions in questionnaires (other aspects of are covered in the resource pack surveys and questionnaires).

Ritchie and Lewis (2003:3) also confirm that data collection identified with qualitative research includes observational methods, in-depth interviewing, group discussions, narratives, and the analysis of documentary evidence. However, it is important to note that practitioners of qualitative research vary considerably in the extent to which they rely on particular methods of data collection.

### 5.3.2 Quantitative methodology

Quantitative research is a process that is systemic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a universe to generalise the findings to the universe that is being studied (Creswell *et al.*, 2011:145). The quantitative methodology orients social and behavioural scientist primarily working within the post positivist/positivist paradigm and principally interested in numerical data and analysis (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:4).

Harwell (2011:149) acknowledges the notion of Lincoln and Guba (1985) that quantitative research methods attempt to maximise objectivity, replicability, and generalising of findings, and are typically interested in prediction. Integral to this approach is the expectation that a researcher will set aside his or her experiences, perceptions and biases to ensure objectivity in the conduct of the study and the conclusions that are drawn. In this regard, key features of many quantitative studies are the use of instruments such as tests or surveys to collect data, and reliance on probability theory to test statistical hypotheses that correspond to research questions of interest. Quantitative methods are frequently described as deductive in nature, in the sense that inferences from tests of statistical hypotheses lead to general inferences about characteristics of a population. Quantitative methods are also frequently characterised as assuming that there is a single “truth” that exists, independent of human perception.

Mouton (1983:128) asserts that quantitative methodology is associated with analytical research, and its purpose is to arrive at a universal statement. In quantitative methodology, a researcher assigns numbers to observations. In this regard, by counting and measuring things or objects, data could be produced (Brynard *et al.*, 2014:39). Table 5.2 below portrays the difference between qualitative and quantitative methodology.

**Table 5.2: Difference between qualitative and quantitative methodology**

<b>Qualitative</b>	<b>Quantitative</b>
Tends to focus on how people or groups of people can have (somewhat) different ways of looking at reality (usually social or psychological reality)	Tends to focus on ways of describing and understanding reality by the discovery of general “laws”
Takes account of complexity by incorporating the real-world context – can take different perspectives on board	Takes account of complexity by precise definition of the focus of interest and techniques that mean that external “noise” can be discounted
Takes account of complexity by incorporating the real-world context – can take different perspectives on board	Takes account of complexity by precise definition of the focus of interest and techniques that mean that external “noise” can be discounted
Studies behaviour in natural settings or uses people’s accounts as data; usually no manipulation of variables	Involves manipulation of some variables (independent variables) while other variables (which would be considered to be extraneous and confounding variables) are held constant
Focuses on reports of experience or on data that cannot be adequately expressed numerically	Uses statistical techniques that allow us to talk about how likely it is that something is “true” for a given population in an objective or measurable sense

Focuses on description and interpretation and might lead to development of new concepts or theory, or to an evaluation of an organisational process	Focuses on cause and effect, e.g. uses experiment to test (try to disprove) a hypothesis
Employs a flexible, emergent but systematic research process	Requires the research process to be defined in advance

*Source: Adapted from Hancock, Ockleford, and Windridge, 2009:6*

### 5.3.3 Mixed method approach

Creswell (2015:2) maintains that mixed method is an approach to research in the social, behavioural and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative and qualitative data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems.

The mixed methodologist works primarily within the pragmatist paradigm and is interested in both narrative and numeric data and their analyses (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:4). The mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry involving collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, integrating the two forms of data, and using distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. The core assumption of this form of inquiry is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Creswell, 2014).

Furthermore, the following could be regarded as characteristics of mixed methods:

- Collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data in response to research questions
- Use of rigorous qualitative and quantitative methods
- Combination or integration of quantitative and qualitative data using a specific type of mixed methods design, and interpretations of this integration
- Sometimes, framing of design within a philosophy or theory (Creswell, 2015:3).

In the light of the above, this research is informed of the pragmatism research philosophy as it adopts a mixed methodology approach in its quest for data collection and analysis. Below is a discussion on the research design.

#### 5.4 Research design

Research design focuses on the end product outlining the kind of study being planned and the kind of results the study aims to achieve. Research design focuses on the logic of the research, stipulating the kind of evidence required to address the research question adequately (Mouton, 2013:56).

Burns and Grove (2003:195) define a research design as a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings. Parahoo (1997:142) describes a research design as a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed. Polit, Hungler and Beck (2001:167) define a research design as the researcher's overall blue print for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis.

Research design can also be variously defined as the systematic planning of research to permit valid conclusion (Reis & Judd, 2000:17). It involves, for example, the specifications of the population to be studied, the treatment to be administered, and the dependent variables to be measured – all guided by the theoretical conceptions underlying the research.

##### 5.4.1 Mixed method research design

The mixed methods research design combines elements of both the quantitative and qualitative orientations and requires creativity and flexibility in their construction (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:138).

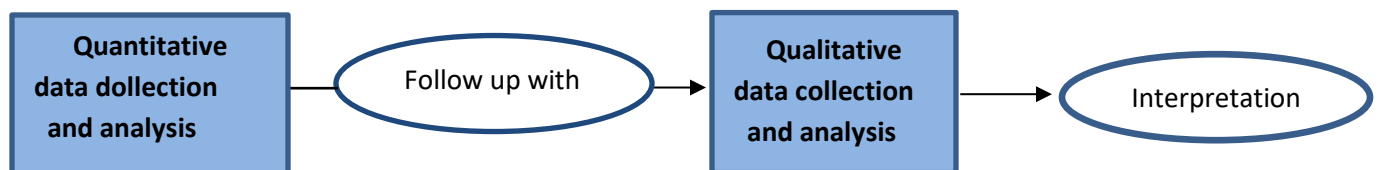
Onwuegbuzie (2004, in Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:138) is of the view that a tenet of mixed methods research is that researchers should mindfully create designs that effectively answer their research questions. This notion stands in contrast to the common approach in the traditional quantitative research where students are given a menu of designs from which to select.

Furthermore, this notion stands in stark contrast to the approach where one completely follows either the qualitative paradigm or the quantitative paradigm.

There is a wide range of available classifications of types of mixed methods designs that methodologists have advanced (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:55). What follows is an elucidation of only three mixed methods research designs.

**(a) The explanatory mixed methods research design**

The design informs the researcher to first conduct quantitative research and analyse the results then build on the results to explain them in more detail with qualitative research. It is considered explanatory because the initial quantitative data results are explained further with the qualitative data. It is considered sequential because the initial quantitative phase is followed by the qualitative phase. This type of design is popular in fields with a strong quantitative orientation (hence the project begins with quantitative research), but it presents challenges of identifying the quantitative results to further explore and the unequal sample sizes for each phase of the study (Creswell, 2014). Figure 5.2 depicts an explanatory mixed method.



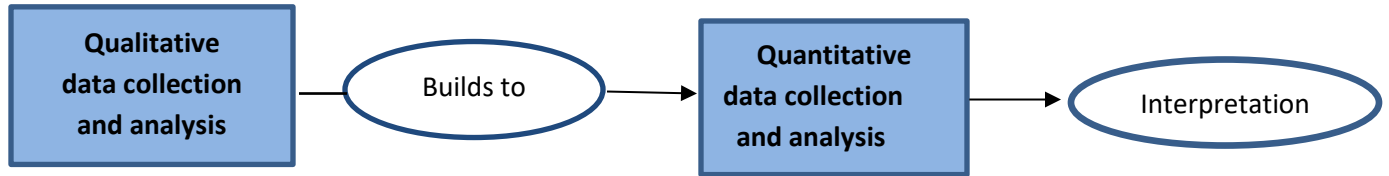
**Figure 5.2: Explanatory mixed method**

*Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011:69*

**(b) The exploratory mixed methods research design**

This design is the reverse sequence of the explanatory sequential design. In the exploratory sequential approach, the researcher first begins with a qualitative research phase and explores the views of participants. The data are then analysed, and the information used to build into a second, quantitative phase. The qualitative phase may be used to build an instrument that best fits the sample under study, to identify appropriate instruments to use in the follow-up quantitative phase, or to specify variables that need to go into a follow-up quantitative study. Particular challenges to

this design reside in focusing in on the appropriate qualitative findings to use and the sample selection for both phases of research (Creswell, 2014). Figure 5.3 illustrates an exploratory mixed method.

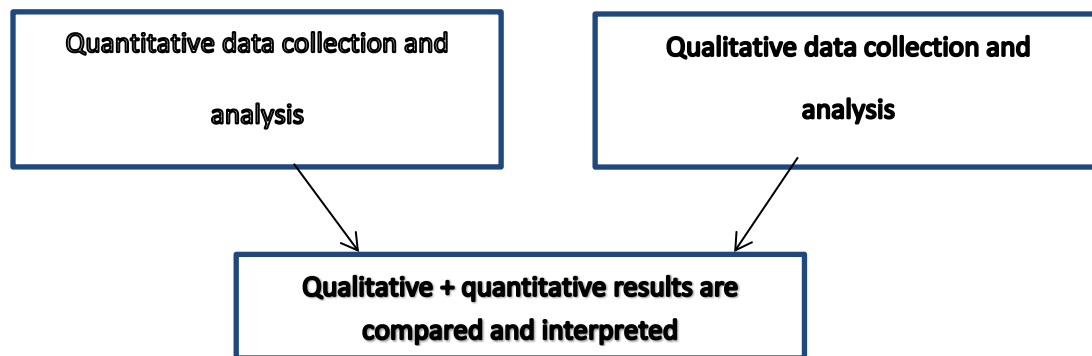


**Figure 5.3 Exploratory mixed method**

*Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011:69*

**(c) The triangulation mixed methods research design**

This is a form of mixed methods design in which the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. In this design, the investigator typically collects both forms of data at roughly the same time and then interrogates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. Contradictions or incongruent findings are explained or further probed in this design (Creswell, 2014). Figure 5.4 depicts a triangulation mixed method.



**Figure 5.4: Triangulation mixed method**

*Source: Creswell and Plano, 2007:73*

In the light of the above, the current study is influenced by the triangulation mixed methods research design. This manifested from the ideal of concurrent collection and analysis of both

qualitative and quantitative data. This enabled the researcher to compare and contrast in analysing e-governance towards good governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

## 5.5 Data collection

Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014:38) stipulate that when researchers collect their own data, it is called primary data. In a case wherein researchers use data collected by other researchers concerning other research problems, that data would be classified as secondary. In this regard, the primary data of this research is formed of the survey and observations. The secondary data of this research is informed by the literature review. An elucidation of data collection instruments follows.

### 5.5.1 Primary methods of data collection

Inspired by the pragmatism research philosophy, as earlier mentioned, the researcher utilised survey and observation as tools for data collection. O'Leary (2004:159) suggests that survey questions can either be open or closed. The ideal of open questions seeks to ask research participants to construct answers using their own words. The open questions can generate rich and candid data, but it can be data that is difficult to code and analyse. The closed questions would then ensure that research participants get to choose from a range of predetermined responses and are generally easy to code and analyse statistically.

Furthermore, the research study employed a cross-sectional survey. This type of survey uses a sample or cross-section of respondents selected to represent a target population. The goal is to be able to generalise the findings of the sample to the population with a high degree of confidence (O'Leary, 2004:154).

Essentially, interviews can be structured, with questions prepared and presented to each interviewee in an identical way, using a strict predetermined order. At the other extreme, interviews can be completely unstructured, like a free-flowing conversation. Qualitative researchers usually employ semi-structured interviews that involve a number of open-ended questions (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009:16). The semi-structured interviews are often the sole data source for a qualitative research project (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006:315).

Since this study employed an open- and closed-ended questionnaire, the advantages and disadvantages of each as illustrated in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 respectively, are given below.

**Table 5.3: Advantages and disadvantages of open-ended questionnaires**

<b>Advantages of open-ended questionnaires</b>	<b>Disadvantages of open-ended questionnaires</b>
Respondents can give honest answer and detail	The amount of detail may differ among respondents
The respondent's thinking process is revealed	Respondents may need time to think and write their responses
Complex questions can be adequately answered	They are difficult for illiterate people to answer

*Source: Maree and Pietersen, 2011:161, in Maree, 2011*

**Table 5.4: Advantages and disadvantages of closed-ended questionnaires**

<b>Advantages of closed-ended questionnaires</b>	<b>Disadvantages of closed-ended questionnaires</b>
They are easy and quick to answer	It is easy to answer any question, even those that are misunderstood
Sensitive questions are more easily answered	Answers are very simple with no detail
Coding and statistical analysis are easy	A respondent can answer even if she or he has no opinion or knowledge

*Source: Maree and Pietersen, 2011:164, in Maree, 2011*

In the light of the above, since the study adopted a mixed research approach, the researcher used open- and closed-ended questionnaires as a mechanism to generate the data of this study. The open-ended questionnaires assisted the researcher to collect qualitative data, while the closed-ended questionnaires assisted in generating quantitative data. The researcher in this study was engrossed in understanding the state of e-governance, the accessibility of e-services, the effectiveness of e-participation, and to what extent e-governance influences good governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, questionnaires appeared to be the ideal tools to collect primary data and would assist in an attempt to answer the research question of the study. The questionnaires for residents in the City of Tshwane were structured in an open- and closed-ended format to accommodate a variety of issues that needed assessment. Importantly, open-ended questions enabled research participants to provide any information or express any opinion they wished relevant to the study.

#### 5.5.2 Secondary methods of data collection

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:314) maintain that secondary data could be regarded as data that was originally recorded or collected at an earlier time by a different person from the current researcher. In this particular instance, the researcher utilises what is already there. The researcher must, however, find these data or artifacts so as to use them in his or her research study.

Data that exists and has already been utilised by other researchers is regarded as secondary data (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006:36).

Mello (2007:8) refers to secondary data as the collection and the analysis of existing written (published and unpublished) information. It may include the following aspects:

- published books on the public sector administration and management
- published books on e-governance and good governance
- previous research reports
- published articles

- current legislation (acts of Parliament, provincial and local government legislation, and white papers)
- journals
- the internet.

In this regard, the secondary data gathered by the researcher for the study would then allow for appropriate comparison and scrutiny of theory associated with the topic. Data was obtained from a number of books in libraries, from journals, and the internet. The researcher has acknowledged sources of information to ensure scientific and academic integrity.

### 5.5.3 Questionnaires as data collection tool

There are two types of questionnaires researchers tend to use in data collection, namely, open- and closed-ended questionnaires. Marshall (2005:132) suggests that open questions are those where the expected response is in words. These questions should only be asked if the researcher is seeking narrative, qualitative information. The closed questions are where a respondent is offered a choice of alternative replies.

The open- and closed-ended questionnaires were developed to assess the research participants' (residents') perceptions, understanding and experiences in the use of information communication technologies in optimising good governance in the CTMM. The questionnaires had sections that employed a closed-ended approach, which allowed the generation of quantitative data. The other sections in the questionnaires would then be open-ended to ensure that residents or research participants provide and express their views on the subject matter under survey.

Any good questionnaire ought to be reinforced by a thorough intellectual structure otherwise it would simply be a compilation of interesting questions (Schutte, 2006:616). In this regard, literature on e-governance and good governance was adequately searched and reviewed. The literature review assisted the researcher to develop relevant questions for the questionnaires.

In this regard, the survey targeted only the residents in the selected regions of the CTMM. Through the literature review, the researcher was able to avoid difficult questions that could only be answered by the officials. The researcher ensured that questionnaires were developed in a

simplified manner thus ensuring that residents would not encounter challenges when answering questions.

#### 5.5.4 Design of the questionnaire

The design of the questionnaire took into consideration three aspects, namely, the initial development, pretesting and the final questionnaire for data collection. Following is an elucidation of aspects considered in designing the questionnaire.

##### 5.5.4.1 Initial development

It is at the initial development that the researcher considered the availability of the literature review on e-governance and good governance. The theories reviewed on e-governance and good governance formulated the crux of the questions, thus ensuring that questionnaires are relevant to the research study.

##### 5.5.4.2 Pretesting the questionnaire

Once the survey was initially developed, the researcher disseminated the questionnaire to the study leader and colleagues in the field of Public Administration. This exercise was pivotal in gathering feedback concerning the suitability of questions raised. The feedback received was mostly positive, although some remarks were made that contributed significantly to the development of the questionnaire. In this regard, the necessary changes were incorporated accordingly to ensure simplicity and a better understanding by residents. Furthermore, the preliminary survey of community members in the selected regions was conducted to assess the practicality of the language usage and to gauge whether participants would respond adequately to the questions posed. The corrections emanating from the preliminary survey were effected accordingly.

#### 5.5.4.3 Final questionnaire for data collection

Once the questionnaire was pretested, the researcher made amendments as per the suggestions. The final questionnaire comprises of five sections, namely:

- Section A, which focuses on the biographic information of the research participants
- Section B, which focuses on the state of e-governance in the City of Tshwane
- Section C, which focuses on the access of e-services in the City of Tshwane
- Section D, which focuses on the e-participation in the City of Tshwane
- Section E, which focuses on the extent to which e-governance influences good governance in the City of Tshwane.

In the light of the above, the researcher used a questionnaire as a tool to gather primary data with specific interest in the residents in the City of Tshwane's targeted regions.

#### 5.5.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014:49) assert that validity and reliability of data-measuring instruments are crucial to scientific research. Validity refers to the potential of a design or an instrument to achieve or measure what it is supposed to measure. It is concerned with the "What" of data collection procedures and measures (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:82; Msweli, 2011:61). Following are various types of validity:

- Content validity: it implies the correctness and appropriateness of the questions included in a test or questionnaire. It is advisable to test the correctness, relevance and lucidity of the questions in a preliminary investigation
- Criterion validity: this involves testing whether or not an instrument (A), selected for data collection, measures what it is expected to measure and whether or not it can be compared to another instrument (B), which is known to be valid.
- Construct validity: this refers to the degree to which a measurement technique uncovers the information that it was designed to uncover

- Face validity: this is concerned with the way an instrument appears to the participants
- External validity: this refers to the applicability to similar problems of the conclusions drawn from the research, provided that the sample is representative and the study is a simulation of the real world and real-life situations.

To this end, the researcher disseminated the questionnaire used in the survey to the study leader and colleagues in the discipline of Public Administration, thus addressing aspects of content and face validity.

Essentially, reliability pertains to the accuracy and consistency of measures. The same instrument must be able to produce the same data at a later stage under similar conditions, e.g. by means of a test-retest technique (Brynard, Hanekom & Brynard, 2014:49). In this regard, reliability can be regarded as the extent to which measurements yield the same score across different times or groups of people and the results must display consistency when tested by independent researchers under the same conditions (Msweli, 2011:65).

The researcher therefore employed a preliminary survey in order to address reliability issues of the questionnaire that was developed for this study. The preliminary survey allowed the researcher to detect and rectify unforeseeable challenges in terms of reliability.

#### 5.5.6 Observation

Observation is one of the data collection instruments. Essentially, when using observation, the researcher observes participants in a natural or structured environment (Tasshakori & Teddlie, 2003:312). In the data collection process, the researcher observed from research participants pertinent aspects relating to the study. From an observation point of view, some of the participants had no idea of the existence of an e-governance strategy in the City of Tshwane. Some participants acknowledged the e-governance strategy. However, there was a barrier concerning its trustworthiness. Furthermore, the researcher observed that mostly, residents preferred a traditional mechanism of interacting with the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

## 5.6 Sampling

Marshall (1996:522) suggests that choosing a sample is an important step in any research project since it is rarely practical, efficient or ethical to study the whole population.

Sampling is the process of selecting units (such as people and organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample a researcher can fairly generalise the results of the population from which the units were chosen (Trochim, 2001:41).

The term “population” not only refers to people, but can also be defined as any group or aggregate of individuals, groups, organisations, social artefacts, or social interactions and events. In order to collect accurate data about all the members of a population, researchers may question, analyse or investigate every member. However, due to constraints such as time, costs and geographical distances, it is usually impractical (du Plooy, 2002:100). Goddard and Melville (2009:35) suggest that samples must be representative of the population being studied, otherwise no general observations about the population can be made from studying the sample.

In this regard, the study population of the researcher comprises of the three regions of the CTMM. Table 5.5 below outlines the selected regions of the CTMM.

**Table 5.5: Selected regions in the City of Tshwane**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>Target sample</b>	<b>Number of questionnaires returned</b>	<b>Response rate (%)</b>
<b>Region 1</b> (Soshanguve, Mabopane, Winterveld, Garankuawa and Pretoria North)	High density	811 570	384	278	41.80
<b>Region 4</b>	Low density	379 349	384	197	29.62

(Centurion, Irene, Oliven, and Zwartkop)					
<b>Region 7</b> (Bronkorspruit, Ekangala and Metsweding district)	Peri-urban	109 766	384	190	28.57

Source: CTMM, <http://www.tshwane.gov.za/sites/regions> (Accessed on the 29 May 2019)

### 5.6.1 Types of sampling

In terms of sampling, two methods are worth noting: probability and non-probability sampling. Trochim (2001:54) notes that the difference between non-probability and probability sampling is that non-probability sampling does not involve random selection and probability sampling does. Table 5.7 pertains to the summary of sampling methods.

**Table 5.6: Summary of sampling methods**

<b>Probability</b>	<b>Non-probability</b>
Simple random sampling	Convenience sampling
Systematic random	Purposive sampling
Cluster sampling	Quota sampling
Multi-stage random sampling	Heterogeneity sampling
Stratified sampling	Snowball sampling

Source: Adapted from Trochim, 2001:59; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009:171

In the light of the aforementioned sampling methods, the researcher employed stratified, purposive and convenience sampling methods. As earlier mentioned, the researcher adopted a pragmatism research philosophy. As such, probability sampling, which, in this case is stratified sampling, and non-probability sample, which comprises of purposive and convenience sampling, complements

the research paradigm chosen by the researcher, as it constitutes a mixed research design. An elucidation of the sampling employed by the researcher in this study is given below.

(a) **Stratified sampling**

A population should preferably be divided into different, clearly recognisable sub-populations or strata. For each stratum, a sample is then drawn to improve the reliability of the results of the research. The elements for the sample should be selected randomly from each of the different strata of the population (Brynard, Hanekom & Brynard, 2014:58).

The advantage of this method is that the research data can be generalised from the sample of the entire population within a computable margin of error. A disadvantage of this method is that the selected units might be spread over a large geographic area, making them very difficult to reach (Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003:278).

In this regard, the selected regions of the CTMM are geographically spread-out. However, the researcher intended to strike a balance among the entire population of the City of Tshwane, taking into consideration the peri-urban, low-medium and high density population to ensure sound generalisation of the results.

(b) **Convenience sampling**

Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016:2) suggest that convenience sampling (also known as haphazard sampling or accidental sampling) is a type of non-probability or non-random sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study. It also refers to the research subjects of the population that are easily accessible to the researcher. Convenience samples are sometimes regarded as “accidental samples” because elements may be selected in the sample as they just happen to be situated, spatially or administratively, near to where the researcher is conducting the data collection.

(c) **Purposive sampling**

Purposeful sampling in qualitative research means that researchers intentionally select or recruit participants who have experienced the central phenomenon or the key concept being explored in the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:173).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011:174) further reiterate that a central idea would be that if participants are purposefully chosen to be different in the first place, then their views would reflect this difference and provide a good qualitative study in which the intent is to provide a complex picture of the phenomenon.

In this regard, within the context of convenience and purposive sampling, research participants were drawn from Thusong service centres, office parks, near schools and various fields in the regions.

### 5.6.2 Sample size

In determining the sample size, the question that researchers should ask is: “What size sample do I need?” The answer to this question is influenced by a number of factors, including the purpose of the study, population size, the risk of selecting a “bad” sample, and the allowable sampling error (Israel, 1992:1).

In addition to the purpose of the study and the population size, three criteria will usually need to be specified to determine the appropriate sample size and include the following:

- The level of precision
- The level of confidence or risk
- The degree of variability in the attributes being measured (Miaoulis & Michener, 1976).

Table 5.6 illustrates a guide in selecting a sample size.

**Table 5.7: A guide in selecting a sample size**

<b>Population size</b>	<b>Sample size</b>
------------------------	--------------------

Infinity	384
500 000	384
100 000	383
50 000	381
10 000	370
5 000	357
3 000	341
2 000	322
1 000	278

*Source: Adapted from du Plooy, 2002:104*

In the light of the above, the population of each selected region of the City of Tshwane is over 100 000. The researcher's target sample would then constitute 384 questionnaires per region to ensure reliability of results.

## 5.7 Data analysis

The analysis of data could be regarded as one of the crucial phases in a research process as it formulates the basis of conclusions and recommendations. The data analysis also influences whether or not recommendations will be implemented in a particular study. The methods in analysing data vary from the development of content analysis categories for descriptive data, to the use of descriptive statistics (du Plooy, 2002:93).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2001:203) maintain that data analysis in a mixed methods research consists of analysing separately the quantitative data using quantitative methods and the qualitative data using qualitative methods. These analyses are in response to the research questions or hypothesis in a study.

In this research study, the researcher employed both quantitative and qualitative techniques in analysing the data. The technique used in analysing primary data is the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) to establish relationships between or among variables. The researcher therefore utilised descriptive statistics.

The secondary data was collected through qualitative methods, such as content analysis and interpretivism, in assessing primary data. In this regard various documents that had a bearing on e-governance and good governance were duly analysed. Furthermore, data collected emanating from a questionnaire and observation was also interpreted to supplement findings generated from the survey. Below are the ethical considerations that needed to be taken into consideration by the researcher.

### 5.8 Ethical considerations

Ethics is rooted in the ancient Greek philosophical inquiry of moral life. It refers to a system of principles that can critically change previous considerations about choices and actions. It is said that ethics is the branch of philosophy that deals with the dynamics of decision making concerning what is right and wrong. Scientific research work, as all human activities, is governed by individual, community and social values. Research ethics involves requirements on daily work, the protection of dignity of subjects, and the publication of the information in the research (Fouka & Mantzourou, 2011:4).

In this regard, the research ethics relates to what is right and wrong when conducting research. The right and wrong of scientific research should conform to generally accepted norms and values. The conduct with regard to research activities should be morally acceptable (Brynard, Hanekom & Brynard, 2014:94).

Brynard *et al.* (2014:6) further suggest that there are two overarching ethical requirements for researchers, namely, honesty and confidentiality. Honesty pertains to the manner of reporting and the researcher should at all times, report the truth and should never present the truth in a biased manner. Furthermore, research should be conducted in a responsible manner ensuring that confidential data is treated discreetly. Following are some of the common ethical considerations that may be taken into cognisance in the research process:

- Plagiarism

- Informed consent
- Respect for anonymity
- Respect for privacy
- Vulnerable groups of people (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011:6; Brynard *et al.*, 2014:96).

In the light of the aforementioned ethical considerations, the researcher obtained permission to conduct research in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The permission from the Faculty Research and Innovation Committee (FRIC) at the Tshwane University of Technology was also granted for the researcher to proceed with the field work (see annexures).

The informed consent forms were circulated with the questionnaires to the research participants. However, prior to participation, research participants were made aware of the aims and objectives of the study. The researcher addressed issues regarding their role, confidentiality and expectations. The research participants were briefed that participation in the study is purely on a voluntary basis and that they may withdraw at any time. There was no compensation granted to the research participants and the study exposed the participants to no harm (physical or emotional).

## 5.9 Conclusion

In order to successfully carry out the research process, research methodology remains one of the crucial stages that need to be taken into consideration. The research methodology framework entailed the research philosophy, methodologies, designs, data collection methods, data analysis and ethical considerations by the researcher.

In this regard, the researcher opted for a pragmatism research philosophy that would enable the researcher to employ both the qualitative and quantitative research approach. Due to the mixed methods approach, the triangulation mixed methods design was chosen by the researcher as it would enable concurrent and separate data collection and analysis of this research study. The following chapter presents the findings of this research study.

## CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH FINDINGS

### 6.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter depicted how the researcher employed the research methodology and the techniques used to collect data. This chapter portrays the research findings of the study. Essentially, these research findings are in line with the research objectives as stipulated in Chapter 1 and include firstly, the ideal of assessing the state of e-governance initiative in the CTMM; this objective derives from the premise that e-governance was introduced and adopted by the City of Tshwane in the year 2013. Secondly, the focal point was to assess whether members of the community access e-services in the City of Tshwane. This is informed by the notion of the provision of services enabled by the use of information communication technologies in accessing e-services in the City of Tshwane. Thirdly, the researcher investigated the effectiveness of e-participation in the City of Tshwane Municipality. This ideal is based on the premise that members of the community are encouraged to participate in local government affairs. Lastly, the researcher assessed the extent to which e-governance influences good governance in the City of Tshwane.

In the light of the above, the framework of this chapter firstly contextualises its background and subsequently provides characteristics of the research participants who contributed in the study. This is imperative mainly because research participants provided insights concerning the aforementioned research objectives, hence it is essential to characterise such participants. The research findings are then presented and this endeavour is in line with the research question and objectives of this study.

### 6.2 Background to the chapter

Ramokgopa (2014:17) is of the view that access to connectivity must be viewed as a basic human right, analogous to the provision of basic services such as water and electricity. Technology remains a key strategic tool of this century in the quest for bettering the lives of the people. Consequently, the City of Tshwane has taken a strategic decision to embrace the Smart City concept (Ramokgopa, 2013:19).

In the State of the Capital Address (2013:20), a declaration was made by the City of Tshwane to move away from the traditional manual processes to embrace new paperless processes driven by principles of cost savings, efficiency and velocity. These traditional manual processes would quite often be tedious and cause unnecessary delays in rendering services to the people.

Conversely, enabling e-services would allow ratepayers to transact with the City of Tshwane electronically, covering among issues: receipt of statements and electronic payments of accounts, procuring of prepaid electricity using any hand-held device, presentation of statements and payment of traffic fines, etc.

In this regard, the City of Tshwane undertook a noble step and implemented an online transacting system, e-Tshwane. Among other advantages, e-Tshwane would make services available online at all hours every day and provide a real-time update of accounts to avoid unnecessary inconvenience from cut-offs in instances where accounts have not been paid. This initiative of e-Tshwane was launched in the year 2013 and is clearly a noble step towards the national realisation of e-government (State of the Capital Address, 2013:17).

#### 6.2.1 The state of e-governance in the City of Tshwane

Following the commitment to launch the e-governance initiative in the City of Tshwane in 2013, the City of Tshwane subsequently made history by becoming the first metro in South Africa to roll out free Wi-Fi. This initiative certainly would then become a ground-breaking achievement for an African city in the world (Ramokgopa, 2014:17).

In 2015, the Tshwane free Wi-Fi project reached unprecedented heights, and it boasts a current capacity able to serve over 2 million users across 575 sites, with a further 50 sites to be deployed by the end of the financial year of 2015. The average growth rate of usage was greater than 40% per month with an astounding growth rate of almost 185% between June and July of 2014 alone. The City of Tshwane ensured coverage across all seven regions of Tshwane with at least one free Wi-Fi site in 96 wards respectively (State of the Capital Address, 2015:4).

Since the inception of the Tshwane free Wi-Fi project, over 1.4 million devices have accessed the network representing a 328% increase since March 2015 and a monthly growth rate of 15% on average. This growth rate is for the period between 2013-2015 (Ramokgopa, 2016:9).

Msimanga (2017:26) affirms that there are 1 050 live hotspots across Tshwane and all are operational. Unavailable hotspots are the result of power failures, fibre breaks or equipment faults, and these are all responded to and repaired as agreed by service providers. The current network operational uptime is above the agreed 95% level and maintained at around 98% availability.

In the light of the above, the CTMM strives towards the goals of Tshwane Vision 2055, embodied with ideals of a city that is liveable, resilient and inclusive and would provide a high quality of life for its citizens. e-Tshwane, in this regard, increases capacity and demonstrates willingness to deploy ICT for improving knowledge and information in servicing and transforming relations with citizens, businesses and other arms of government.

### 6.2.2 Characteristics of research participants

A total number of 665 questionnaires were captured by the researcher. In dissecting the total in line with the three selected regions of Tshwane, 278 questionnaires derived from region 1 which comprises of the townships Soshanguve, Mabopane, Winterveld, Garankuwa and Pretoria North (high density population), a total of 190 questionnaires emanated from region 7 which is peri-urban and comprises of Bronkhorspruit, Ekangala and Metsweding district, while 197 questionnaires emanate from region 4 comprising an urban environment that includes areas such as Centurion, Irene, Oliven and Zwartkop (low density). Table 6.1 below clearly depicts the selected regions of the CTMM.

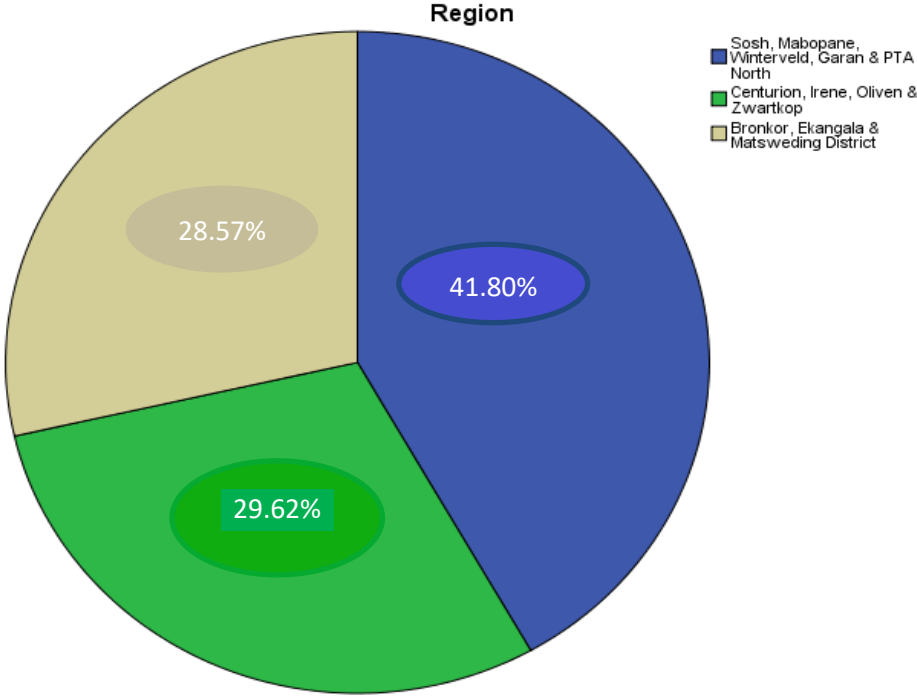
**Table 6.1: Captured questionnaires per region.**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Returned questionnaire</b>	<b>Population</b>
Region 1: Soshanguve, Mabopane, Winterveld, Garankuwa and Pretoria North	278	High population density

Region 4: Centurion, Irene, Oliven and Zwartkop	197	Low population density
Region 7: Bronkhorspruit, Ekangala and Metsweding district	190	Peri-urban

Author's own illustration

The above table depicts the three selected regions of the City of Tshwane wherein the researcher employed a stratified, purposive and convenience sample to gather data. The figure below shows where respondents live.



**Figure 6.1: Respondents and place of residence**

Author's own illustration

Figure 6.1 indicates that region 1 of the CTMM consists of the majority (41.80%) of the research participants. This is followed by region 4 with an average of 29.62% of the participants emanating from the low-density population of the City of Tshwane. Region 7 constitutes the minority with an average of 28.57% deriving from a peri-urban sub-population.

Table 6.2 below gives the age of respondents and their use of the internet.

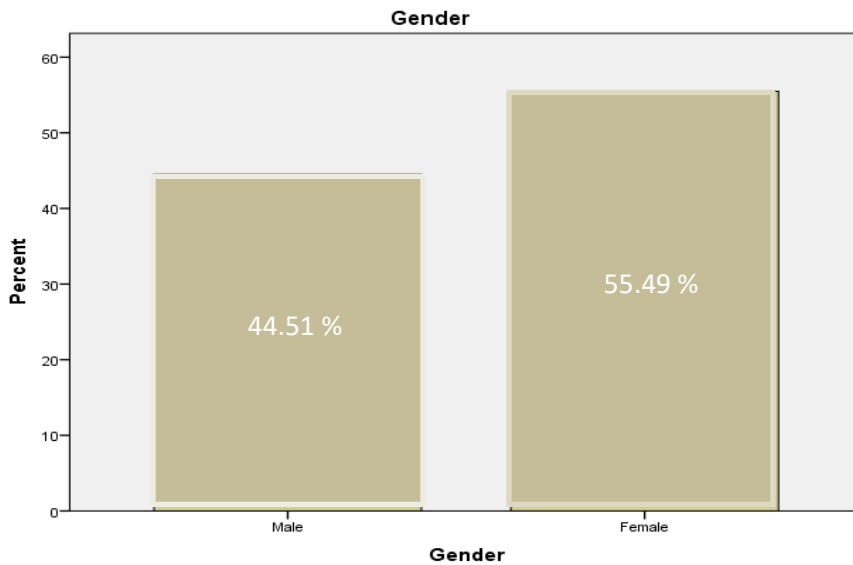
**Table 6.2: Age of respondents and use of internet**

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
18-25	165	24.81	24.81
26-40	225	33.83	58.65
41-65	242	36.39	95.04
66+	33	4.96	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>665</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

*Author's own illustration*

The above table depicts that 24.81% of the research participants were aged between 18-25 years, approximately 33.83% were in the age group 26-40, the majority (36.39%) emanated from the age group 41-65, and the minority of 4.96% from 66 years and above.

Figure 6.2 below gives the gender of the respondents.

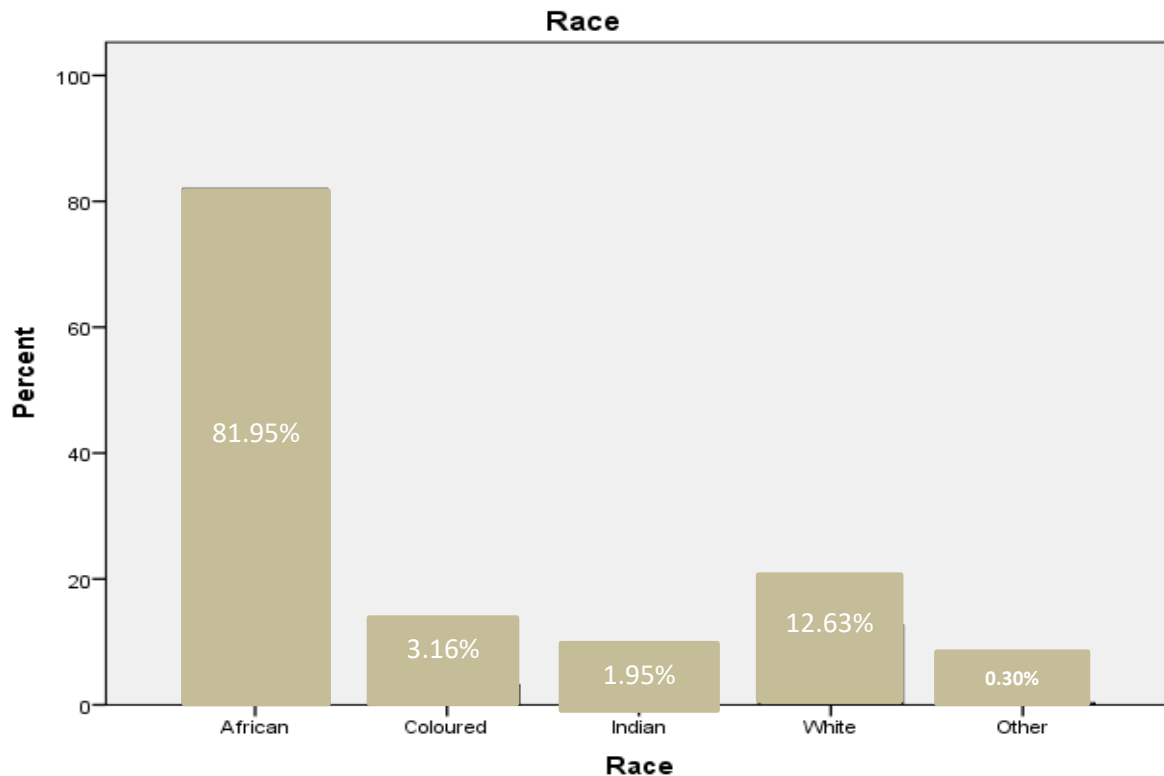


**Figure 6.2: Gender**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.2 above demonstrates in terms of gender, that females are the majority of research participants with an approximate figure of 55.49%. The males are represented by a figure of 44.51%.

Figure 6.3 below gives the race of the respondents.

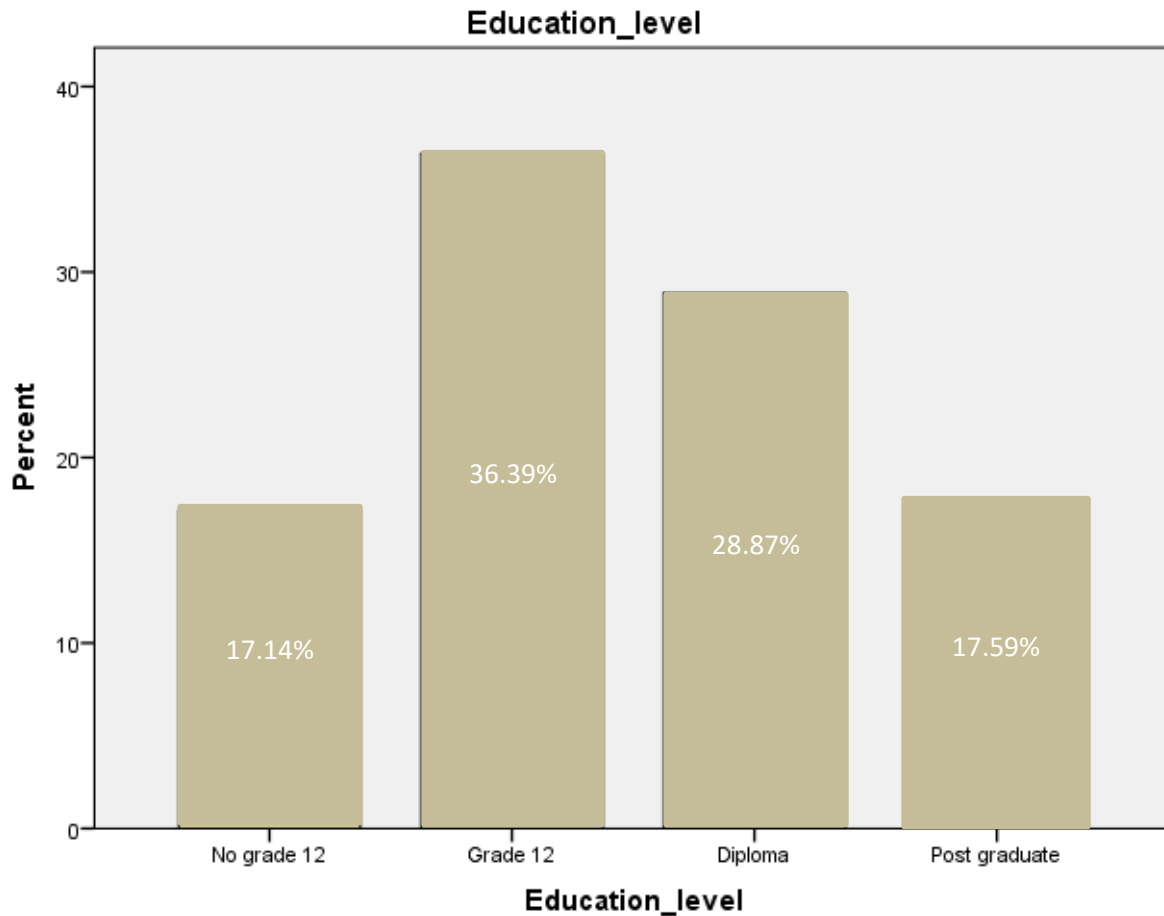


**Figure 6.3: Race**

*Author's own illustration*

The above Figure 6.3 indicates that the majority of research participants in this study are Africans (81.95%), an average of 3.16% represents the coloured community, 1.95% represents the Indian community, 12.63% derived from the white community, and 0.30% are other races who participated in this study.

Figure 6.4 below shows the education levels of respondents.



**Figure 6.4: Education level**

*Author's own illustration*

The above Figure 6.4 shows the majority of the research participants (36.39%) are in possession of a grade 12, while 17.14% do not have a grade 12; 28.87% possess a diploma qualification, and over 17.59% are at a post-graduate level. What follows is the research findings in line with the research objectives of this study.

### 6.3 Presentation of the research findings

In Chapter 1 of this study, the researcher asked the following research questions:

- (a) Does e-governance contribute to good governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?
- (b) To what extent does e-governance enhance citizen participation in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?
- (c) Is the adoption of e-governance optimising access to municipal services in the City of Tshwane?

To assist in answering these research questions, the objectives of the study were developed. The research objectives identified would then assist to assess whether e-governance enhances good governance in local government, with a particular interest in the CTMM. The following are the research objectives of the study as mentioned by the researcher in Chapter 1:

- (1) To assess the state of the e-governance initiative in the CTMM
- (2) To investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the CTMM
- (3) To investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the CTMM
- (4) To assess the extent in which e-governance influence good governance in the CTMM.

In accordance with these identified research objectives, the research findings of this study are presented below.

### 6.3.1 To assess the state of e-governance initiative in the CTMM

In the assessment of the state of e-governance in the CTMM, the researcher took into cognisance a model of e-governance as alluded to in Chapter 3 of this study. This model comprises of a number of stages such as information, interaction, transaction and transformation.

Islam and Ahmed (2007:40), as stated earlier, postulated that the information stage entails the web presence. Essentially the CTMM should also maintain a web presence and ensure that members of the community are provided with the relevant information. This ensures that the City of Tshwane Municipal information is publicly accessible, and this ensures accountability and transparency.

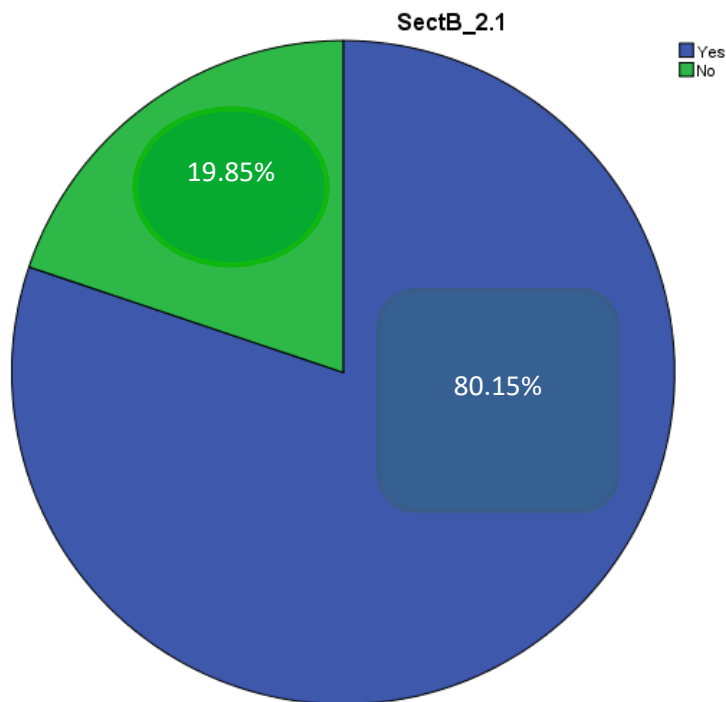
Conversely, the interaction stage of e-governance as alluded to by Backus (2001:6) allows for interaction between community members and the City of Tshwane Municipality. The residents may ask questions or lodge complaints online. To a particular extent, residents may even download

documents from the City of Tshwane municipal website. Essentially, this process is efficient and saves time, contrary to face-to-face interaction at the counter during open hours of the City of Tshwane Municipality.

As mentioned in Chapter 3 of this study, Islam and Ahmed (2007:41) state that the complexity of technology in the transaction stage of e-governance has to increase. This should also be the case within the context of the City of Tshwane Municipality. The residents of the City could pay for their municipal services online. This would avoid long queues in the municipal offices.

Furthermore, Backus (2001:6) states that the transformational stage advocates for integrated information systems. This implies that residents of the City of Tshwane could access e-services at one virtual counter. This stage provides an element of cost savings, efficiency, and customer satisfaction reaching highest possible levels. This stage epitomises interactive democracy and a range of accountability measures.

Figure 6.5 below shows the percentage of respondents who had access to the internet.

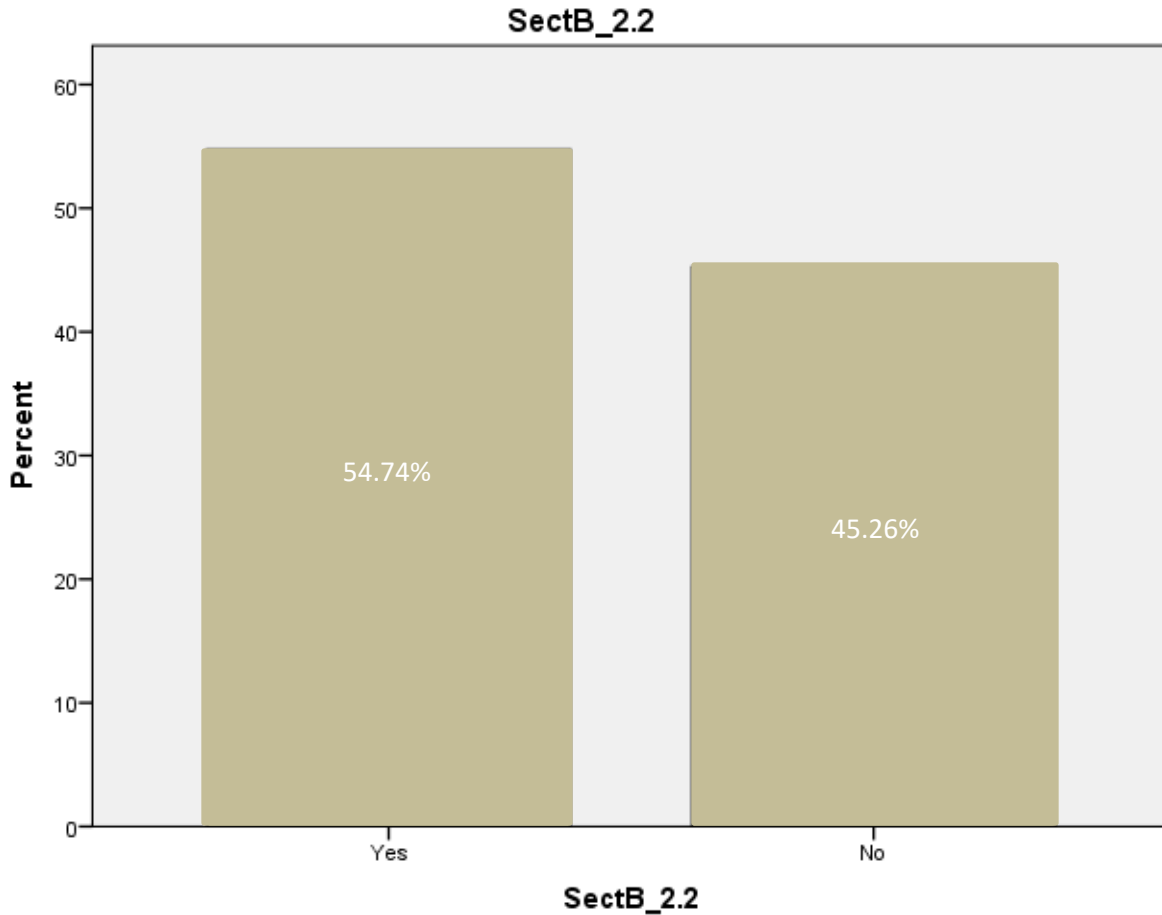


**Figure 6.5: Access to the internet**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.5 shows that the majority of the research participants, 80.15%, do have access to internet connectivity, while over 19.85% do not. This could be influenced by the notion that the City of Tshwane in 2013 made history by becoming the first metro in South Africa to roll out free Wi-Fi.

Figure 6.6 below shows the percentage of respondents who have access to municipal services.

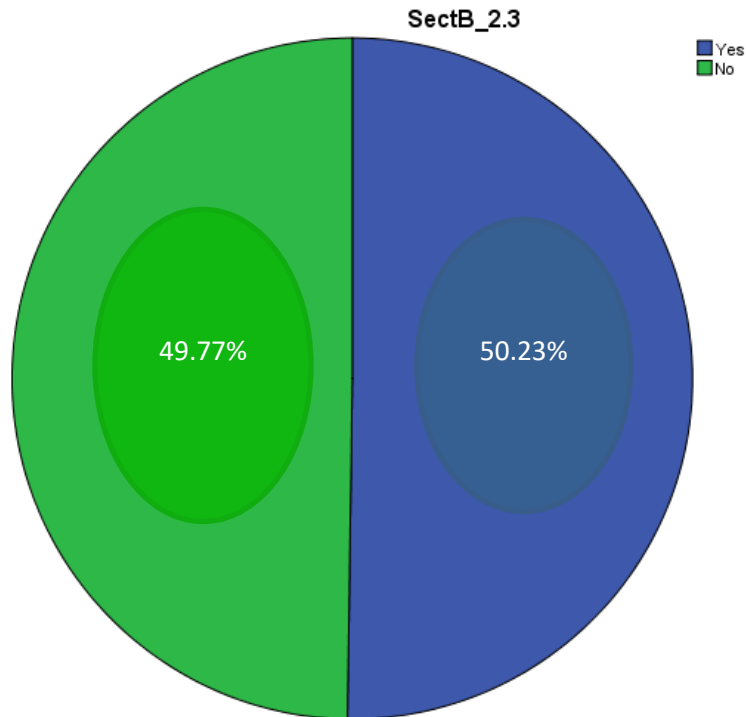


**Figure 6.6: Access to municipal e-services**

*Author's own illustration*

The figure depicts that the majority of research participants (54.74%) affirmed that indeed they have access to the City of Tshwane Municipality's e-services, while over 45.26% indicated that they do not. The access to the municipal e-services could be an indication that the City of Tshwane is maintaining its web presence, which constitutes stage one of the e-governance model.

Figure 6.7 below shows the percentage of those who have access to information on the municipal website.

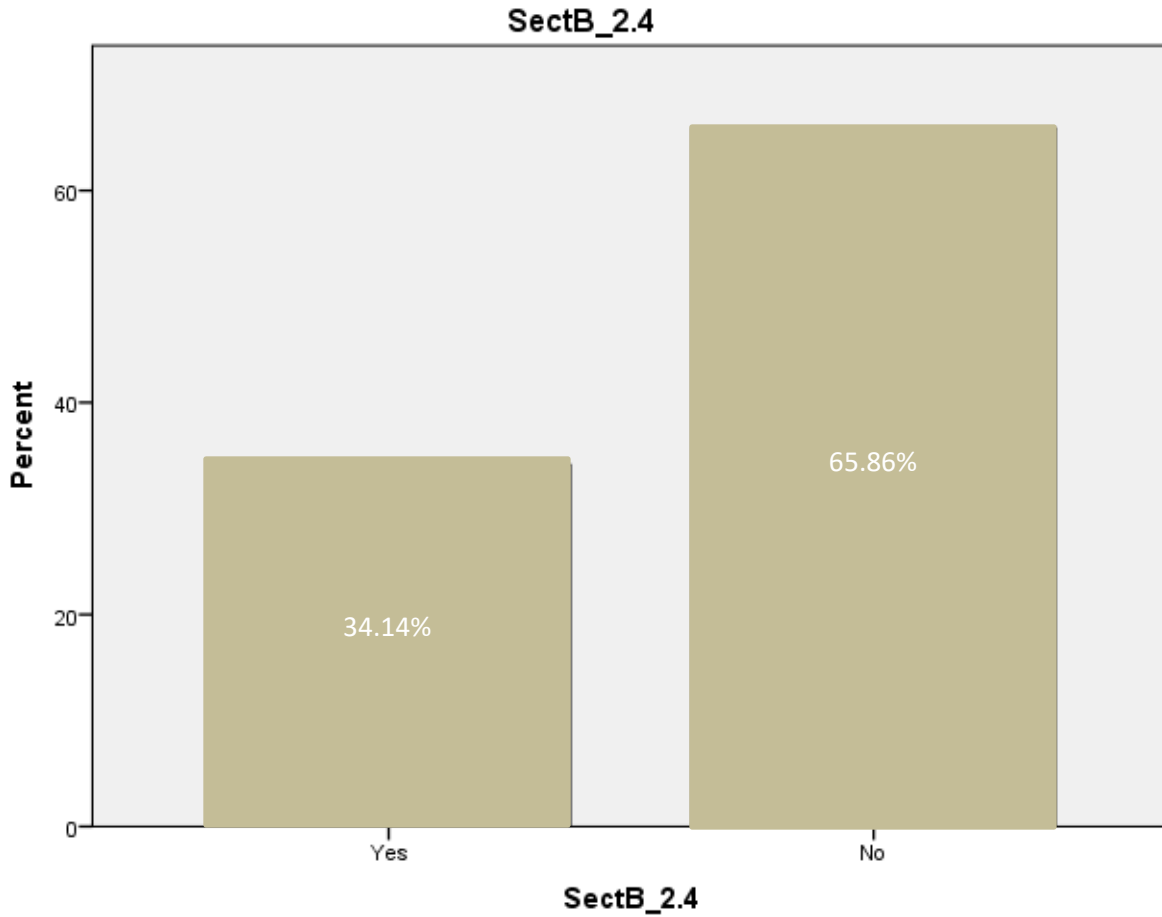


**Figure 6.7: Access of information on the municipal website**

*Author's own illustration*

The majority of research participants (50.23%) indicated that indeed they do access information of the City of Tshwane that has been uploaded on the municipal website, while 49.77% demonstrated a lack of access. In this regard, it appears to be almost even pertaining to access and lack of access to the municipal information on the website. The lack of access could emanate from the resistance to embracing the technological transformation.

Figure 6.8 below indicates the number of respondents who paid for municipal services online.

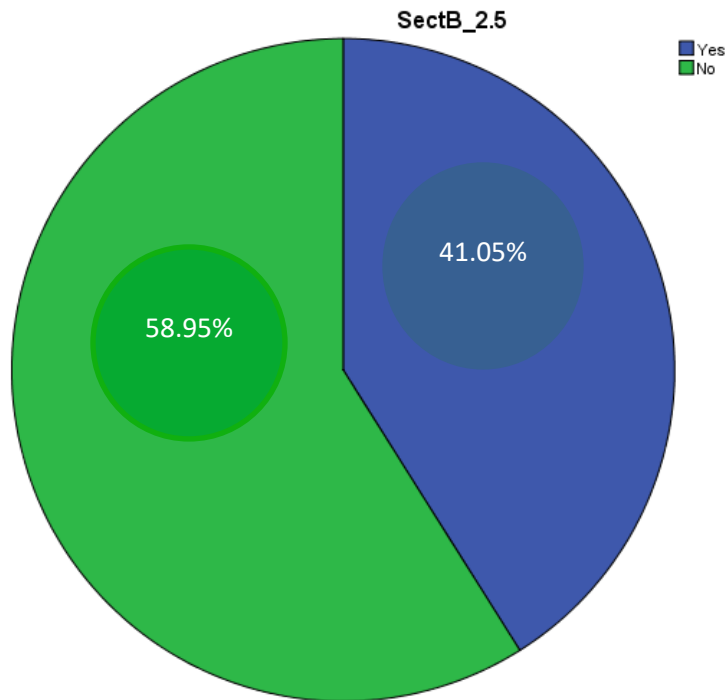


**Figure 6.8: Payment for municipal services online**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.8 illustrates that a minority of 34.14% pay their municipal services online, while the majority of research participants (65.86%) do not make any online transactions to pay for their municipal services in the CTMM. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents prefer the traditional mechanisms of transacting with the CTMM.

Figure 6.9 below illustrates the percentage of participants who download forms and documents from the municipal website.



**Figure 6.9: A download of forms and documents on the municipal website**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.9 illustrates that over 58.95% of research participants indicated that they do not download forms or documents that have been uploaded on the City of Tshwane municipal website. A minority (41.05%) of the research participants affirmed that indeed they download documents from the City's website. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents are yet to embrace the interaction stage of e-governance that would allow them to download forms.

Table 6.3 below shows the number of participants who agreed or disagreed with the statement that the Municipal website is user-friendly.

**Table 6.3: Municipal website is user-friendly**

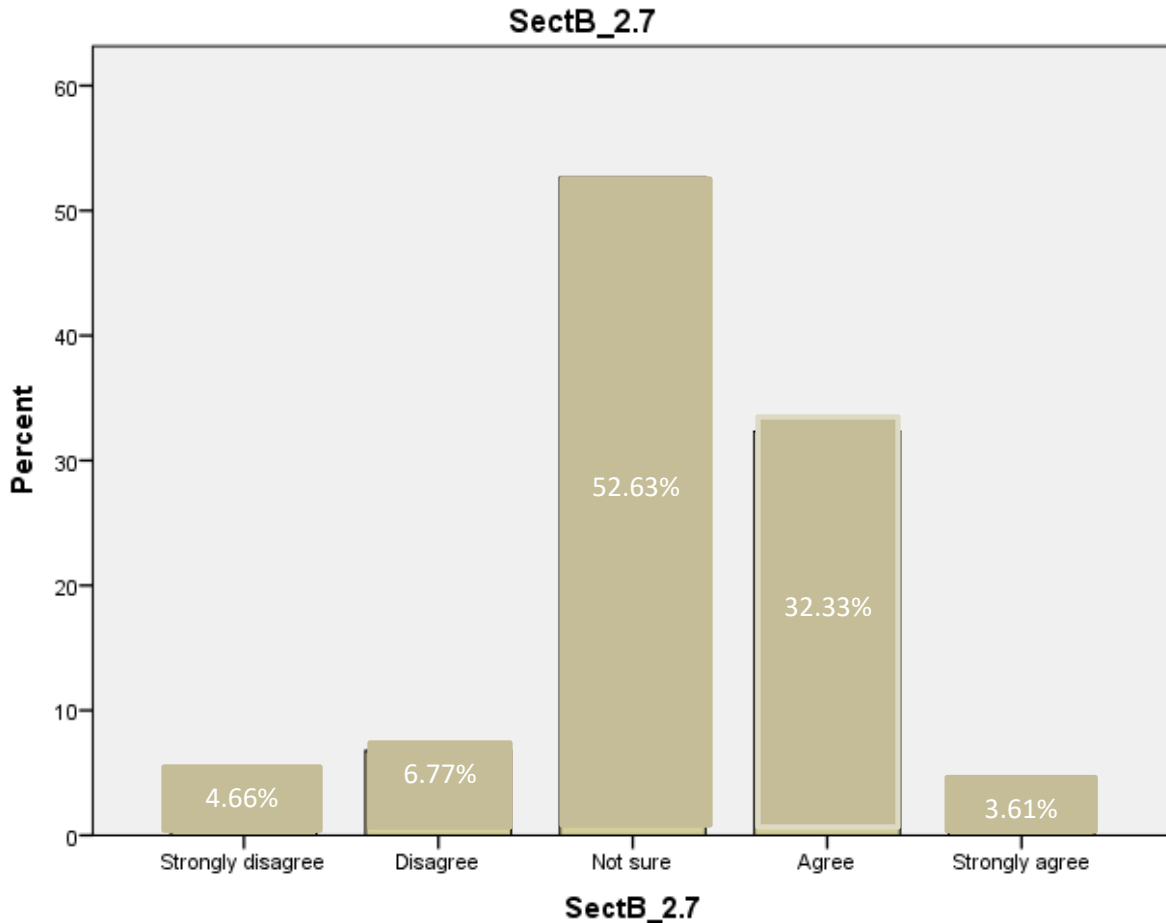
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	35	5.26	5.26
<b>Disagree</b>	39	5.86	11.13
<b>Not sure</b>	294	44.21	55.34

<b>Agree</b>	264	39.70	95.04
<b>Strongly agree</b>	33	4.96	100.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>665</b>	<b>100.00</b>	

*Author's own illustration*

Table 6.3 above demonstrates that a majority of research participants (44.21%) are not sure if the municipal website is user-friendly, while over 39.70% agree that it is. A marginal 5.26% would strongly disagree, while 5.86% disagree that the municipal website is user-friendly. Furthermore, 4.96% of the research participants strongly agree with the notion that the City of Tshwane municipal website is user-friendly. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents are uncertain whether the municipal website is user-friendly. This could be due to levels of information e-literacy.

Figure 6.10 below shows the responses to the question whether the Municipal website is up-to-date.

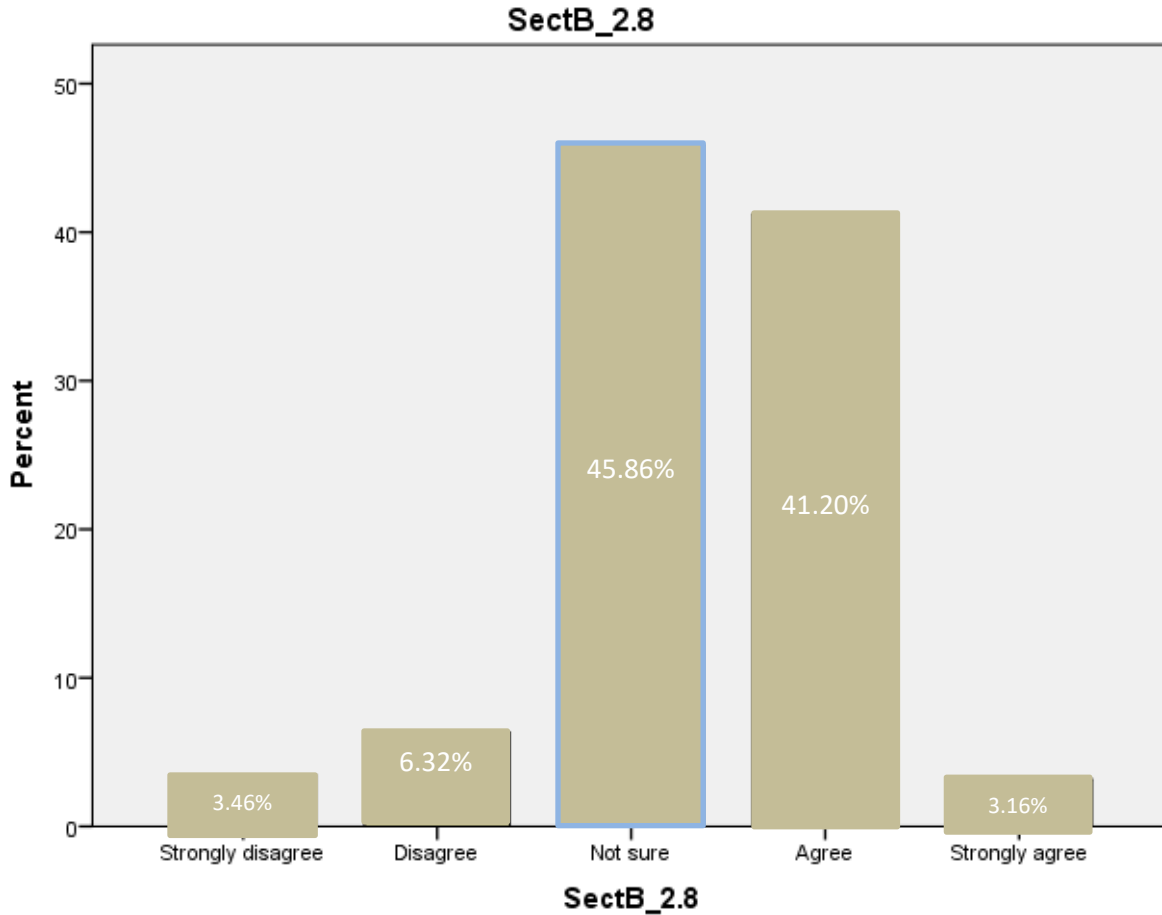


**Figure 6.10: Municipal website is up-to-date**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.10 illustrates that a majority of research participants (52.63%) indicated an element of unsureness as to whether the information portrayed on the City of Tshwane municipal website is up-to date. Over 32.33% agree that it is up-to date, and a marginal 4.5% strongly disagree, while 6.77% disagree with the notion that the municipal website of the City of Tshwane is up-to-date. Furthermore, over 4.96% strongly agree that the municipal website is up-to-date. In this regard, it appears that the uncertainty could derive from the inability to evaluate content critically and competently.

Figure 6.11 shows responses to the question whether e-services provide an element of convenience.

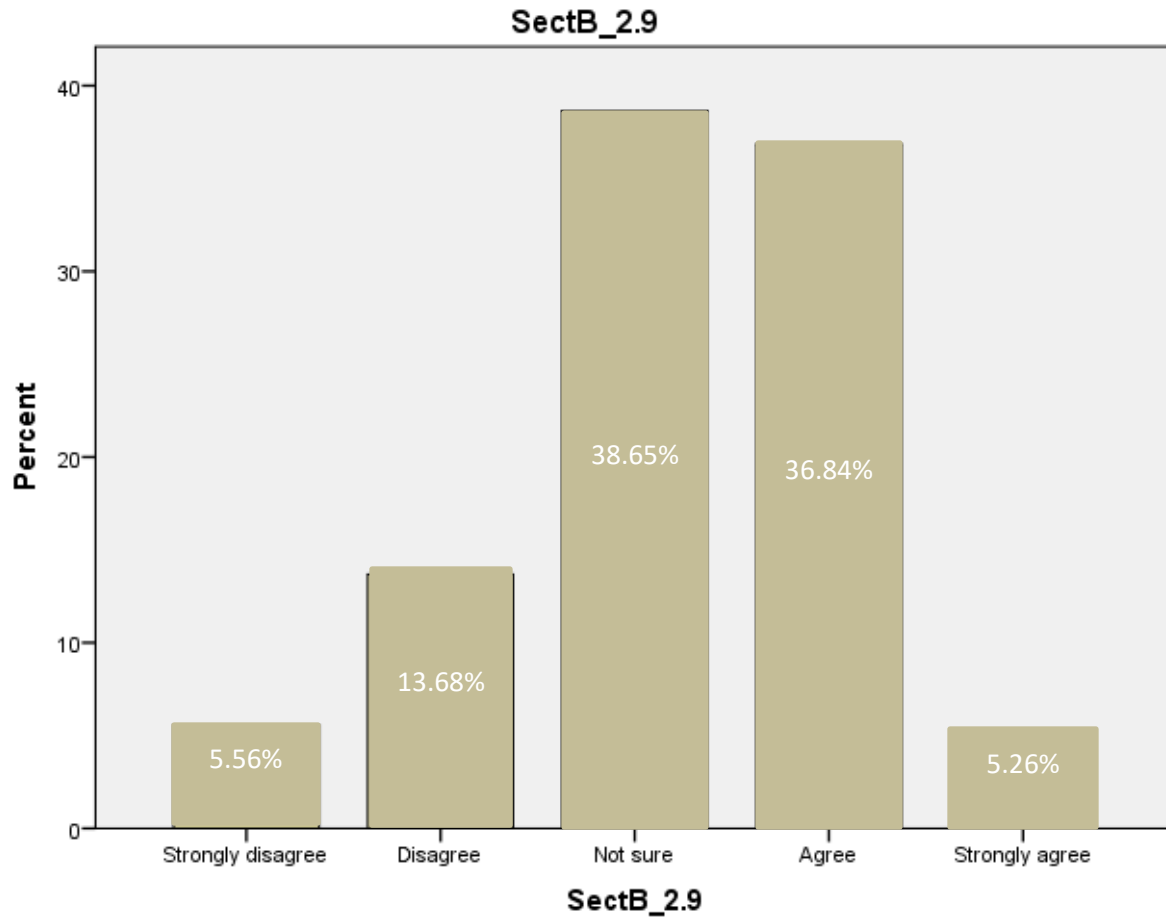


**Figure 6.11: E-services provides an element of convenience**

*Author's own illustration*

The majority of research participants (45.86%) affirmed that they are not sure whether access to e-services could provide an element of convenience. Over 41.20% agreed that e-services indeed provide convenience while over 3.6% research participants strongly disagreed, and 6.32% disagreed. Furthermore, over 3.16% of participants strongly agree with the notion of access to e-services being convenient. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents are not aware of the benefits of adopting the e-governance initiative.

Figure 6.12 below shows the response to the question whether it is convenient to send e-mails to municipal officials.



**Figure 6.12: Convenience of e-mails to municipal officials**

*Author's own illustration*

A majority of research participants (38.65%) indicated that they are not sure if the use of e-mails to interact with City of Tshwane officials could be convenient, while over 36.84% agree. A marginal of 5.56% strongly disagree, while 13.68% disagreed that e-mail interaction with the City of Tshwane officials brings an element of convenience. Furthermore, 5.26% strongly agree to the notion of convenience through e-mail interaction. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents prefer a face-to-face interaction to an on-line approach with the City of Tshwane officials.

Table 6.4 below shows the response to the question whether complaints online are quicker and save time.

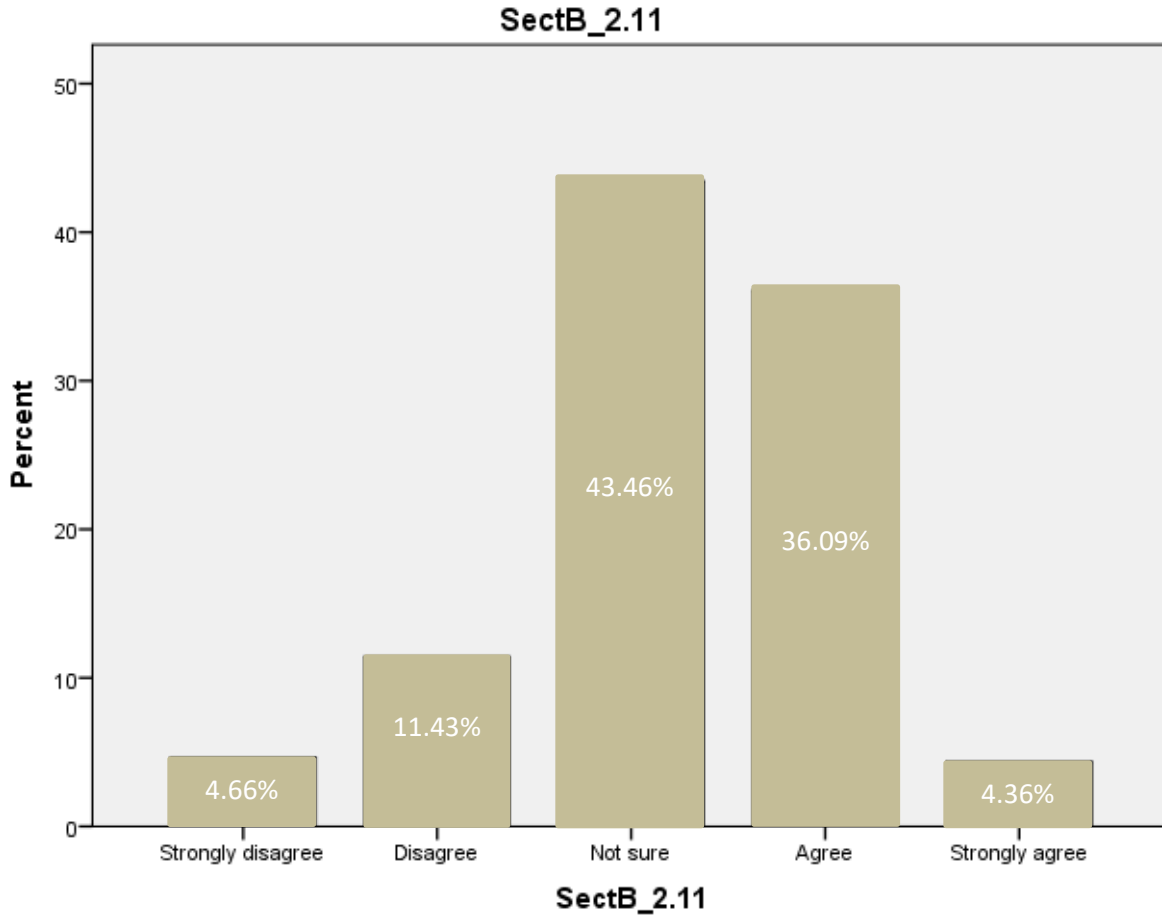
**Table 6.4: Complaints online are quicker and save time**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Cumulative</b>
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	45	6.77	6.77
<b>Disagree</b>	85	12.78	19.55
<b>Not sure</b>	207	31.13	50.68
<b>Agree</b>	264	39.70	90.38
<b>Strongly agree</b>	64	9.62	100.00
<b>Total</b>	665	100.00	

*Author's own illustration*

In accordance with the above table, a majority of research participants (39.70%) agree that lodging complaints online to the City of Tshwane Municipality is quicker and saves time and money. Over 31.13% seem not sure if lodging complaints online would actually result in the process being quicker, thus saving time and money. A marginal 6.77% strongly disagree, while 12.78% disagree that lodging complaints online is a quicker process, which saves time and money. Furthermore, over 9.62% of the participants strongly agree that lodging complaints online is indeed quicker and the process results in saving time and money for travelling. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents agree to the perception of lodging complaints online, which clearly would be quicker and save time. Lodging complaints online is part of interaction through e-governance.

Figure 6.13 below provides a response to the question whether e-services provide customer satisfaction.



**Figure 6.13: E-services provide customer satisfaction**

*Author's own illustration*

A majority of research participants (43.46%) are not sure if e-services are efficient and could provide for customer satisfaction. Over 36.09% agree that indeed e-services are efficient thus providing customer satisfaction in the CTMM. A marginal 4.66% strongly disagree, while 11.43% disagree that e-services are efficient and provide customer satisfaction. Furthermore, 4.36% of the research participants strongly agree that e-services are efficient and certainly provide customers with the sense of satisfaction. In this regard, it still appears that the majority of the respondents do not understand the benefits of an e-governance strategy.

### 6.3.2 To investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

Buckley (2003:456), as cited in Chapter 3 of this research study, postulates that an electronic service could be regarded as the delivery of public services to citizens, business partners and suppliers, and those working in the government sector with electronic media including information, communication, interaction and contracting, and transaction.

Information and communication technologies (ICT) arguably could be perceived as the mechanism to fast track the delivery of public services to citizens and other stakeholders.

In the light of the above, the CTMM continues to strive towards the goals of Tshwane Vision 2055: A city that is liveable, resilient and inclusive and provides a high quality of life for its citizens. e-Tshwane increases capacity and demonstrates willingness to deploy ICT for improving knowledge and information in servicing and transforming relations with citizens, businesses and other arms of government (CTMM, <https://www.e-tshwane.co.za> accessed on the 01 December 2018).

In accordance with the CTMM (<https://www.e-tshwane.co.za> accessed on 1 December 2018), e-Tshwane is a secure free online service that allows home owners, companies, property managing agents and tenants to electronically interact with the City via the internet, mobile devices and kiosks.

In addition, Nedbank and Standard Bank customers can view a summary of their bill (and pay it) from within MyBills or MyeBills, respectively. Once registered, users can upload meter readings, pay traffic fines, lodge queries, apply for services, view statements, and make payments for accounts from the comfort of their home or office. The customer information page allows ratepayers to update or correct their contact information. The e-Tshwane mobile site offers the added convenience of interacting via a mobile phone or tablet device (CTMM, <https://www.e-tshwane.co.za> accessed on the 01 December 2018).

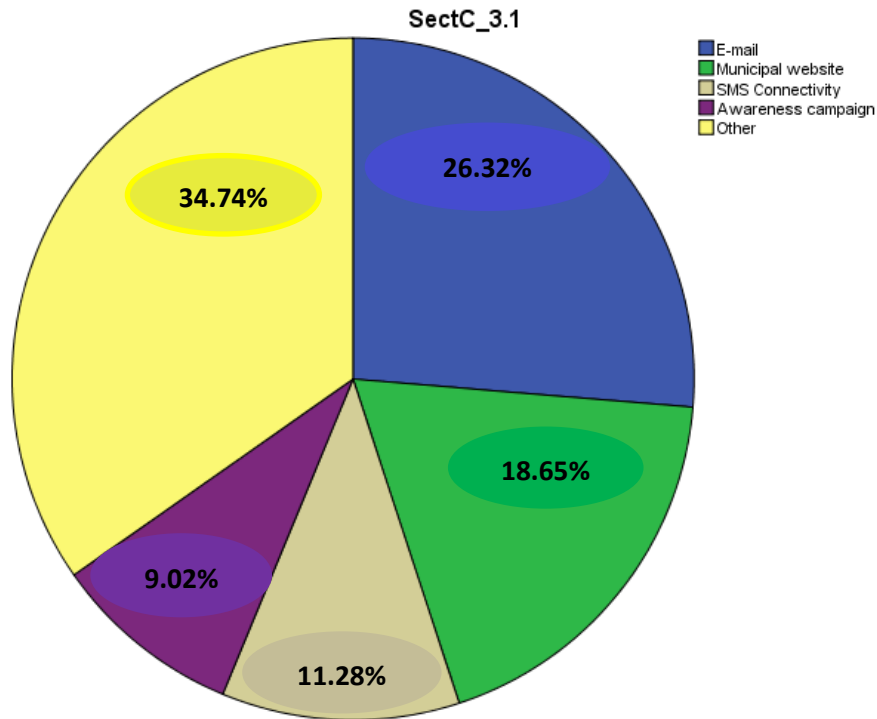
Essentially, access to e-services in the CTMM has a number of benefits worth mentioning. Some of these benefits include the following:

- No more waiting in queues, finding parking or worrying about office hours
- Convenience (24 hours a day, 7 days a week, 365 days a year)

- Completely paperless and almost instantaneous communication with the City
- Reliable, guaranteed delivery with fully authenticated confirmation for each communication and payment
- Increased quality of service through faster turnaround time regarding queries and responses
- Faster query resolution device (CTMM <https://www.e-tshwane.co.za> accessed on the 01 December 2018).

As mentioned in the background to this chapter, the City of Tshwane launched an e-governance initiative in the year 2013. Following are the findings pertaining to the perception of e-governance with regard to access of e-services in the CTMM.

Figure 6.14 below indicates a response to the question of access to information in the CTMM.

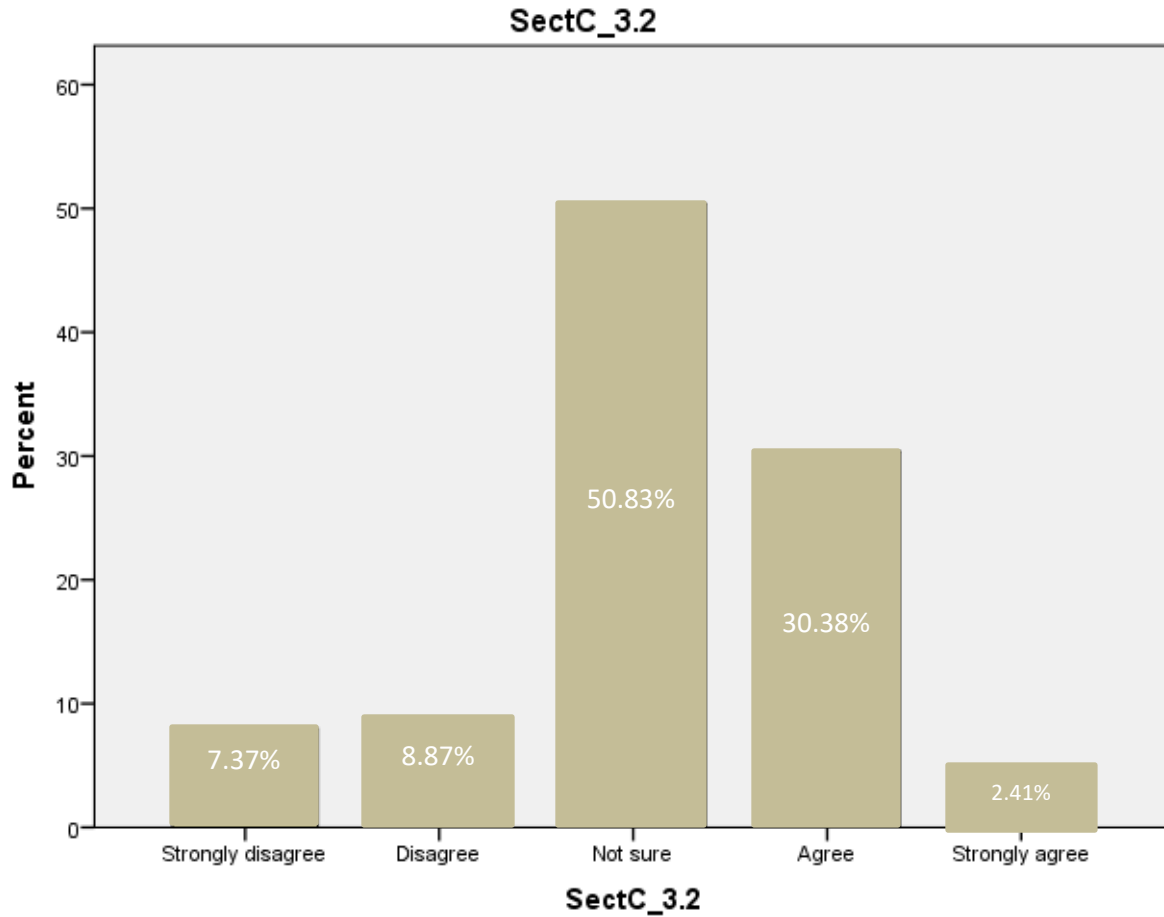


**Figure 6.14: Access to information**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.14 above shows that of the total research participants, 34.74% indicated that they access information of the City of Tshwane through other mechanisms not listed on the questionnaire and this could be through a letter or word of mouth; 26.32% indicated that they access municipal information through e-mail correspondence; 18.65% indicated that they visit the municipal website to familiarise themselves with the latest developments in the City of Tshwane; 11.28% stipulated that access to information is enabled through an SMS connectivity; while 9.02% indicated that an awareness campaign would assist them to access information in the CTMM. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents rely on the traditional mechanisms relating to information dissemination in the CTMM.

Figure 6.15 below indicates the response to the question whether the municipality updates new developments through its website.

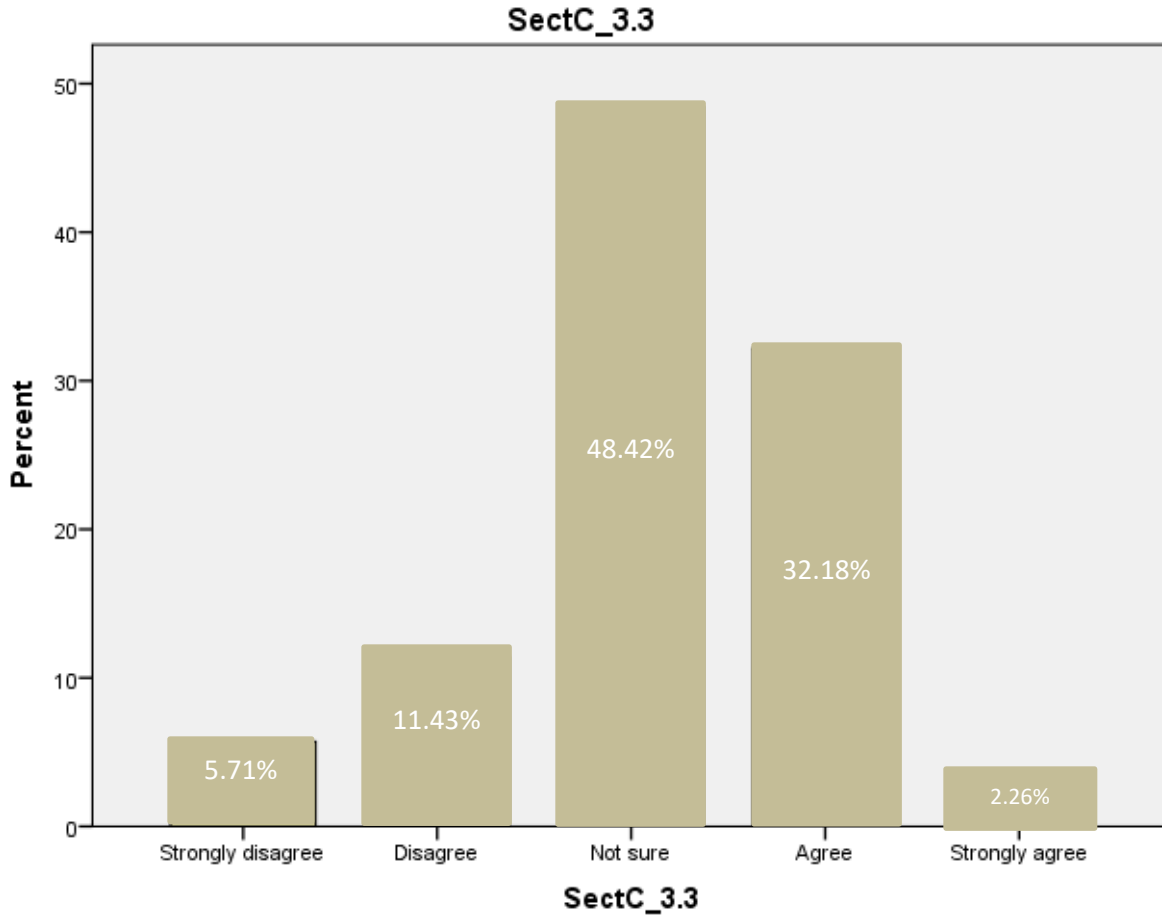


**Figure 6.15: Municipal updates through website**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.15 depicts that 50.38% of the research participants indicated that they are not sure if the City of Tshwane updates residents on new developments through a municipal website; 30.38% agree; 8.87% disagree; 7.97% strongly disagree, while 2.41% of the research participants strongly agree. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents may not visit the Tshwane website, and hence lack awareness of the latest developments.

Figure 6.16 below shows the response to the question whether e-governance services are trustworthy.

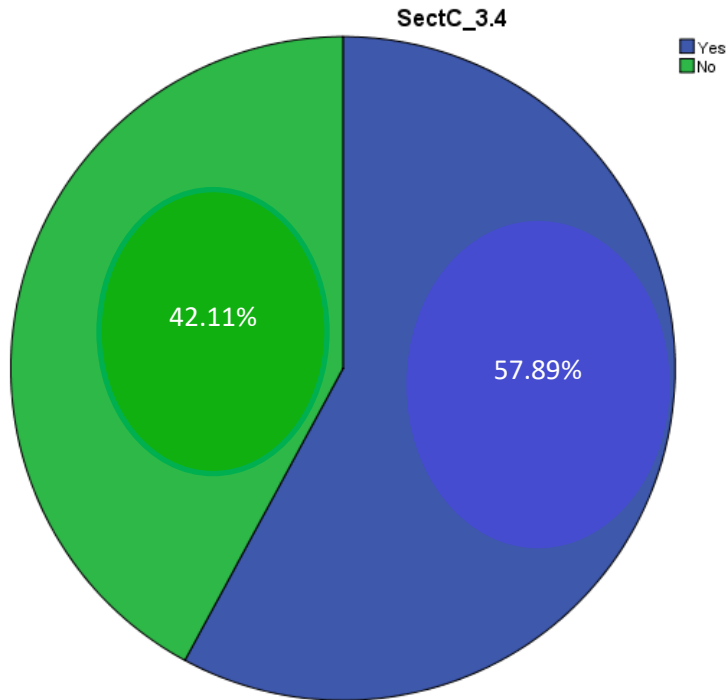


**Figure 6.16: E-governance services are trustworthy**

*Author's own illustration*

According to Figure 6.16, a majority of research participants (48.42%) indicated that they are not sure if e-governance services are trustworthy; 32.18% agree, and 11.43% disagree. The figure further shows that 5.71% of the participants strongly disagree with the notion that e-governance services are trustworthy, while 2.2% strongly agree. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents lack insight into the e-governance initiative.

Figure 6.17 below indicates a response to the question whether respondents would make online transactions for municipal charges.

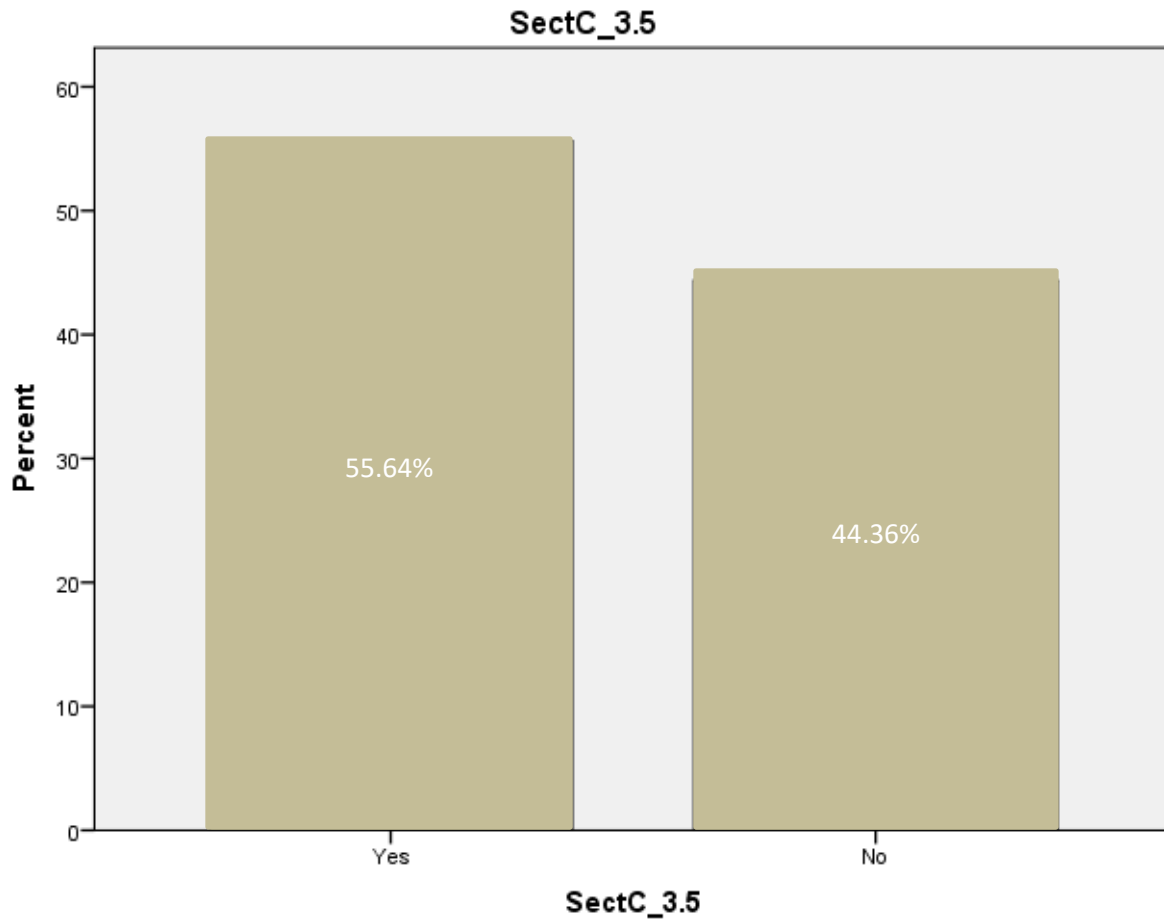


**Figure 6.17: Whether respondents would make online transactions for municipal charges**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.17 indicates that a majority (57.89%) of research participants agree that indeed they would make an online payment for municipal charges, while 42.11% disagree. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents earlier indicated that they do not pay their municipal services online but would pay for such services using an online mechanism. An awareness of e-governance benefits remains pivotal.

Figure 6.18 below illustrates the response to the question whether content of the information on the website is accurate and reliable.

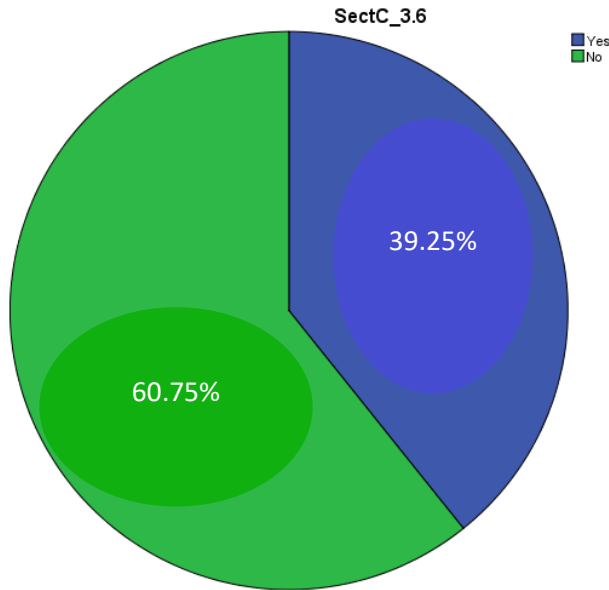


**Figure 6.18: Is the content of the information accurate and reliable?**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.18 shows that the majority (55.64%) of the research participants affirmed that indeed the content of the information accessible on the City of Tshwane's website is accurate and reliable, while 44.36% disagree. It appears that a minority disagrees with the accuracy and reliability of the content on the website. An update of content remains integral to ensure that members are kept abreast with the latest developments.

Figure 6.19 below demonstrates the response to the question whether residents participate in e-decision-making process.



**Figure 6.19: Participation in e-decision-making process**

*Author's own illustration*

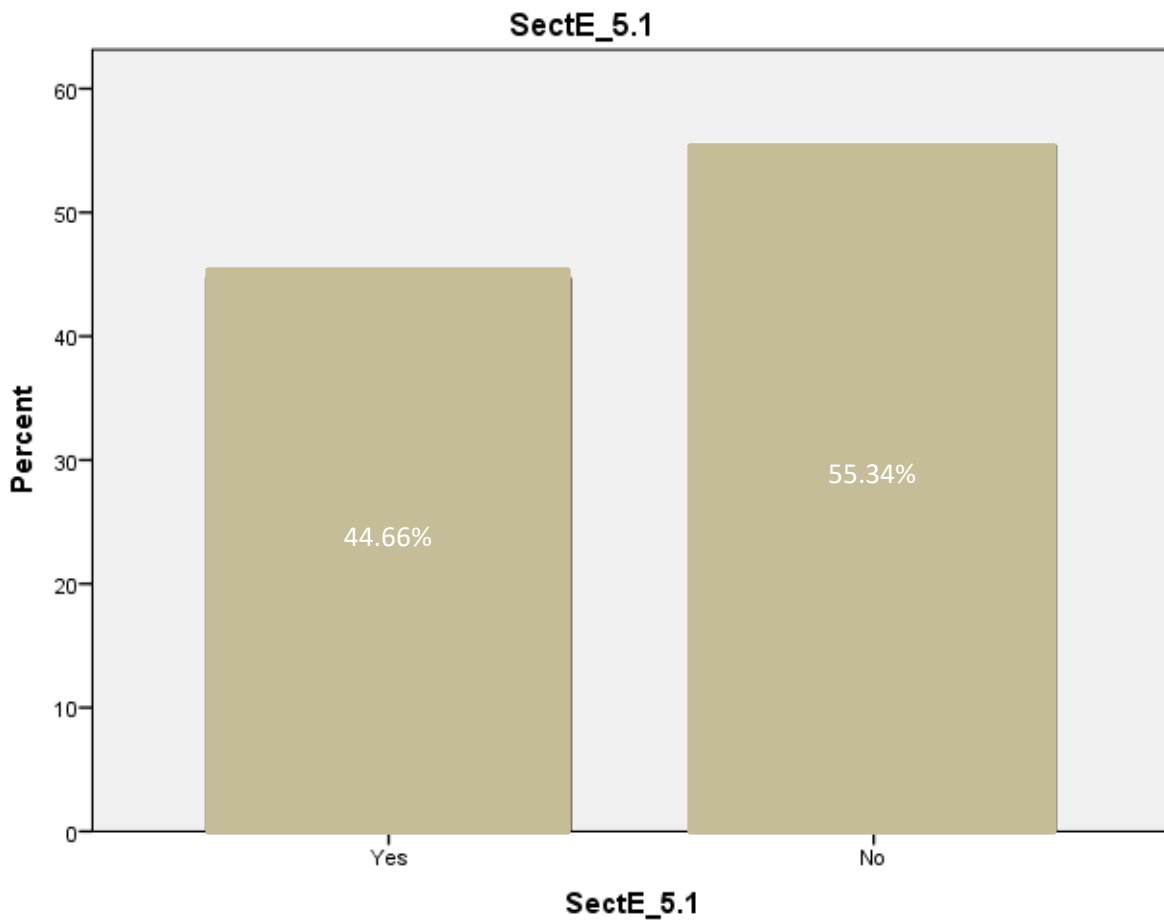
It should be taken into consideration that e-Tshwane is a secure free online service that allows home owners to interact with the CTMM. In accordance with Figure 6.19, the majority (60.75%) stipulated that they do not participate in the e-decision-making processes, while a minority (39.25%) affirmed that indeed they do.

### 6.3.3 To investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the CTMM

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 in Chapter 7 affirms that one of the developmental mandates of local government is to encourage community participation in the affairs of local government.

In Chapter 3 of this study, e-participation is portrayed as the extension and transformation of participation in democracy through the use of ICT. Its goal is to promote active citizen engagement in a democracy in order to provide meaningful impact and change in public policies (Reddick & Norris, 2013:198).

Ramokgopa (2015:5) postulates that the traditional method of public engagement – hearings and sittings – is outdated and has lost its appeal with young people, who, importantly, constitute the bulk of the population in the City of Tshwane. The #AskRamokgopa imbizo, a first of its kind, utilises platforms such as twitter, Facebook and video via Tshwane Wi-Fi TV. This platform provides the City of Tshwane with the opportunity to engage with communities across all age and race groups in Tshwane, and in South Africa in general. The four imbizos held in 2015 alone reached in excess of two million people with an average of 300 inputs received per engagement. Below in Figure 6.20 is the presentation of research findings pertaining to e-participation in the CTMM.



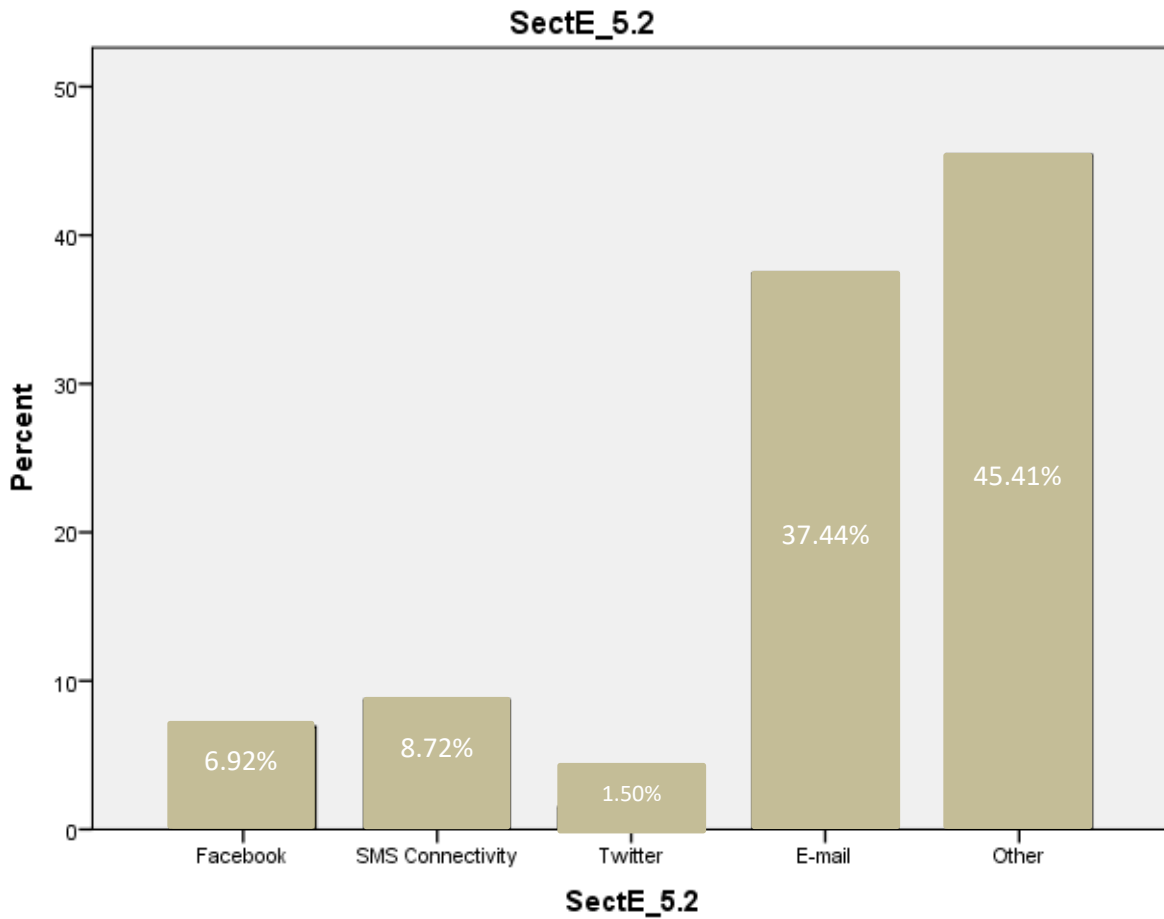
**Figure 6.20: Communication electronically**

*Author's own illustration*

According to the above figure, the majority (55.34%) of the research participants stipulated that they do not communicate electronically with the officials at the CTMM; however, a minority

(44.66%) affirmed that indeed they interact with the City’s officials electronically. In this regard, communication electronically could be promoted by those with decision-making powers.

Figure 6.21 below depicts a response the question of methods of communication used by residents to access information.



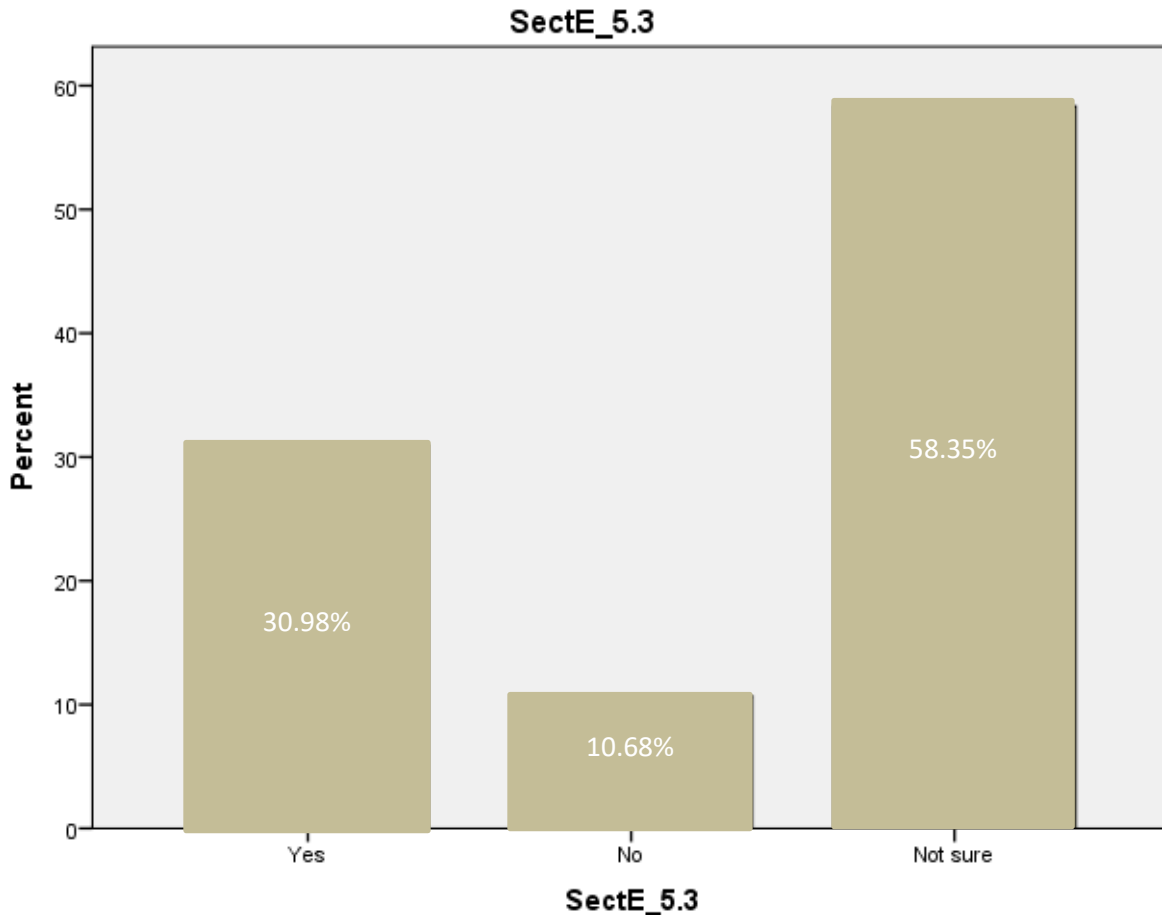
**Figure 6.21: Methods of communication**

*Author’s own illustration*

According to Figure 6.21 above, a minority 1.5% indicated twitter as a method employed to communicate with City of Tshwane officials, while 6.92% affirmed Facebook as the method of correspondence, 8.72% rely on SMS connectivity, while 37.44% employ e-mail as method of communication. Furthermore, a majority (45.41%) affirmed other methods, which could be letters

used to bring communities up to speed with latest developments. In this regard, e-community participation appears to be at the lowest level while traditional platforms are still being prioritised.

Figure 6.22 demonstrates the response to the question whether information flows from citizens to officials electronically.

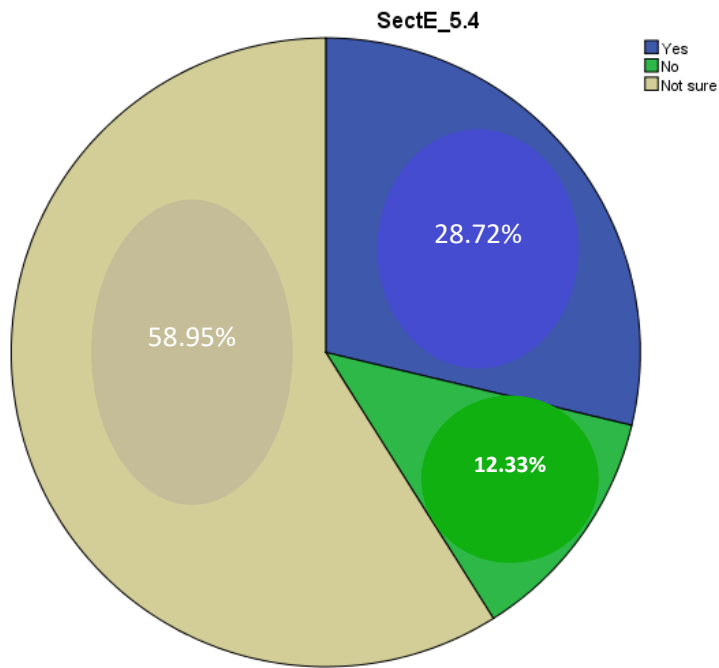


**Figure 6.22: Information flow from citizens to officials electronically**

*Author's own illustration*

Essentially, the information flow that ought to exist could be developmental in nature. In accordance with the above figure, the majority (58.35%) of research participants are not sure if there is an electronic flow of information between community members and officials of the CTMM. A figure of 30.98% agree with the notion of an electronic information flow while 10.68% disagree.

Figure 6.23 below shows a response to the question whether there is an active e-citizen engagement in the CTMM.

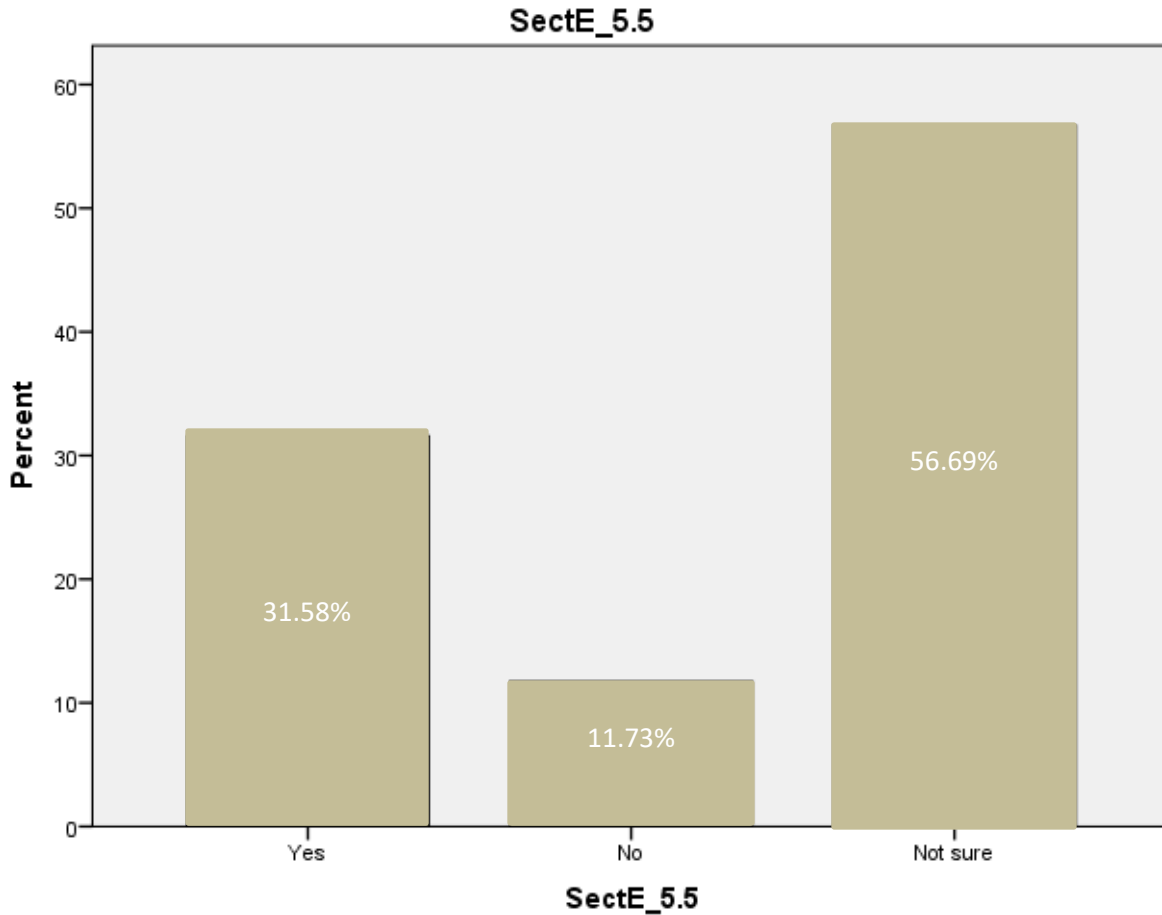


**Figure 6.23: Active e-citizen engagement**

*Author's own illustration*

Essentially, e-citizen engagements could be stimulated through the use of ICT. These engagements could be made available through twitter and Facebook, etc. According to Figure 6.23 depicted above, a majority (58.95%) of the research participants stipulated that they are not sure if there is an active e-citizen engagement in the CTMM, while 28.72% affirmed that indeed there is an active e-citizen engagement, and 12.33% disagree.

Figure 6.24 below demonstrates the response to the question whether there is an online communication between the municipality and its residents.

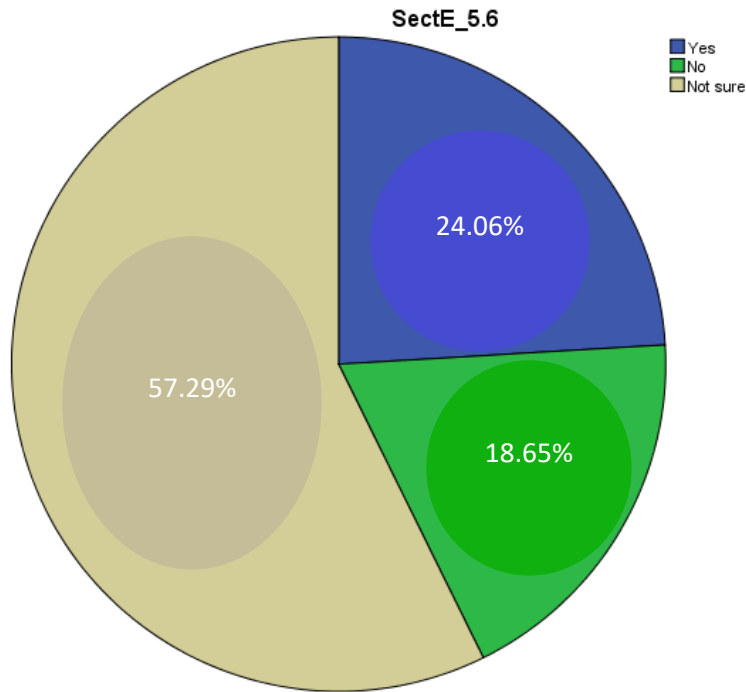


**Figure 6.24: Online communication between municipality and its residents**

*Author's own illustration*

Electronic communication such as e-mail and social media platforms could be a convenient way of communicating with officials. Figure 6.24 affirms that a majority (56.69%) of research participants highlighted that they are not sure if there is an on-line communication mechanism between the municipal officials and its residents. The diagram further portrays that 31.58% affirm the on-line communication mechanism while 11.73% disagree with the notion.

Figure 6.25 below shows the response to the question whether residents influence policy making on-line.



**Figure 6.25: Residents influence policy making on-line**

*Author's own illustration*

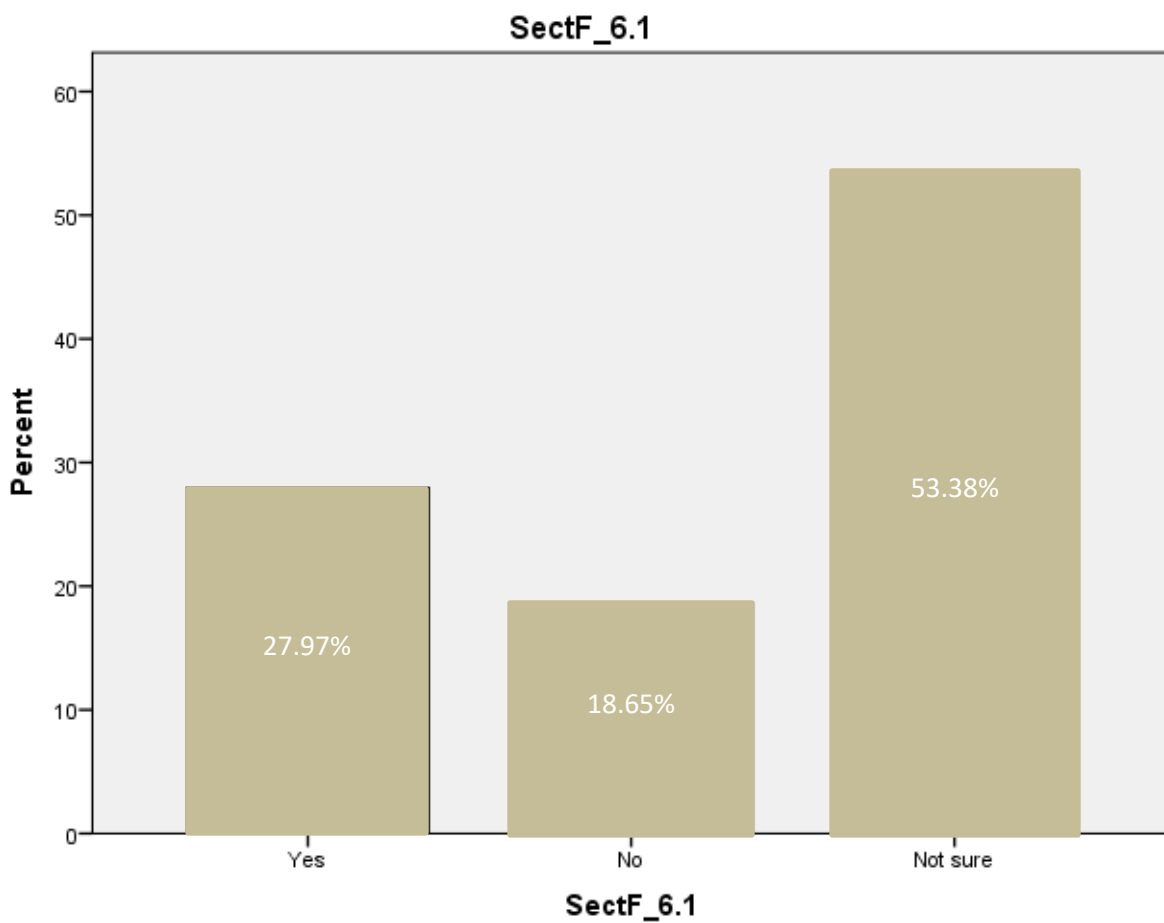
Figure 6.25 shows a majority (57.29%) of research participants declared that they are not sure if they have an influence on policy-making processes on-line. The figure further depicts that 24.06% of the research participants affirmed that they do, while 18.65% disagree. In this regard, the majority of respondents are not certain that they influence the policy-making process. This could emanate from the notion that the interaction stage of e-governance is yet to be embraced in the CTMM.

#### 6.3.4 To assess the extent in which e-governance influence good governance in the CTMM.

Abrahamsen (2000:30, in Maserumule, 2014:981), as cited in Chapter 4 of this study, affirms good governance as the “exercise of political power to manage a nation’s affairs” in a manner that ensures openness and accountability, the rule of law, freedom of the press, increased grassroots participation and the building of legitimate, pluralistic political structures.

In this regard, it is pivotal that the City of Tshwane upholds principles of good governance, which may include the following: that it is participatory, consensus-oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive, and follows the rule of law. Following is the presentation of research findings pertaining to the influence of e-governance on good governance in the CTMM.

Figure 6.26 below demonstrates a response to the question whether there is transparency and accountability in the CTMM.



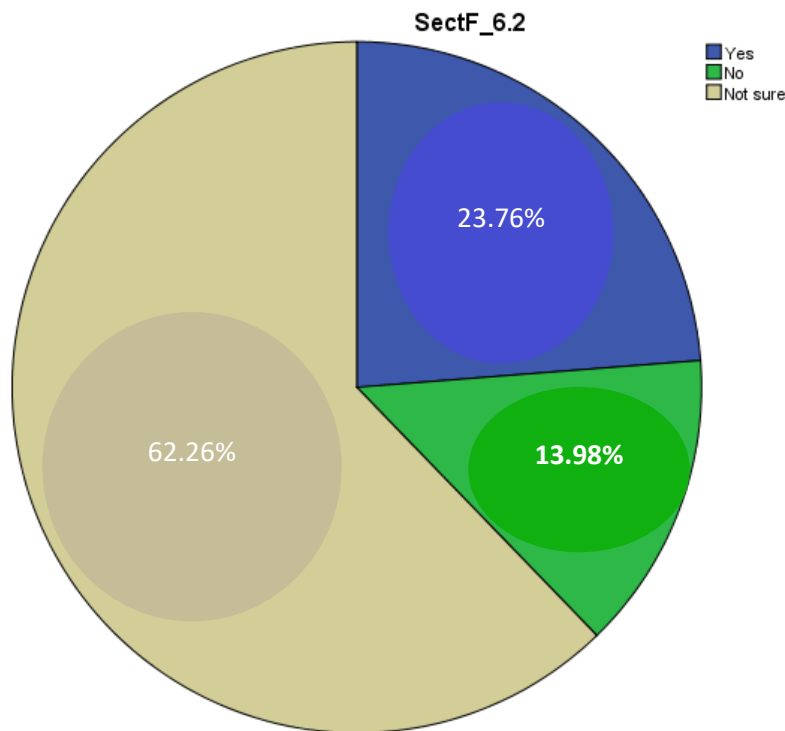
**Figure 6.26: Transparency and accountability in the City of Tshwane**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.26 depicts that a majority (53.38%) of the research participants indicated that they are not sure if e-governance promotes transparency and accountability in the affairs of the CTMM. The

figure further illustrates that 27.97% of the research participants agree, while 18.65% disagree. In this regard, it appears that the majority of respondents are oblivious of e-governance in promoting tenets of good governance.

Figure 6.27 below demonstrates the response to the question whether there is increased grassroots participation in the CTMM.

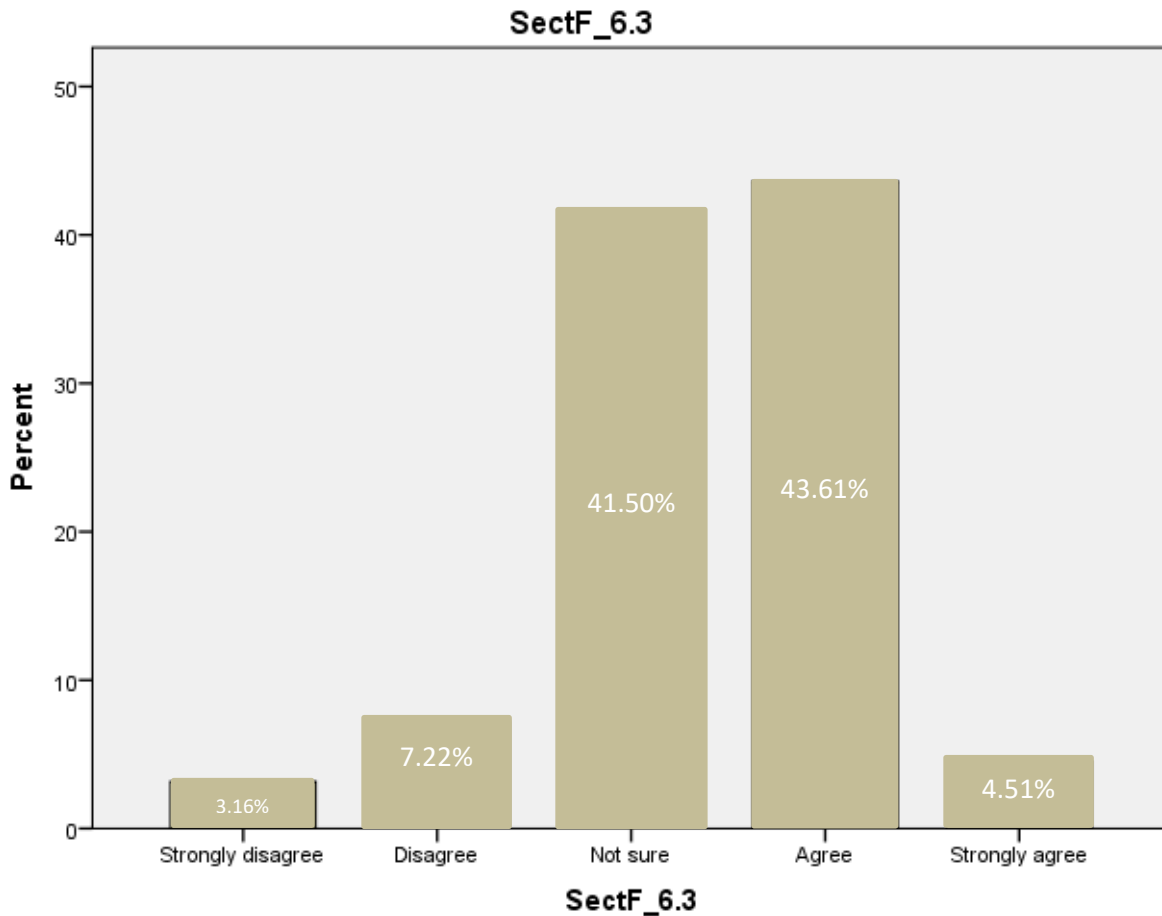


**Figure 6.27: Increased grassroots participation**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.27 illustrates that a majority (62.26%) of research participants are not sure if e-governance yields increased grassroots participation. The figure further portrays that 23.76% of the research participants agree, while a minority of 13.98% disagree with the perception. The participation can be categorised within the interactive stage of e-governance. It appears that measures need to be taken to stimulate the grass-roots community participation enabled by e-governance.

Figure 6.28 below shows a response to the question whether access to e-services is efficient in the CTMM.

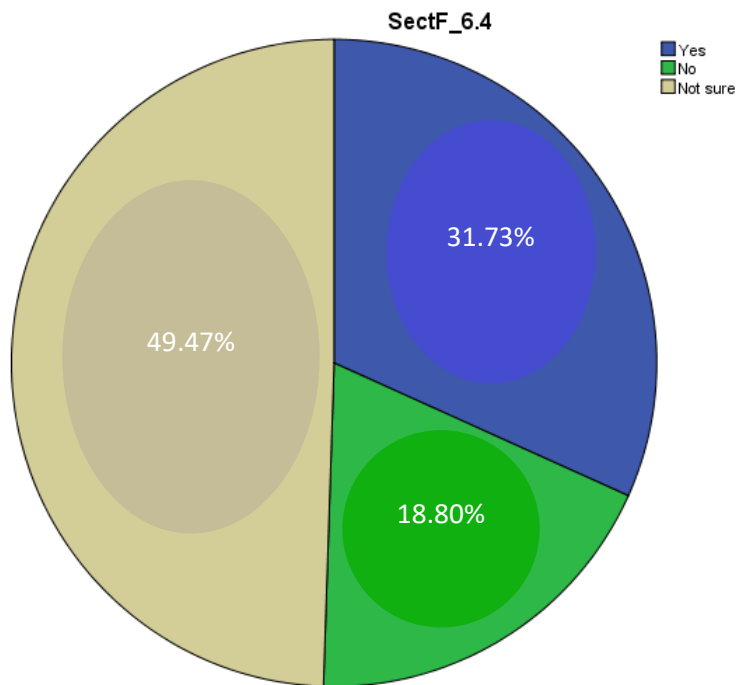


**Figure 6.28: Access to e-services is efficient**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.28 illustrates that a majority (43.61%) of research participants agree with the perception that access to e-services in the City of Tshwane is efficient, while 41.50% are not sure of such efficiency. The figure also indicates that 7.22% of research participants disagree, while 3.16% strongly disagree to the perception of efficiency in accessing e-services. Furthermore, 4.51% agree to the notion. In this regard, the majority of respondents affirm the perception of e-governance efficiency. It remains integral that awareness campaigns should be conducted to stimulate the culture of accessing e-services.

Figure 6.29 below demonstrates the responses to the question whether there is adequate capacity to respond to citizens' needs.

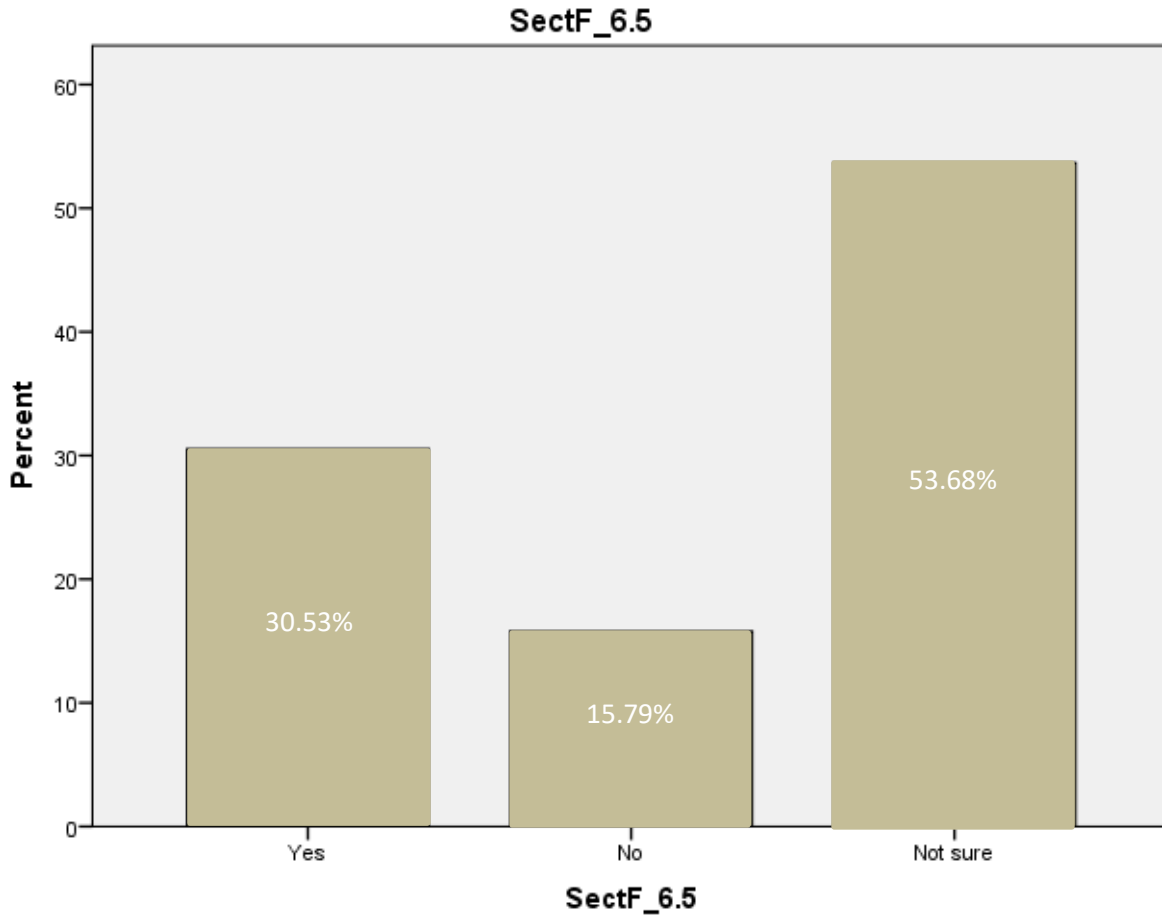


**Figure 6.29: Adequate capacity to respond to citizens' needs**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.29 shows that a majority (49.47%) of the research participants are not sure if there is adequate management capacity building to ensure adequate response to community needs, while 31.73% and 18.80% disagree. In this regard, adequate capacity building programmes should be undertaken as an approach to mitigate the gaps that may constitute barriers to residents adopting e-governance strategies.

Figure 6.30 below indicates a response to the question whether there is empowerment through adequate information on e-governance.

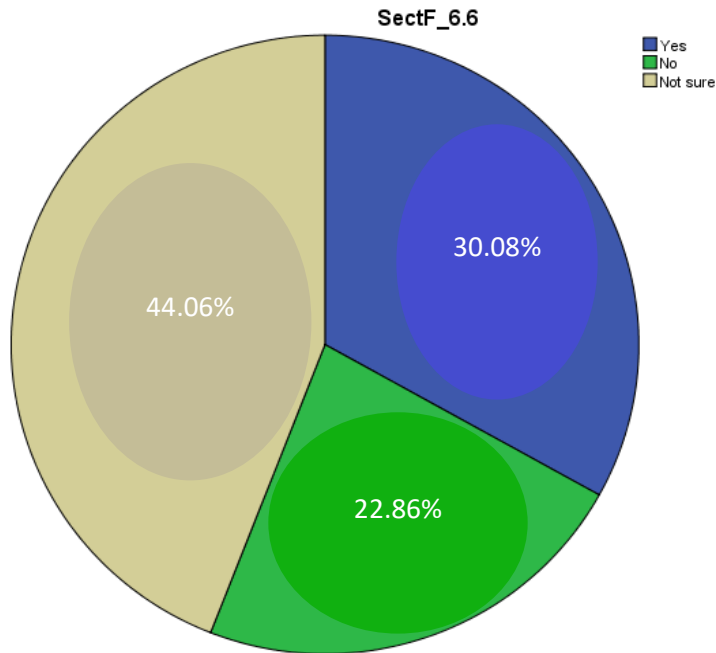


**Figure 6.30: Empowerment through adequate information on e-governance**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.30 indicates that a majority (53.68%) of the research participants highlighted that they are not sure of a citizen empowerment initiative that may stimulate their understanding of opportunities and responsibilities inherent in the City of Tshwane, while 30.53% agree and 15.79% disagree with the notion. In this regard, citizen empowerment remains integral to ensure the success of the e-governance strategy in the CTMM.

Figure 6.31 below shows the response to the question of whether there is confidence in how City of Tshwane conducts its business online.



**Figure 6.31: Confidence in how City of Tshwane conducts its business online**

*Author's own illustration*

Figure 6.31 illustrates that a majority (44.06%) of the research participants are not sure if they have confidence in how the City of Tshwane conducts or executes its business on-line. The figure further indicates that 33.08% do have confidence, while 22.86% disagree. In this regard, the uncertainty of the majority of respondents could derive from being oblivious and the negative perception of e-governance.

#### 6.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented the research findings in accordance with the research objectives of the study. The e-governance initiative aims to promote access and interaction with members of the public. The researcher took into consideration a number of stages of e-governance, such as information, interaction, transaction and transformation. In accordance with the research findings, an overwhelming majority of research participants in the CTMM demonstrated they have access to internet connectivity.

Essentially, it is worthwhile to note that while internet access is available, a considerable number of members of the public are oblivious to the e-governance initiative in the CTMM. From the research findings, it appears that residents seem to be unsure of the benefits that come along with access to e-services in the City of Tshwane.

Essentially, the ideal of providing access to e-services in the City of Tshwane is to make the municipal services more accessible online, reduce the cost of accessing those services and strengthen accountability and responsiveness. It can be deduced from the research findings that the City of Tshwane has rolled out its services online as a mechanism to enhance effectiveness and efficiency. In this regard, it could be argued that while there are various information and communication tools such as e-mails, SMS connectivity and municipal websites, the overwhelming majority affirm that access to information from the City of Tshwane Municipality would be in the form of a letter.

Although an overwhelming majority agree that they would make an on-line payment for municipal services, a contrary indication is that they are not sure if e-governance services are trustworthy. It appears that the City of Tshwane has an application, e-Tshwane, which is a secure free online service that allows home owners, companies, property managing agents and tenants to electronically interact with the City. The service offers ratepayers the ability to interact with the City via the internet, mobile devices and kiosks. The findings in this regard provide a picture that a minority of residents utilise the on-line services that CTTM has made available.

It is worthwhile to note that participation by members of the community on matters of local governance, either directly or through legitimate representatives, is a cornerstone of good governance. Participation needs to be informed and organised, including freedom of expression and assiduous concern for the best interests of the organisation and society in general. The e-participation in this regard could be more effective and efficient, taking into consideration the traditional method of community participation.

The research findings reveal that the City of Tshwane largely corresponds with its community through letters rather than through other on-line correspondence mechanisms such as twitter, Facebook and e-mails. In terms of good governance, taking into consideration elements of effectiveness, participation, transparency and accountability, it appears that residents are oblivious of the initiative of e-governance and the benefits it may have towards sound governance.

## CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

### 7.1 Introduction

The advent of technology has indeed changed the manner in which government conducts its business. The City of Tshwane realised the importance of information communication technologies and adopted the initiative of e-governance in 2013. Subsequently, the City rolled out its services online wherein residents are able to access such services to ensure effectiveness, efficiency, transparency and accountability, thus enhancing good governance.

Essentially, the study sought to assess the state of e-governance, taking into consideration various phases that exist to determine the state of e-governance in the CTMM. Importantly, the study also sought to assess the access to e-services in the City of Tshwane since the emergence or adoption of its e-governance strategy.

In the light of the above, the aim of this chapter is mainly to provide conclusions drawn by the researcher, taking into cognisance the empirical evidence and literature review of this study. The conclusions drawn by the researcher are aligned with the research objectives of this study. Furthermore, this chapter presents the research recommendations that are in line with the empirical evidence, analysis and conclusion of the study.

### 7.2 Summary of chapters

- Chapter 1: Introduction and background

The chapter 1 of this study provided the rational and motivation for this study. The chapter articulated the historical background, which is based on e-governance in enhancing good governance at local government: A case of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The chapter also outlined the research question and objectives of the study.

- Chapter 2: Local Government in South Africa

The focal point of chapter 2 was mainly on local government in South Africa prior and post 1994. The legislative framework and the nature of municipalities also received scrutiny. The chapter also discussed the challenges facing the South African municipalities.

- Chapter 3: Contextualising Public Administration and public administration

In chapter 3 of this study, a contextualisation of Public Administration and e-governance was provided. The chapter also discussed e-governance in South Africa and Singapore respectively. An elucidation on the theoretical constructs of the study received scrutiny.

- Chapter 4: Good governance

The chapter 4 of this study focused mainly on the concepts and theories of good governance with relation to the legislative framework enhancing good governance in local government. The chapter also discussed institutional mechanisms in enhancing good governance.

- Chapter 5: Research methodology

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology employed by the researcher in gathering data. A mixed method research was utilised in the pursuit of data. The primary and secondary data was clearly discussed. The chapter also discussed the sampling techniques used by the researcher.

- Chapter 6

In chapter 6 of this study, the focal point was mainly on the analysis and interpretation of the results of the study. The analysis was in accordance with the research objectives outlined by the researcher.

- Chapter 7

The chapter 7 of this study provided a conclusion and presented the research recommendations and conclusions. This chapter provided an elucidation on the contribution of information to the body of knowledge through a proposed model on e-governance and good governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

### 7.3 Research objectives and findings

Chapter 1 of this study outlined the research objectives as follows:

- (a) To assess the state of the e-governance initiative in the CTMM
- (b) To investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the CTMM
- (c) To investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the CTMM
- (d) To assess the extent in which e-governance influence good governance in the CTMM.

In accordance with these research objectives, following are the findings drawn from the empirical evidence.

#### Objective 1: The state of e-governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

The objective sought to assess the state of e-governance in the CTMM. Various stages of e-governance were taken into consideration, given the adoption of e-governance strategy by the City of Tshwane in 2013.

In this regard, the City of Tshwane has exceeded the information stage, which entails a web presence. This ensures that public information is made available and accessible through the municipal website. Based on the research findings, the majority of residents do have adequate access to the internet, which subsequently enhances access to municipal e-services.

In terms of the interaction stage, which includes downloading of forms and lodging complaints online, among others, it appears that the majority of residents do not download documents on-line; however, they agree that lodging complaints on-line saves time and is effective and efficient. To the contrary, the majority of respondents according to the research findings are not sure if e-services lead to convenience and customer satisfaction.

It may also be deduced that in line with the transactional stage, which includes payment of municipal services online, the research findings indicate that the majority of respondents prefer to utilise the traditional mechanism of effecting payments and are thus subjected to long queues.

### 7.3.1 Conclusion

The conclusion drawn from this research objective is that while the CTMM adopted an e-governance strategy in 2013, there are significant strides being made towards access of information through the web presence of the City of Tshwane. It appears that respondents acknowledge the effectiveness and efficiency of e-governance, yet prefer to use the traditional mechanism to do so. The empirical evidence indicates that progress still needs to be made towards the transformational stage of e-governance in the CTMM. In this regard, the resistance to embracing information communication and technologies could be a barrier towards the transformational stage of e-governance in the City of Tshwane.

#### Objective 2: To investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

This objective sought to investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the CTMM. In accordance with the empirical evidence, the City of Tshwane has an application titled e-Tshwane, which is a secure free online service that allows role players to interact with the City electronically concerning various on-line services.

In this regard, the research findings indicate that the majority of respondents access information from the CTMM through letters or word of mouth rather than through on-line mechanisms such as e-mail, the municipal website and SMS connectivity.

The empirical evidence indicates that the majority of respondents are not sure whether the City of Tshwane updates its website on topical issues affecting the community. Contrarily, the content of the information, which appears on the municipal website, is perceived to be accurate and reliable by most of the residents.

Although in the first objective the majority of residents indicated that they do not pay for municipal services on-line, the empirical evidence indicates that the majority of respondents would consider on-line payments. In terms of the perception on e-governance services being trustworthy, the evidence indicates that the majority of residents are not sure if e-services are trustworthy hence the inadequate access. The City of Tshwane needs to make strides towards transforming the interaction

it has with its residents as the evidence shows that there is no participation on e-decision-making processes.

### 7.3.2 Conclusion

The conclusion drawn from this research objective is that empirical evidence demonstrates that the City of Tshwane has rolled out its services online to enhance convenience and increased quality of services. It appears that respondents would consider on-line transactions; however, there is a perception of untrustworthiness of e-governance services.

The negative perception about e-governance could be a barrier towards the overall adoption and implementation of the e-governance strategy in the CTMM. In this regard, measures should be undertaken to raise awareness that will inform the community about the benefits of e-governance.

### Objective 3: To investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

This objective sought to investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the CTMM. In accordance with the empirical evidence, the City of Tshwane has various mechanism such as twitter, Facebook and video via Tshwane Wi-Fi TV to ensure e-participation. These platforms provide the City of Tshwane with the opportunity to engage with communities across all age and race groups in Tshwane, and in South Africa in general.

In this regard, the empirical evidence demonstrates that the majority of residents do not engage or interact with the City of Tshwane electronically. In a case of interaction, considering various platforms of online engagements, evidence suggests that e-mail is the mechanism that is most employed by the City of Tshwane to facilitate information dissemination. It may also be deduced that according to the research findings, members of the community are uncertain of active e-citizen or community engagements. This includes the online communication that ought to take place between members of the community and the municipality. The research findings further indicate that members of the community in the City of Tshwane remain uncertain of their position in

influencing policy making, taking into cognisance various online platforms that could be employed to stimulate online interaction.

### 7.3.3 Conclusion

In this regard, the conclusion drawn from this research objective is that it appears that online platforms to stimulate e-participation are in place in the City of Tshwane, but the challenge remains with the implementation. It appears that members of the community are complacent with the traditional methods of community participation in the CTMM.

Essentially, those entrusted with decision making should promote active e-citizenry to optimise the interaction that ought to exist between government and communities. Ultimately, this interaction would ensure sound contribution in the policy-making processes of the CTMM.

### Objective 4: To assess the extent in which e-governance influence good governance in the CTMM

This objective sought to assess the influence of e-governance in enhancing good governance in the CTMM. To ensure sound governance, principles of good governance such as accountability and transparency ought to be maintained.

In this regard, the empirical evidence indicates that the majority of residents in the City of Tshwane are uncertain about whether e-governance promotes transparency and accountability. In research objective 3 it was pointed out that the majority of residents rely on the traditional methods of community participation, hence the majority of respondents according to the findings demonstrated their uncertainty of whether e-governance could increase grassroots participation. The empirical evidence demonstrates that the majority of respondents in the City of Tshwane perceive access to e-services as efficient.

### 7.3.4 Conclusion

The conclusion drawn from this research objective is that the majority of the residents in the CTMM are uncertain about empowerment, which could be in the form of awareness campaigns

regarding e-services of the municipality. As a result, the confidence perception of respondents is uncertain concerning how Tshwane conducts its business online.

Essentially, to enhance good governance taking into consideration transparency and accountability, the CTMM should use various electronic platforms of engagement thus ensuring that users of public information could access such information ranging from reports to submission of inputs, etc. diligently.

#### 7.4 Research recommendations

In the light of the aforementioned findings and conclusions, the following section provides the research recommendations of the study, deduced from the conclusions drawn from the research findings. In order for the CTMM to advance in its developmental mandate of providing timely and accessible services to its members of the public, e-governance could be perceived as a sound strategy. Although the municipality established this initiative of e-governance in 2013, certain measures ought to be taken into consideration to ensure the actual adoption and implementation of this strategy. Below are the research recommendations of this study.

##### 7.4.1 Enhancing information e-literacy

There is a need to improve the information e-literacy skills of residents of the CTMM. Essentially, the ability to read and write may not be enough in this information age. Taking into consideration the history of South Africa prior to 1994, as a result of unfair discrimination, some of the residents, particularly the elderly, may experience fundamental challenges regarding the ability to read and write. This could hamper the adoption and implementation of e-governance and subsequently the strategy could turn into a white elephant.

As earlier mentioned in Chapter 4 of this study, one of the institutional mechanisms for enhancing good governance is that national government, through their legislation and fiscal policies, shape the environment within which local government operates and can limit or support their capacity to act effectively (Prabhu, Robson & Mitchelle, 2002:38). In this regard, co-operative governance is highly encouraged, thus the CTMM should engage with the Gauteng educational sector in

investing in digital technology for learners as early as at the primary school phase. This would certainly inculcate a culture of digital governance in the long term. The City also needs to liaise with the security cluster to ensure sound protection of these devices to avoid a setback as a result of crime.

#### 7.4.2 Community awareness

There is a need for the CTMM to inform its residents about e-governance and its benefits. This could ensure that residents are more aware of the e-governance initiative. Awareness campaigns should be established wherein residents are given more clarity about the e-governance initiative. Earlier, in Chapter 4 of this study, Kroukamp (2002:42) is referred to as suggesting that to ensure good governance, initiatives to empower the poor and the marginalised through adequate information to understand both the opportunities and responsibilities inherent in local government should be encouraged to prevent declining infrastructure.

Through these awareness campaigns, ranging from community meetings, the use of social media, information billboards, to information leaflets, residents could begin to gain trust and ultimately buy into the ideal of accessing and interacting with their government online. As a result, the residents of the City of Tshwane would maximise the use of technology on matters of governance.

#### 7.4.3 Strategic leadership

As indicated in Chapter 5 of this study, Reddick (2012:5) suggests that reinforcement theory advocates that if public managers lack strategic organisational vision, that is to say, if they do not know where their organisations are headed, adoption of technologies is likely to be minimal or even absent. In this regard, for e-participation to flourish, it remains integral that those who are entrusted with decision-making powers should encourage e-participation.

In the light of the above, the City of Tshwane should strengthen its strategic leadership in adherence to good governance. It is therefore recommended that a series of self-development courses be introduced in the municipality wherein municipal senior officials would enrol in programmes such as strategic management, leadership and good governance, ethics and

management principles, as well as any relevant capacity-building programmes. This will aid the municipality to function optimally, ethically, effective and efficiently – thus embracing the principles of good governance.

Considering the emergence of ICT, those entrusted with decision making should encourage the interaction with residents of the City of Tshwane, and encourage the submission of inputs electronically. This would ensure active e-citizenry in the local government affairs as required by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

#### 7.4.4 Accountability and transparency to ensure trust

Through adequate empowerment and the encouragement of active e-citizenry, the City of Tshwane could strive towards the ideals of good governance, taking into consideration openness and transparency, accountability, effectiveness and efficiency. In Chapter 4 of this study, reference is made to Abedian *et al.* (1998:7) who suggest that external reporting ensures accountability and transparency. External reporting mirrors the fit between strategic plans and the departmental budget and determines whether or not the services have been delivered not only in terms of policies but also in an effective and efficient manner.

The accountability and transparency can be achieved by populating all essential activities of the municipality in all electronic and digital platforms. A link to municipality reports such as the budget, IDP, and invitation to submit inputs should be shared on all social media platforms such as Facebook, twitter, etc. This will not only promote transparency and trust but will subsequently promote active e-citizenry, as the e-community will not only consume content but will be able to reflect on such reports and activities through these platforms.

The following section provides the proposed model of the study.

#### 7.5 Proposed model of the study

In the light of the aforementioned research recommendations, what follows is the proposed model of the study.



**Figure 7.1: Proposed model of e-governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality**

*Author's own illustration*

The proposed model suggests that the CTMM needs to strengthen its e-governance strategy to yield good governance. This model suggests that the City should enhance the information e-literacy skills of its community. This approach should take into consideration principles of cooperative governance in the development of the City's Integrated Development Plan. The Municipality should co-ordinate its activities involving relevant sectors such as the Provincial Department of Gauteng Education and the law and enforcement agency. This approach would ensure that a budget is made available for information communication technological tools at the primary phase of education. The law and enforcement agency would assist in curbing crime, thus protecting the technological infrastructure. Ideally, this approach seeks to stimulate a culture of digital technology leading to digital governance in the long term.

Considering the advent of information and communication technologies, the model suggests that capacity development programmes for those entrusted with decision-making powers could be pivotal. Through these programmes, the leadership of the municipality should embrace technology and thus encourage e-community participation on matters of local government and the submission of inputs electronically.

The model also suggests that the CTMM should raise awareness of e-governance services and its benefits. This will promote access of its e-services and ensure active e-citizenry on the local government affairs as required by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. Essentially, the City would ensure adherence to the principles of good governance, thus optimising accountability and a transparent government that is responsive to the needs of the people.

In the light of the above, this study makes a fundamental contribution to the body of knowledge by proposing a model that the CTMM may consider to ensure that e-governance indeed enhances good governance. This contribution to the body of knowledge is essential to aid the municipality to improve on its e-governance strategy. Through the proposed model, a culture of digital technology could indoctrinate a culture of digital governance. As a result, the benefits of e-governance strategy and the principles of good governance in the City of Tshwane could be optimally realised.

## 7.6 Conclusion

This chapter provided research conclusions that are in accordance with the research objectives, which were initially outlined in Chapter 1 of this study. In assessing the influence of e-governance in enhancing good governance in the CTMM, the researcher concludes that although an e-governance strategy was established in the municipality, it is still in its infancy considering the actual adoption and implementation by the residents of the City of Tshwane.

In order for e-governance in the City of Tshwane to reach its transformational stage, enhancing good governance, certain measures should be taken into cognisance and these include: improving the information literacy skills of residents, co-operative governance, awareness campaigns for e-services, and stimulating e-citizenry for sound community participation.

Furthermore, these conclusions emanate from the developmental mandate of local government in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. For the City of Tshwane

to advance on its developmental mandate in terms of the provision of services, encouraging community participation and promoting accountability, e-governance is considered a catalyst or a tool subsequently enhancing good governance. The chapter provides research recommendations that should be taken into consideration in the context of the transformational stage of e-governance in the CTMM.

### 7.7 Areas for further research

Van der Waldt (2014:50) points out that experience shows that technology is not a panacea for all service delivery challenges. Rather, it is an enabler. As an enabler, municipalities should use it to their advantage and that of the citizens they serve. In order to use this technology as an enabler, some of the areas for further research are suggested below.

It should be noted that e-governance comprises of three related objectives which include: improving processes: e-administration; connecting citizens: e-citizens and e-services; and building external interaction: e-society. This research primarily focused on the connecting citizen (e-citizens and e-services) objective in the CTMM, hence further research should be conducted on e-administration and external interaction of e-governance.

The focal point of the research content is on the three regions of the CTMM, taking into consideration the low, medium and high density population. Further research needs to be conducted to bridge the digital divide, particularly in the high density or peri-urban population. The research can further be escalated to the remote rural areas to ensure sound inclusion of the people, considering their democratic right to access and participation in local government matters.

Certain aspects that should be taken into cognisance regarding e-governance in local government would include e-governance policy, e-readiness and the digital divide. Furthermore, policy making comprises of various steps and one of these steps is policy evaluation. E-governance as policy directive in the CTMM equally needs to be assessed and evaluated to determine if it is yielding the outcomes that it was intended for. In the case of deviations, alternatives in a form of recommendations could then be taken into consideration.

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## ANNEXURES

### Annexure 1



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## ETHICS REVIEW CHECKLIST

<p>The following checklist provides a quick way to establish whether your research project involves potential ethical issues. This checklist must be completed before potential participants are approached to take part in any research. If you answer YES to any of the items, you MAY require ethical approval for the research project. Please contact any member of the TUT Research Ethics Committee for guidance.</p>		
	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
Does the project involve a <b>clinical trial</b> , i.e. the testing of any novel medical or pharmaceutical interventions?		X
Is <b>physiological/physical stress, pain, or more than mild discomfort</b> likely to result from participation in the study?		X
Are <b>drugs, placebos or other substances</b> (e.g. food substances, vitamins) to be administered to the research participants?		X
Is <b>emotional/psychological stress, anxiety, or more than mild discomfort</b> likely to result from participation in the study?		X

Could any research participant or his/her family/community be at <b>risk</b> or be adversely affected by their participation in the research project? It includes any form of cultural, social or financial risk/harm.		X
Are the research participants asked potentially <b>sensitive, incriminating, confidential or personal questions</b> about themselves (e.g. sexual activity, drug use) or their organisation (e.g. work satisfaction)?		X
Does the project require the <b>collection of any body tissues</b> (e.g. muscle biopsy) <b>or fluids</b> (e.g. blood, urine) from the research participants?		X
Does the project involve the use of human/animal specimens and/or samples that were originally collected for purposes other than this research?		X
Will the study involve recruitment of <b>TUT staff and/or students</b> as research participants? <i>Note 1</i>		X
Are any of the research participants limited in their ability to give informed and voluntary consent, i.e. a member of a <b>vulnerable population</b> ? This includes clinic patients, TUT staff members, TUT students, children, elderly, terminally ill patients, mentally disabled, institutionalised and prison groupings. <i>Note 2</i>		X
Do you have a <b>known/special relationship</b> with any of the research participants (e.g. lecturer-student, practitioner-patient and friend/family relationships)?		X
Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study <b>without their knowledge and consent</b> at the time (e.g. covert observation of people in non-public places)?		X

Will any kind of <b>incentive</b> (including compensation for time and transport) be offered to research participants?		X
Are any <b>intellectual and/or cultural property right issues</b> (e.g. traditional healer practices) relevant to the data/results of the research?		X
Does the project involve <b>specialised procedures</b> that are by law reserved for registered professionals, e.g. physicians, biokineticists, nurses?		X
Does the project involve the <b>genetic manipulation/modification</b> of any organism/plant?		X
Does your project involve any <b>experiments</b> on vertebrate animals?		X
Will the research project have a <b>direct impact on the natural environment/ecosystem</b> (e.g. collection of soil samples or plant material, the implementation of a rehabilitation programme and the disposal of chemical waste)?		X
Has any organisation provided financial or in-kind support for this project? This refers to potential <b>conflict-of-interest issues</b> that may affect the unrestricted publication of the research results. It includes direct material benefit that the researcher may receive from the sponsoring organisation for a contract research project. However, it excludes bona fide research funding agencies, such as the NRF and MRC.		X

<u>Note 1</u>		
Where the study involves recruitment of <b>TUT staff and/or students</b> as research participants, the <u>following documents must be submitted for review</u> :		

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Research questionnaires (i.e. paper-based format, electronic format, structured interview)</li> <li>• Information Leaflet</li> <li>• Informed Consent documents for the respective participant groups</li> </ul>		
<p><u>Note 2</u></p> <p>Where the study involves participants of a <b>vulnerable population</b> [this includes clinic patients, children, elderly, terminally ill patients, mentally disabled, institutionalised and prison groupings], the following documents must be submitted for review:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Research questionnaires (i.e. paper-based format, electronic format, structured interview)</li> <li>• Information Leaflet</li> <li>• Informed Consent documents for the respective participant groups</li> <li>• Letters seeking consent to enter domains</li> <li>• Assent in the case of minors</li> </ul>		

Source consulted: *Research Ethics Review Checklist (Version 3, May 2007), Canterbury Christ Church University, England.*



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**TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

**RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

**ETHICS DECLARATION FOR RESEARCHERS**

Maleka Mogotsi Caiphus

I, .....

(the principal researcher of the proposed research project)

and

Professor Kabelo Boikhutso Moeti

I, .....

(the study leader/supervisor of the proposed research project)

have read the relevant Guidelines for Ethics as used by the Tshwane University of Technology Research Ethics Committee, and have prepared this proposal with due cognisance of its content. Furthermore, I will adhere to the principles expressed in these guidelines when conducting my proposed research project.

**List of Guidelines:**

Please **tick and sign** next to the relevant guideline.

- **MRC Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research:** Booklets include :

\* These booklets are available at the Directorate: Research & Development in Building 20-132, Pretoria Campus or on the MRC website: [www.mrc.ac.za](http://www.mrc.ac.za)

1. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - General Principles.
2. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - Reproductive Biology and Genetic Research.
3. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - Use of Animals in Research.
4. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - Use of Biohazards and Radiation.
5. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - HIV Vaccine Trials.

- **Human Sciences Research Council:** Research Code.
- **National Zoological Gardens of SA:** National code for the handling and use of animals in research, education, diagnosis and testing of drugs and related substances in SA.
- **Department of Health:** Guidelines for good practice in the conduct of clinical trials in human participants in SA.

MC Maleka

16/07/14

.....

NAME & SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL RESEARCHER

DATE

and

.....

NAME & SIGNATURE OF STUDY LEADER/SUPERVISOR

DATE

## **ADDENDUM A**



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FACULTY OF Humanities

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DEPARTMENT OF Public Management

### **INFORMATION LEAFLET AND INFORMED CONSENT**

**PROJECT TITLE: E-GOVERNANCE IN ENHANCING GOOD GOVERNANCE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT: A CASE OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY**

Primary investigator: M.C. Maleka

Study leaders: Prof. M.H. Maserumule, Department of Public Management, D Phil in literature (UNISA), Department of Public Management (TUT), Soshanguve campus.

Prof. K.B. Moeti, D. Admin in Public Administration (University of Pretoria) Department of Public Management (TUT), Soshanguve campus.

Dear Potential research participant,

You are invited to participate in a research study that forms part of my formal Doctor of Technologiae studies. This information leaflet will help you to decide if you would like to participate. Before you agree to take part, you should fully understand what is involved. You should not agree to take part unless you are completely satisfied with all aspects of the study.

### **WHAT IS THE STUDY ALL ABOUT?**

The study seeks to assess e-governance in enhancing good governance in local government. This assessment adopts a case study approach within the context of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan

Municipality. This assessment could be informed of the access to municipal services and the traditional mechanisms of community participation, which could be too rigid and outdated. The e-services provides customers with an element of effectiveness and convenience. Within this context, the modern government should consider the manner in which delivery of services is undertaken to members of the public.

In this regard, the aim of the study is to assess whether e-governance enhances good governance in local government with particular interest in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To achieve this goal, the following objectives will help the researcher to achieve the aim of the study:

- (a) To assess the state of e-governance initiative in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality;
- (b) To investigate whether members of the community access e-services in the city of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality;
- (c) To investigate the effectiveness of e-participation in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality; and
- (d) To assess the influence of e-governance in enhancing good governance.

### **WHAT WILL YOU BE REQUIRED TO DO IN THE STUDY?**

If you decide to take part in the study, you will be required to do the following:

- To sign this informed consent form.
- To complete a questionnaire that should not take more than 30 minutes.

### **ARE THERE ANY CONDITIONS THAT MAY EXCLUDE YOU FROM THE STUDY?**

- If you fail to sign the consent form
- If you are below the age of 18
- If you are not a resident of the City of Tshwane

**CAN ANY OF THE STUDY PROCEDURES RESULT IN PERSONAL RISK, DISCOMFORT OR INCONVENIENCE?**

There are no known risks that may be withheld from participants for whatever reasons.

The study and procedures involve no foreseeable physical discomfort or inconvenience to you and your family.

**WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS THAT MAY COME FROM THE STUDY?**

The benefits of participating in this study are:

- You will make a contribution towards establishing a sound model for e-governance in enhancing good governance in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

**WILL YOU RECEIVE ANY FINANCIAL COMPENSATION OR INCENTIVE FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY?**

Please note that participation in this survey is purely on a voluntary basis and you **will not** be compensated for participation.

**WHAT ARE YOUR RIGHTS AS A PARTICIPANT IN THIS STUDY?**

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any stage without any penalty or future disadvantage whatsoever. You don't even have to provide the reason/s for your decision. Note that you are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

**HOW WILL CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY BE ENSURED IN THE STUDY?**

All information obtained during the course of this study is strictly confidential. The study data will be coded so that it will not be linked to your name. Your identity will not be revealed while the study is being conducted or when the study is reported in scientific journals. All the data sheets that have been collected will be stored in a secure place. Any information that is obtained in

connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. The information received during the project will only be used for research purposes and not be released for any employment-related performance evaluation, promotion and/or disciplinary purposes.

### **IS THE RESEARCHER QUALIFIED TO CARRY OUT THE STUDY?**

The researcher comes from the same geographical region as you. This means that he/she deeply understands your cultural context and can fluently speak the local languages.

### **HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICAL APPROVAL?**

Yes, the study has been approved by the Faculty Higher Degrees Committee and the Research Ethics Committee of the Tshwane University of Technology. All parts of the study will be conducted according to internationally accepted ethical principles.

### **WHO CAN YOU CONTACT FOR ADDITIONAL INFORMATION REGARDING THE STUDY?**

The primary investigator, M.C. Maleka, can be contacted during office hours at tel (012) 382-9553. The study leader, Prof. K.B Moeti, can be contacted during office hours at tel (012) 382 9552. Should you have any questions regarding the ethical aspects of the study, you can contact the chairperson of the TUT Research Ethics Committee, Prof .A. Mji, during office hours at tel (012) 382-9933, e-mail [MjiA@tut.ac.za](mailto:MjiA@tut.ac.za), Alternatively, you can report any serious unethical behaviour at the University's Toll Free Hotline 0800 21 23 41.

### **DECLARATION: CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

There is no conflict of interest that may negatively influence the study procedures, data collection, data analysis and publication of the results. The researcher has no financial support in conducting this study.

## **A FINAL WORD**

Your co-operation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. Please sign the informed consent form below if you agree to participate in the study. In such a case, you will receive a copy of the signed informed consent form from the researcher.

---

## **CONSENT**

I hereby confirm that I have been adequately informed by the researcher about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of the study. I have also received, read and understood the above written information. I am aware that the results of the study will be anonymously processed into a research report. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study. I had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and of my own free will declare myself prepared to participate in the study.

Research participant's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Research participant's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Researcher's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Researcher's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

---

## **VERBAL CONSENT**

*(Applicable when participants cannot read or write)*

I hereby declare that I have read and explained the contents of the information sheet to the research participant. The nature and purpose of the study were explained, as well as the possible risks and benefits of the study. The research participant has clearly indicated that he/she is aware of the right to withdraw from the study at any time, for any reason and without jeopardising his/her relationship with the research team. I hereby certify that the research participant has verbally agreed to participate in this study.

Research participant's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Researcher's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Researcher's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

---

## **PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT**

*(Applicable when participants are younger than 18 years old)*

I hereby confirm that I have been adequately informed by the researcher about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of the study. I have also received, read and understood the above written information. I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my child, will be anonymously processed into a research report. I understand that his/her participation is voluntary and that he/she may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw his/her assent and participation in the study. He/she has had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and I, of my own free will, declare that my child can participate in the above-mentioned study.

Research participant's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Research participant's parent/guardian's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Research participant's parent/guardian's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Researcher's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (Please print)

Researcher's signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

---

**CHILD ASSENT FORM** (*Applicable when participants are younger than 18 years old*)

I, (print full name), understand that my parent(s)/guardian(s) has given permission (said it is okay) for me to take part in the research project. I am taking part because I want to and not because I'm forced to do so. I have been assured that I can stop at any time I want to without getting into any trouble (nothing bad will happen to me and nobody will be mad at me if I want to stop). Also, I can always ask the researcher any question about the study.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature/Name

Annexure 2

**SECTION A: THE CITY OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY**

**1. BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

Please tick

1.1

**Region**

<b>Region 1</b>	
Region 2	
Region 3	
<b>Region 4</b>	
Region 5	
Region 6	
<b>Region 7</b>	

1.2

**Gender**

Male	
Female	

1.3

**Age group**

18-25	
26-40	
41-65	
66+	

1.4

Race

African	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	
Other	

1.5

**Educational level**

No Grade 12	
Grade 12	
Diploma	
Post graduate	

**SECTION B: THE STATE OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY**

**2. STATE OF E-GOVERNANCE (please indicate your answer with a tick)**

2.1 Do you have access to the internet?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.2 Do you have access to municipal online services?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3 Do you access information on the municipality website?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.4 Do you pay for municipal services online?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.5 Do you download forms and documents on the municipal website?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.6 The municipal website is user friendly.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/ explanation (if any)

.....

.....

2.7 The information on the municipal website is up to date.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/ explanation (if any)

.....

.....

2.8 Accessing e-services provides an element of convenience.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/ explanation (if any)

.....

.....

2.9 It is more convenient to ask questions via e-mail to municipal officials.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

2.10 Lodging complains online is quicker and saves time and money.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

2.11 E-services are efficient and provide for customer satisfaction.

Parameter	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

**SECTION C**

**3. ACCESS TO E-SERVICES: THE CITY OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY**

3.1 How do you access information from the City of Tshwane Municipality?

E-mail	Municipal website	SMS connectivity	Awareness campaigns	Other

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

3.2 The municipality updates residents on the new developments through its website.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
.....

3.3 E-governance services are trustworthy.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
.....

3.4 Would you make online transactions to pay for municipal services?

Yes	No
-----	----

3.5 Is the content of the information accurate and reliable?

Yes	No
-----	----

3.6 Do you participate in e-decision-making process?

Yes	No
-----	----

**4. SECTION D**

**E-participation: City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality**

4.1 Do you communicate with municipal officials electronically?

Yes	No
-----	----

4.2 Which methods of communication do you use?

Facebook	SMS connectivity	Twitter	e-mail	Other

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

4.3 Is there an information from citizens to the municipal officials electronically?

<b>Parameter</b>	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

4.3 Is there active e-citizen engagement with municipal officials?

<b>Parameter</b>	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
.....  
4.4 Is there an online communication mechanism between municipality and its residents?

<b>Parameter</b>	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
.....

4.5 Do residents influence policy-making processes online?

<b>Parameter</b>	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
.....

**SECTION E**

**THE INFLUENCE OF E-GOVERNANCE TO GOOD GOVERNANCE IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY.**

5.1 Through e-governance, is there transparency and accountability in municipal affairs of the City of Tshwane?

<b>Parameter</b>	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

5.2 Is there increased grassroots participation?

<b>Parameter</b>	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....

.....

5.3 Access to online services is efficient.

<b>Parameter</b>	Strong disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree	Agree

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
 .....  
 5.4 Is there adequate management capacity building to ensure adequate response to citizen's needs?

Parameter	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
 .....

5.5 Is there citizen empowerment through adequate information in understanding opportunities and responsibilities inherent in the City of Tshwane?

Parameter	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
 .....

5.6 Do you have confidence in how the City of Tshwane conducts its business online?

Parameter	Yes	No	Not sure

Reason/explanation (if any)

.....  
 .....



**Tshwane University  
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## Faculty Committee for Research Ethics - Humanities [FCRE-HUM]

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*The TUT Research Ethics Committee is a registered Institutional Review Board (IRB 00005968) with the US Office for Human Research Protections (IORG# 0004997) (Expires 9 Jan 2017). Also, it has Federal Wide Assurance for the Protection of Human Subjects for International Institutions (FWA 00011501) (Expires 22 Jan 2017). In South Africa it is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council (REC-160509-21). The FCRE-HUM is a subcommittee of the Senate Committee for Research Ethics*

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13 AUGUST 2015

Ref #: FCRE/PM/STD/2015/04    Name: Maleka, M.C.

Student #: 206198621

Maleka, M.C.  
C/o Prof. M.H. Maserumule  
Department of Public Management  
Faculty of Humanities

Dear Ms./Mr. Maleka, M.C

---

**Title: Assessing the role of e-governance in local government: A perspective of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality**

**Investigator: Maleka, M.C..**

**Qualification:** D Tech: Public Management

**Supervisor:** Prof. M.H. Maserumule

**Co-supervisor:** Prof. K.B. Moeti

**Co-supervisor:** None

---

Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethics clearance.

**Decision: The application be Approved**

In reviewing the proposal, the following comments/notes, emanating from the meeting are tabled for your consideration/attention/notification:

- The topic of the study (e-governance) is not ethically sensitive
  - The projects involves officials of Tshwane municipality as respondents
  - The Survey Cover letter is in order except that it still contains some unnecessary paragraph numbers as headings from the original template
  - The questionnaires are in order
  - The research proposal does not contain section on ethics, and does not contain any details of who is going to be interviewed, or any sampling procedures
- A letter granting permission is provided



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The Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics Committee reviewed the documents at its meeting on 05 August 2015. The study is **approved**

The Committee wishes you well with your research endeavours.

Signature

2014

13 AUGUST

Chair / Deputy-Chair

Faculty Research Ethics Committee

[Ref#: FCRE/PM/STD/2015/06]

cc Prof. M.H. Maserumule;

Prof. K.B. Moeti



## Corporate and Shared Services Department Tshwane Leadership and Management Academy

Room A206 | Tshwane Academy | 11 Staatsartillerie Road | Pretoria West | 0183  
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Tel: 012 358 0022 / 012 358 0093 | Fax: 012 358 0037  
Email: mariamot@tshwane.gov.za | www.tshwane.gov.za | www.facebook.com/CityOf Tshwane

My ref:		Tel:	012 358 7516
Your ref:		Fax:	0862145840
Contact person:	Victoria Mosweu	Email:	Victoriama@tshwane.gov.za
Section/Unit:	Strategic Competency Development Management	Date:	06 February 2015

### MEMORANDUM

**TO : DR. M.S MOTEKANG  
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: TSHWANE LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT  
ACADEMY**

**FROM : DR T.J.D VAN STADEN  
DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT**

**RE : REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH – MR. M.C MALEKA**

The purpose of this memorandum is to motivate and seek approval for Mr M.C Maleka to conduct research in the City of Tshwane to enable him to complete his Doctoral (D-tech) studies.

Mr M.C Maleka is Doctoral (D-tech) student at the Tshwane University of Technology. He approached the municipality with the request to conduct research and his research topic is "The role of e-governance towards good governance in local government: A perspective of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality" with specific reference to the Governance and Secretariat Services Department.

The student's research must not be seen as a destructing factor on the performance of employees in their respective work stations. His method of collecting data should not affect the day to day functioning of employees.

The CoT will therefore be giving the student the necessary exposure and/or access to information for him to complete his studies, taking into account the Council's policy on confidentiality. The information gathered will be treated as confidential by the student and may not be used for any other purpose except for his studies.

The CoT will bear no financial obligation towards the research as all the administrative and relate costs will be covered by the student.



On request, this document can be provided in another official language.


Kgoro ya Ditirelo Tlhamano le tsa Mohlakanelwa • Departement Korporatiewe en Gedeelde Dienste  
Lefapha la Tshwaraganano ya Ditirelo tsa Setheo • Ndzawulo ya Vukorhokeri bya Nhlanguano wa Bindzu  
UMnyango Wezemisebenzi Yokwabelana Nokopeletsheni  
Corporate and Shared Servi Department

## REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH FOR MR M.C MALEKA

Tshwane Leadership and Management Academy supports the application to enable him to complete his studies, provided that it is conducted within the prescripts of applicable policies.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

- That Mr M.C Maleka be allowed to conduct his research within CoT.
- That the Governance and Secretariat Services Department give full support to the student on his research.
- That his research starts from 01<sup>st</sup> of March 2015 to 31<sup>st</sup> August 2015.
- That the KAS's should as far as possible assist (offer support) to the student.

  
N.V MOSWEU

SENIOR COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIC OFFICER

06-02-2015  
DATE

~~RECOMMENDED/NOT RECOMMENDED/RECOMMENDED AS AMENDED~~

  
DR T.S.D VAN STADEN

DIRECTOR: STRATEGIC COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

2015/02/09  
DATE

~~RECOMMENDED/NOT RECOMMENDED/RECOMMENDED AS AMENDED~~

  
DR M.S MOTEKANG

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: TSHWANE LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT  
ACADEMY

10/02/2015  
DATE

APPROVED/NOT APPROVED/APPROVED AS AMENDED

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UMnyango Wezemisebenzi Yokwabelana Nokopeletsheni  
Corporate and Shared Services Depa

CERTIFICATE FROM LANGUAGE EDITOR

259 Muckleneuk Street  
New Mucldeneuk  
Pretoria  
13 July 2019

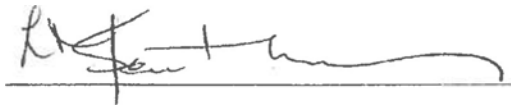
To whom it may concern

I hereby declare that I have edited the language of the doctoral thesis

E-governance in enhancing good governance in local government: The case of the City of Tshwane  
Metropolitan Municipality by Maleka Mogotsi Caiphus

I checked the formatting of the reference list and the references against the contents. I have edited the  
language of the thesis.

I returned the thesis to the student showing the track changes and queries and comments, checked the changes  
when these came back to me, and then returned it to the doctoral student.



LYNNE SOUTHEY

Language Practitioner (MA Applied Linguistics)

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