

**AN EVALUATION OF GOOD GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY AT  
SUB-NATIONAL LEVELS IN NAMIBIA: THE CASE OF THE OSHANA REGION**

by

Tuhafeni Helao

Submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Public Administration

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

Supervisor: Professor Goonasagree Naidoo

**February, 2015**

## **DEDICATION**

To my late grandmother

*'Susana Mhingana Iiyambo'*, you made me who I am today

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Whilst I take full responsibility of whatever has been presented and discussed in this thesis, I am thoughtfully aware that it could not have been completed in its entirety in the absence of undivided cooperation and assistance from a number of people who provided moral support, encouragement, expertise and experience, views, opinions and valuable time.

Firstly, I wholeheartedly wish to acknowledge the unwavering support from my family particularly my children. Every day I see my children serves as a reminder and encouragement for me to work tirelessly and meticulously to successfully complete this thesis. I am quite sure that they will take a lesson from this '*milestone*' accomplishment in order to shape their own future.

Secondly, I am very much indebted and thankful to my visionary promoter and supervisor; Professor Goonasagree Naidoo, whose expertise, intellectual and professional approach and guidance have been a firm pillar in helping me throughout my thesis writing. Without her guidance, patience, tolerance and understanding it could have been difficult for me to successfully complete this thesis. I hold high esteem for you Professor.

Finally, I would like to thank all those who have participated in this study in one way or the other by motivated, stirred and encouraged me, and shared some invaluable ideas with me. My appreciations also go to public officials in the Oshana Region. Your views, opinions and experiences have indeed made this thesis a reality. In the same vein, I acknowledge with thanks the participation by ordinary community members in respective constituencies in the Oshana Region. Your contributions made it possible for me to finalise this thesis. Thank you very much.

## DECLARATION

I declare that “*An Evaluation of Good Governance and Service Delivery at Sub-National Levels in Namibia: The Case of the Oshana Region*” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....

Tuhafeni Helao

February 2015

## **KEY WORDS**

Decentralisation

Democracy

Effectiveness

Efficiency

Good governance

Oshana Region

Public participation

Public sector governance

Public officials

Service delivery

## ABBREVIATIONS

|          |   |
|----------|---|
| ACC      | Anti-Corruption Commission  |
| AGGN     | African Good Governance Network   |
| ALAN     | Association of Local Authority in Namibia                                 |
| CBOs     | Community-Based Organisations   |
| CDC      | Constituency Development Committee  |
| CDF      | Constituency Development Fund   |
| CENORED  | Central Northern Electricity Distributors                                 |
| CEO      | Chief Executive Officer   |
| Cos      | Community Organisations   |
| CRO      | Chief Regional Officer  |
| UNDESA   | United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs                  |
| ECA      | Economic Commission for Africa  |
| ECB      | Electricity Control Board   |
| ETSIP    | Education and Training Sector Improvement Performance                     |
| HIV/AIDS | Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome           |
| ICT      | Information Communication Technology                                      |
| IFA      | International Federation for Accountants                                  |
| IMF      | International Monetary Fund   |
| MAWF     | Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry                               |
| MCA      | Millennium Challenge Account  |
| MDGs     | Millennium Development Goals  |
| MGECW    | Ministry of Gender equality and Child Welfare                             |
| MLSW     | Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare                                     |
| MMDP     | Middle Management Development Programme                                   |
| MMDP-RLG | Middle Management Development Programme for Regional and Local Government |

|          |  |
|----------|--|
| MME      | Ministry of Mines and Energy   |
| MoHSS    | Ministry of Health and Social Services   |
| MRLGHRD  | Ministry of Regional and local Government, Housing and Rural Development         |
| MTEF     | Medium Term Expenditure Framework  |
| NAMCOR   | National Petroleum Corporation of Namibia  |
| NAMPOWER | Namibia's National Power Utility   |
| NAMWATER | Namibia Water Corporation  |
| NDP's    | National Development Plans   |
| NEPAD    | New Partnership for African Development  |
| NGOs     | Non-Governmental Organisations   |
| NHAG     | Namibia Housing Action Group   |
| NHE      | National Housing Enterprise  |
| NHIES    | National Housing Income and Expenditure Survey                                   |
| NIPAM    | Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management                        |
| NORED    | Northern Electricity Distributors  |
| NPC      | National Planning Commission   |
| OECD     | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development                           |
| OVC      | Orphans and Vulnerable Children  |
| PETS     | Public Expenditure Tracking System   |
| POSDCORB | Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Coordination, Reporting and Budgeting |
| PPP      | Public-Private Partnership   |
| PSC      | Public Service Commission  |
| RDCC     | Regional Development Coordination Committee                                      |
| RED      | Regional Electricity Distributors  |
| SADC     | Southern Africa Development Community  |
| SDFN     | Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia   |

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| SMDP   | Senior Management Development Programme                            |
| SWAPO  | South West Africa People Organisation                              |
| TIPEEG | Targeted Intervention Programme for Employment and Economic Growth |
| UNDP   | United Nations Development Programme                               |
| UNECE  | United Nations Economic Commission for Europe                      |
| UNISA  | University of South Africa   |



## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to evaluate and examine governance structures and practices and service delivery to provide comprehensive understanding of governance and service delivery situation at sub-national levels in Namibia. Public service agencies are presumed to lack good governance practices which adversely affect service delivery. It was argued that good governance practices improve public service performance and ultimately enhances service delivery. Furthermore, the study noted that the delivery of basic services such as potable water, health, education, electricity and proper road communication can augment the living standard of the people. Various public service reforms undertaken by the Government of Republic of Namibia since independence in 1990 explain government's resolve to good governance and improved service delivery. Consequently, workable relationship between government and citizens is needed to realise national development plans and Vision 2030.

The study used the Oshana Region case study in order to determine whether governance practices have bearing on service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. Qualitative research approach was utilised and qualitative data were collected in addition to rigorous literature review and analysis. Scientifically, gathered information suggested that good governance practices are certainly fundamental to service delivery and subsequently improve people's living standard particularly those residing in rural areas. The study found that the Namibian government exercised good governance practices and provided basic services to citizens. Nonetheless, inappropriate governance practices by some public institutions delay service delivery.

The study concluded that while poor governance and ineffective service delivery are considerable challenges faced by public service, they are not insurmountable. The thesis acknowledged a significant progress made by creating governance structures at sub-national levels to provide and accelerate the delivery of essential services to citizens in Namibia. Notwithstanding the above, more still need to be done to improve the socio-economic welfare of Namibian people. Therefore, the research recommended that the Government of Republic of Namibia ought to provide sufficient resources and promote public participation to address the needs and aspirations of the citizens particularly the previously marginalised people in rural areas. Moreover, sub-national governance structures should be strengthened and essential government functions and services be devolved.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|                            |      |
|----------------------------|------|
| Dedication                 | i    |
| Acknowledgement            | ii   |
| Declaration                | iii  |
| Key concepts and phenomena | iv   |
| Abbreviations              | v    |
| Abstract                   | viii |

### CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

|  |    |
|--|----|
| 1.1 General Overview of the Study                                    | 1  |
| 1.2 Background to the Study and the Context of Governance in Namibia | 2  |
| 1.3 Motivation for the Research                                      | 13 |
| 1.4 Problem Statement  | 15 |
| 1.5 Research Question  | 25 |
| 1.6 Objectives of the Research                                       | 26 |
| 1.7 Definition of Key Concepts and Phenomena                         | 26 |
| 1.8 Chapter Outline  | 37 |
| 1.9 Summary  | 40 |

### CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

|   |    |
|---|----|
| 2.1 Introduction                            | 41 |
| 2.2 Research Design                         | 42 |
| 2.3 Oshana Region Case Study Approach       | 50 |
| 2.4 Target Research Population and Sampling | 54 |
| 2.5 Data and Information Collection         | 61 |
| 2.6 Data Analysis, Validation and Reporting | 67 |
| 2.7 Scope and Limitations to the Study      | 73 |
| 2.8 Significance of the Study               | 76 |
| 2.9 Summary                                 | 78 |

## CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, GOOD GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

|     |   |     |
|-----|---|-----|
| 3.1 | Introduction  | 79  |
| 3.2 | Public Administration, Governance and Service Delivery  | 81  |
| 3.3 | Relationship Between Public Administration, Governance and Service Delivery                       | 96  |
| 3.4 | The Mercy Corps Governance Framework Model  | 103 |
| 3.5 | Proposed Good Governance Practices Model for the Public Service of Namibia                        | 108 |
| 3.6 | The Context of Governance and Service Delivery in Namibia   | 115 |
| 3.7 | Development of Public Administration, Governance and Service Delivery Within the Namibian Context | 116 |
|     | 3.7.1 The Namibian Constitution   | 120 |
|     | 3.7.2 Namibia's National Development Plans (NDPs) and Vision 2030                                 | 124 |
|     | 3.7.3 Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992  | 131 |
|     | 3.7.4 Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992  | 134 |
|     | 3.7.5 Decentralisation Policy and Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000                        | 136 |
|     | 3.7.6 Office of the Ombudsman and Anti-Corruption Commission (ACC)                                | 139 |
|     | 3.7.7 Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM)                           | 146 |
| 3.8 | Summary   | 148 |

## CHAPTER 4: AN OVERVIEW OF GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

|     |   |     |
|-----|---|-----|
| 4.1 | Introduction  | 150 |
| 4.2 | Perspectives of Governance and Good Governance                  | 151 |
| 4.3 | Principles of Good Governance and Effective Service Delivery    | 160 |
| 4.4 | Applicability of Good Governance Principles on Service Delivery | 165 |
|     | 4.4.1 Rule of Law   | 165 |
|     | 4.4.2 Public Participation                                      | 167 |
|     | 4.4.3 Transparency  | 172 |
|     | 4.4.4 Accountability  | 173 |
|     | 4.4.5 Decentralisation  | 175 |
|     | 4.4.6 Effectiveness and Efficiency                              | 180 |

|       |  |     |
|-------|--|-----|
| 4.5   | General Trends, Processes and Dynamics of Governance and Service Delivery in Namibia                   | 182 |
| 4.5.1 | Governance under German Rule: 1884-1915  | 184 |
| 4.5.2 | Governance under South African Colonial Regime Rule: 1915-1988   | 188 |
| 4.5.3 | Governance in Post-Independence Namibia: 1990 to Date  | 191 |
| 4.6   | Governance and Service Delivery in Namibia   | 193 |
| 4.7   | Urban Expansion and Service Delivery in the Oshana Region  | 208 |
| 4.8   | Governance and Service Delivery Challenges Faced by Regional Councils and Local Authorities in Namibia | 210 |
| 4.9   | Integration of Governance Approaches, Theories and Models for Effective Service Delivery               | 212 |
| 4.10  | Summary  | 216 |

## CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION ON GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE OSHANA REGION CASE STUDY

|       |  |     |
|-------|--|-----|
| 5.1   | Introduction   | 218 |
| 5.2   | Data Analysis and Interpretation: The Oshana Region Case Study   | 219 |
| 5.2.1 | Governance structures, practices from the Perspective of political Office Bearers in the Oshana Region   | 223 |
| 5.2.2 | Service delivery in the Oshana Region from the perspective of the political office bearers in the Oshana Region  | 230 |
| 5.2.3 | Service delivery at local authority councils levels in the Oshana Region   | 233 |
| 5.2.4 | Councillors' views on governance and service delivery challenges faced by regional and local government institutions in the Oshana Region  | 236 |
| 5.2.5 | Governance structures and practices and service delivery from senior administrative management's perspective at regional council and local authority levels in the Oshana Region | 238 |
| 5.2.6 | Governance practices and service delivery from the perspective of administrative officials at constituency and local authority levels in the Oshana Region                       | 245 |
| 5.2.7 | Service delivery from the perspective of ordinary members of the community and traditional leaders in the Oshana Region  | 253 |
| 5.2.8 | Brief synopsis of issues that have impacts on governance and service delivery as identified and discussed by the respondents in the Oshana Region case study                     | 269 |
| 5.3   | Summary  | 272 |

## CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS ON GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY SITUATION IN NAMIBIA

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| 6.1 Introduction   | 273 |
| 6.2 Findings and Discussions on Governance Practices in Namibia                  | 274 |
| 6.3 Findings and Discussions on Selected Service Delivery Issues in Namibia      | 277 |
| 6.3.1 Water Supply and Sanitation Services                                       | 278 |
| 6.3.2 Electricity Supply Services  | 284 |
| 6.3.3 Health and Social Services   | 291 |
| 6.3.4 Housing Services   | 297 |
| 6.3.5 Education Services   | 305 |
| 6.4 Findings and Discussions on Service Delivery in the Oshana Region Case Study | 313 |
| 6.4 Summary  | 316 |

## CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

|                               |     |
|-------------------------------|-----|
| 7.1 Summary and conclusion    | 317 |
| 7.2 Recommendations           | 324 |
| 7.3 Areas of further research | 337 |

|                |     |
|----------------|-----|
| REFERENCE LIST | 338 |
|----------------|-----|

|   |     |
|---|-----|
| ANNEXURE A: Interview Questions                     | 371 |
| ANNEXURE B: Ethical Clearance Certificate           | 374 |
| ANNEXURE C: Consent letter: Oshana Regional Council | 375 |
| ANNEXURE D: Consent letter: Oshakati Town Council   | 376 |
| ANNEXURE E: Consent letter: Ondangwa Town Council   | 377 |

## LIST OF FIGURES

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Figure 2.1: Flow model of qualitative data analysis components   | 70  |
| Figure 3.1: Proposed Good Governance Practices Model in the Namibia Public Service:<br>Process Model                         | 110 |
| Figure 3.2: Structures of Government in Namibia since 1990   | 119 |
| Figure 3.3: Office of the Ombudsman performance during 2009 to 2011 period.  | 141 |
| Figure 3.4: Anti-Corruption Commission's Performance (Cases reported and referred to the<br>Prosecutor-General for decision) | 144 |
| Figure 4.1: Public Service Reform Problems and Approaches  | 163 |
| Figure 4.2: Arnstein's eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation  | 170 |
| Figure 4.3: Arguments in favour of decentralisation of political power   | 178 |
| Figure 4.4: Namibian map indicates 13 administrative regions   | 196 |
| Figure 4.5: Governance structures in the Oshana Region   | 197 |
| Figure 4.6: Core functions of Regional Councils in Namibia   | 200 |
| Figure 4.7: Population distribution in the Oshana Region   | 202 |
| Figure 4.8: A typical rural dwelling in Namibia (digital aerial photo)   | 204 |
| Figure 4.9: The rate of urbanisation in Oshana Region for the period 2001 to 2011  | 209 |
| Figure 5.1: Percentage of response from the Oshana Region Case Study (face-to-face<br>interviews)                            | 222 |
| Figure 6.1: Access to Water Supply and Sanitation delivery rate in Namibia per Region  | 282 |
| Figure 6.2: Performance of electricity supply sector in Namibia  | 286 |
| Figure 6.3: Population per health facility   | 293 |
| Figure 6.4: Ministry of Health and Social Services Strategic Themes and Objectives   | 295 |
| Figure 6.5: Policies and regulations related to housing in Namibia   | 299 |
| Figure 6.6: ETSIP strategic objectives by sub-programme and order of priority  | 311 |
| Figure 6.7: Access to Services in the Oshana Region  | 314 |

## LIST OF CHARTS

|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Chart 5.1 Response by Political Office Bearers                                 | 225 |
| Chart 5.2 Response by Administrative Officials                                 | 246 |
| Chart 5.3 Response by Community Members  | 254 |
| Chart 5.4: Response by community members in town councils in the Oshana Region | 265 |

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

### 1.1 GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The challenge faced by the Namibian government today, particularly at sub-national levels, is to develop a governance system that can support and sustain effective service delivery to people in the country. Although governance and service delivery at sub-national levels have substantially been improved since independence in 1990, more still needs to be done in order to improve the socio-economic wellbeing of every citizen in Namibia. The democratic principles which were realised through the adoption and implementation of the Constitution of Namibia in 1990 have created new hope and expectations of a new beginning among the Namibian people. In particular, the coming into effect of the constitution made people, especially those from the previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities, to realise that their predicament regarding basic services will receive high priorities. This implies that people should be brought into the country's economic mainstream and benefit from government services on equal basis. In other words, people expect government and its institutions to put in place good governance practices to ensure that much needed basic services are delivered to all citizens. Good governance practices, in the context of this study, refer to best public service practices that are guided by rule of law, accountability, transparency, integrity and responsiveness from public institutions. In essence, these are ingredients of good governance and effective service delivery.

Against the backdrop, this chapter provides a general overview of the study. It starts with discussions on the background of the study in order to put into context governance and service delivery in Namibia prior to, and, after independence in 1990. Chapter one presents a clear picture of governance and processes of public sector reform that took place since the adoption of the new constitution. Additionally, this chapter explains why it is essential to undertake a study of this magnitude. The research problem statement is presented, discussed and explained in detail in this chapter. Similarly, the chapter also provides research question and objectives of the study.

To circumvent vagueness of issues discussed in this thesis, chapter one provides definition and clarification of key concepts and terminologies which are predominantly used in the study. These concepts are good governance, service delivery, public sector governance, public sector officials,

decentralisation, Oshana Region, democracy, public participation, effectiveness, and efficiency. The rationale behind defining and clarifying these concepts is to provide the meaning of each concept, and the context in which it has been utilised in the study. Finally, this chapter presents an outline of the thesis' chapters.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AND THE CONTEXT OF GOVERNANCE IN NAMIBIA.**

In the context of Namibia, public sector governance and service delivery are rooted in the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia Act 1990 (Act 1 of 1990) (henceforth referred to the Constitution of Namibia Act 1990). The Constitution established the Republic of Namibia. Specifically, Article 1 of the Constitution provides for the establishment of Namibia “as a sovereign, secular, democratic and unitary State founded upon the principles of democracy, the rule of law and justice for all” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:1). In this regard, the Constitution of Namibia vests all power in the people of Namibia to exercise control and authority over government institutions in order to ensure proper governance and effective service delivery (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:1).

Moreover, it must be noted that Article 18 states that “administrative bodies and administrative officials” must act justly and cautiously to ensure that the provisions of the Constitution are correctly applied in order to uphold the rights of people. This includes the rights to access basic services and to be treated equally regardless of colour and status in society. Furthermore, the constitution of Namibia provides that “persons aggrieved by the exercise” of government and its decisions must have “right to seek redress before a competent Court or Tribunal” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:12). Even more relevant to this study is Article 95 which provides for the “State to actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:50). In other words, this implies that government institutions should introduce strategies aimed at addressing people’s social and economic needs especially at sub-national levels. This includes establishing governance structures to facilitate service delivery, and ensuring that those who are affected by government policies are encouraged to participate and form part of decision making regarding issues that affect their day-to-day life.



Significantly, the Constitution of Namibia under chapter 12 provides for the establishment of sub-national institutions (regional councils and local authorities) to regulate and manage government functions and service delivery at grassroots levels where the majority of previously disadvantaged people live. Grassroots in this sense refers to institutions and areas, including remote areas, situated farther from central government. It is also used to denote “grassroots people” who constitute the rural segment of society in the Oshana region. This category of rural population, who prior to independence in 1990, were neglected, disadvantaged and marginalised by the colonial regime, need to be provided with basic services and amenities to bring them on par with other citizens who live in urban areas in Namibia. As explained in chapter three, the apartheid regime of South Africa used the system of divide and rule. Namibian people were grouped according to race and colour, and public services provided based on such classification. White people lived in urban areas while other ethnic groups such Owambo, Herero, Damara>Nama and Kavango were confined to rural areas. This arrangement made it possible for the regime to exercise separate governance practices and deliver unequal services to the people in Namibia. This means that people in urban areas received better services while those in rural areas were neglected and had no voice in governance processes. Therefore, by involving grassroots people in governance can afford them an opportunity to decide and elect leaders of their choice who are capable of representing citizens’ needs and aspirations.

In addition, chapter 13 of the Constitution makes provision for the establishment of the Public Service Commission, to control and regulate appointments, promotions and transfers of civil servants in Namibia. Ideally, this means that people who possess the necessary skills and expertise should be appointed and/or promoted to positions of authority to allow proper structures and practices to be put in place in order to promote good governance and improve service delivery. Regarding this issue, Erasmus (2010:98) argues that “good governance is about democratic, open and accountable government”. Erasmus (2010:98), further claims that good governance entails the manner in which the state “exercises authority which result in transparency, certainty, predictability and a culture of justification of State action”. For Erasmus (2010:98), those under the rule of the government must understand the parameter of their rights, the responsibilities of the state organs and officials, and the procedures available when redress becomes necessary.

In order to complement the above-mentioned constitutional provisions and to augment good governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels, various legal instruments were

put in place. These are: the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992, the Public Service Act 1995, and the Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000. As it can be deduced from the afore-mentioned, these legal instruments require public sector officials to apply their mind, and act in the interest of the citizens, by putting in place good governance strategies and practices in order to effectively and efficiently deliver services to the people of Namibia. In this regard, good governance strategies refer to appropriate measures and methods of policy implementation, developing skills, knowledge, competences and capacities of officials in order to produce the outcomes required to meet the needs and demands of the people. Furthermore, practices involve correct rules and standards, directives and values that guide public sector officials' performance. Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms should be put in place. Significantly, accountability, transparency, openness, integrity and honesty should be exercised to promote good governance.

Good governance calls for public officials to possess both political and administrative skills and competences in order to be able to execute their responsibilities in the interest of the people. There is also a need for officials to be conversant with the laws that regulate public service delivery at sub-national levels. Adherence to laws and policies and the correct application thereof enable government officials to identify and address community problems as they arise. According to United Nations (1998:11), in any country around the world, the constitution is the foundation of governance. All other laws must be in line with the provisions of the constitution. In this regard, the United Nations (1998:11) emphasises that, "delegated or administrative law is the result of executive orders, rules and regulations". Therefore, public sector officials who exercise state authority must conform to the provisions of the supreme law in the process of governance and public administration. It is within this understanding that adherence to the constitutional provisions and other related legal instruments are central to good governance and effective and equitable delivery of services. Therefore, in the context of Namibia, public sector agencies and officials are obligated by law to have in place realistic governance structures that are focussed towards achieving national development goals, and strategies and practices congruent to demands and aspirations of the Namibian people.

Contributing to the discourse of governance and democracy in Namibia, Diescho (2000:39) notes that good governance is essentially a necessity if society needs to prosper and progress towards socio-economic development and sustainability. In essence, good governance has its own positive and negative implications, depending on the structures and practices in place.

Therefore, this study argues that good governance strategies and practices especially at sub-national levels require public sector officials to go beyond the mere policy interpretation, implementation and analysis. Public officials must have the capacity to assess the situation on the ground to make sure that services being delivered are accessible and affordable to people. For example, constructing a clinic in a specific community, or putting up water points or electricity across a constituency alone may not be sufficient. Similarly, the allocation of two ploughing tractors in a constituency may not necessarily mean that services have been provided to every member of that community. The main issue here is whether communities have access to, and, can afford those services. It is from this perspective that the study argues that the availability of services alone in a community does not necessarily mean that citizens are using and benefiting from those services. If the services so provided are not accessible and affordable to citizens, it is an indication of lack of prioritising service delivery, and unacceptable governance practices. It can also be considered as the failure by government to meet constitutional provisions in terms of good governance and services delivery. Therefore, there is need to have in place government structures that “discuss developmental matters and not politics” (Sebudubudu, 2010:255), as this can benefit people at sub-national levels. This means that public sector officials need to identify and prioritise issues that relevant to social and economic enhancement, and involve people in planning and designing measures to address those issues. The main purpose of public service is to render services to the citizens and not necessarily to advance political agenda.

The existing governance practices in Namibia seem to indicate mixed evidence on the effectiveness of service delivery in the Oshana Region. While in some areas of service delivery such as potable water, education, health, telecommunication network, old age and vulnerable children social grants, tremendous inroads and achievements have been made in ensuring access of those services to communities, other crucial services such as “sanitation, housing, electricity and road infrastructure remain a huge challenge to regional council and local authorities in the Region” (National Planning Commission, 2011:17). The empirical evidence of disparities in service provisions regarding the above-mentioned services is clarified under chapter five of this thesis. It should be noted that even though the services are provided by central government through line ministries, sub-national governments play a significant role in facilitating and coordinating those services. Intrinsically, regional councils should be involved in all aspects of governance and service delivery because they are located closer to people at the grassroots, and they know where and when basic services are needed. In other words, regional councillors are in

contact with grassroots communities on a daily basis, hence, councillors are likely to possess first-hand, but most relevant information on governance and service delivery needs of rural communities.

The ‘participatory poverty assessment’ which was conducted at the village-level in the Oshana Region between 2005 and 2006 reveals that, after years of Namibia’s independence, a large number of people in rural areas continue to live under poverty (National Planning Commission, 2007:24). The Report further suggests that institutional policy harmonisation and a holistic approach to governance and service delivery are required if government efforts are to make a meaningful impact in people’s lives, particularly in remote areas. The Report concludes that people’s living standards can only be improved if democratic governance practices are put in place. As stated earlier, the people should be consulted and involved in programmes and projects implementation. In this regard, public sector officials at both central government and sub-national levels need to be more accountable and transparent in their day-to-day implementation of government policies (National Planning Commission, 2007:24; Herbert and Gruzd, 2009:22). Accountability and transparency mechanisms ensure that public resources are directed towards solving societal problems and utilised for the purpose they are allocated. In this respect, government programmes and projects are implemented and services are delivered to improve living standard of the people. The nature, scope and extent to which governance and delivery of services are taking place in the Oshana Region are discussed in chapter four, five and six respectively.

It has to be noted that although the above - cited information (participatory poverty assessment report) appears to be outdated, in the absence of new data on regional poverty profile, this information is useful as it provides a broader picture regarding the effects governance practices have on service delivery in the Oshana Region. In this study, therefore, it is suggested that putting in place good governance strategies and practices to implement socio-economic policies at sub-national levels can increase service delivery and consequently improve people’s living standards. It can also increase accountability and transparency in the public service.

To put Oshana Region into context of this study, it is necessary to locate its geographical position in Namibia. Oshana Region is situated in the northern part of the country, 700 km from Windhoek, the capital city of Namibia. Geographically, the Region is the smallest when

compared to other regions in Namibia. It is bordered by other northern regions such as Oshana, Oshikoto, Kunene and Omusati. Despite its small geographical size, the Oshana Region houses three major towns in northern Namibia. They are Ondangwa, Oshakati and Ongwediva town. Economically, this makes the Oshana one of the most attractive regions in terms of job opportunities and better standard of living. In this regard, a high rate of migration is experienced in the Oshana Region especially in the northern parts where towns are located.

Statistically, the Oshana Region has a population of 176 674 inhabitants. This represents 8.3% of Namibia's total population. However, only slightly half the number of the total inhabitants (54%) lives in rural areas of the Oshana Region. The remaining 46% reside in urban areas (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:19; National Planning Commission, 2012:52). The Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:19) also indicates that a large number of inhabitants of Oshana Region include subsistence farmers, pensioners and unemployed youth who might not have other sources of income other than government aid especially during natural disasters such as drought and flood periods.

These categories of population depend on government and its institutions to provide essential services and amenities. It is, therefore, the constitutional duties of government to create favourable environment so that private sector and individuals can create opportunities for people to earn a living. This includes development of infrastructure and programmes that allow Oshana regional inhabitants to be employed in order to earn a living. The central point in this regard is that while it is not entirely the government's responsibility to create job opportunities, government must take the lead by creating an encouraging environment for public-private partnerships (PPPs) to prosper. In this context, public - private partnership refers to a situation where public and private sector work together to identify and implement programmes and opportunities which provide social and economic benefits to people. United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (2008:1) defines PPPs as "innovative methods" that enable public sector to involve private sector in governance and service provisions. In this sense, the United Nations stresses that though PPPs are recommended to ensure proper governance, public sector retains the responsibility for provision of public services (UNECE, 2008:4). Therefore, creating conducive environment involves making appropriate laws and policies which attract and encourage investment. In this regard it is noted that, the lack of essential services and amenities has resulted in people in remote parts of the Oshana Region to migrate to towns where they settle in informal settlements. Some of these migrants have even settled alongside the main

national road between Ondangwa and Oshakati. This points to the fact that, informal settlements are fast growing, resulting in social and economic challenges, not only to the Oshana regional council, but also to other local authorities in Namibia. As reported by Mbangula (2013:2), the Ongwediva town council confirmed that the town is facing multiple challenges from its 28 000 inhabitants including migrants from rural areas. Oshakati and Ondangwa town councils also indicated, in numerous occasions, that the arrival of people from rural areas and other parts of Namibia to settle in informal settlements of these towns has created additional burden on already stretched resources (Shivute, 2013, Government of Republic of Namibia, 2011).

Various studies conducted on good governance, service delivery and population in Namibia (Democracy Report, 2011:2; National Planning Commission, 2007:28; Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, 2008:14) confirm that recent years have witnessed increasing migrants from rural to urban areas, particularly in the Oshana Region. Such studies observe that considerable number of rural people move to urban areas within the Oshana Region on an annual basis. To add, the report of the census conducted in 2001 shows that of the total population in the Oshana Region, 31% lived in urban areas, as opposed to 69% in rural areas (Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, 2008:14). However, the Namibia Census Report of 2011 indicates that 45% of the inhabitants in the Oshana region live in urban areas compared to 54% in rural areas (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:12). This represents an increase of 14% of people who have moved to urban areas in the Oshana region since the 2001 census.

As stated earlier, an increase in number of people necessitates improved governance practices and service delivery to cater for increased demands from citizens. Similarly, increased migrants and immigrants settling alongside the main national road in the Oshana region have lured subsistence farmers in affected areas to illegally sell leased communal land to migrants in order to earn a living. Communal land comprises of a communal area inhabited by the members of a particular community (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2002:3). In accordance with communal land law, communal land is only leased and cannot be permanently owned, thus, individual persons have no rights to sell communal land. Therefore, the selling of communal land is contrary to the provisions of the Communal Land Reform Act 5 of 2002. Section 20 of the Act stipulates that it is only the traditional community chiefs who have “the primary power to allocate or cancel any customary land right” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2002:11). Even so, they must follow set rules and regulations guiding communal land acquisition.

Subsistence farmers are only leasing the land for cultivation of '*mahangu*' crops, and small scale farming, but, under no circumstance are they allowed to sell the land. '*Mahangu*' is a kind of millet cultivated on a large scale in rural areas, and used as staple food by rural communities in Namibia.

It has to be noted that it is not the purpose of this study to discuss communal land aspects. The reference thereto is only made to exemplify how ineffective governance practices and lack of service delivery in constituencies of the Oshana region have culminated in other problems related to communal land. Likewise, the afore-cited studies attributed to the present state of affairs in the Oshana Region, amongst others, to limitations such as lack of enforcing applicable laws and inadequate application of governance practices by both regional and local council authorities. Other limitations are the slow pace under which decentralised functions and policy implementation take place, lack of prioritising much needed services, inequitable distribution of resources to communities across the region; and inaccessibility and affordability of essential services by many rural communities in the Region. All these are governance and service delivery issues that have contributed to high migration and selling of communal land.

This study has taken note that affordability of services might be caused by a number of environments, which are sometimes external to public governance structures. These environments could include slow economic growth and economic performance which can result in unemployment and eventually poverty. This can make affordability a problem to communities. However, as indicated by Hegedüs, Péteri and Tönkö (2013:31), "development literature argues that the affordability problem is also caused by the low efficiency of the services, which is connected to governance factors". Government "incentives/motives, accountability and rule of law" which include "institutional arrangement" (Hegedüs, Péteri and Tönkö, 2013:12) can influence, for example, water or electricity tariffs and ultimately affordability issues. In other words, government laws that commercialise certain services contribute to affordability problem. It has to be noted that water, health and education are basic commodities which people cannot live without. In this regard, commercialisation of one of those services can result in affordability problem. Although, commercialisation could lead to improved governance of public services, it must always be accompanied by reasonable incentives or subsidies to allow people including the poorest of the poor to continue accessing such services uninterrupted.

As the researcher has observed, during visitations made to various locations in the Oshana Region, people such as teachers, nurses, the youth and other public and private sector officials migrated to urban areas within the region. These people settled in towns like Ondangwa, Ongwediva and Oshakati, leaving behind aged people in rural villages. This situation, compounded by poor rainfall in the Region, has decreased food production in rural areas, because people who might have the energy and means to till the soil and produce '*mahangu*' migrated to towns. Niikondo (2010:1-2) argues that "rural-urban migration" is a phenomenon that requires the attention of all stakeholders to be resolved. Therefore, migration is manifested by multifaceted factors which need to be addressed through good governance practices and effective service delivery at all levels of society. In this regard, local authorities such as Ondangwa, Ongwediva and Oshakati need sufficient financial resources to overcome current challenges caused by high rate of migration.

In a broader sense, this migration leaves a huge gap in rural areas in terms of food production, caring for elderly and vulnerable children, and subsequently lack of development of countryside. As stated earlier, this development gap puts pressure on the Oshana Regional Council in terms of accelerating and availing essential services to grassroots people. Similarly, it can be deduced from existing literature that, local authorities are also struggling to cope and accommodate these migrants and provide them with the necessary basic services due to limited resources and other related challenges. Migrants and immigrants settle in informal areas around towns where the land is not serviced, hence, water, sanitation and electricity and housing cannot be provided to them. Furthermore, the majority of them are not employed in order to afford payment of municipal services, and to live in shacks. The latter are unsuitable for connection of water, sanitation and electricity (Niikondo, 2010).

The situation suggests that public sector officials in the Oshana Region, both elected and appointed, need to change the way they conduct government business. As indicated earlier in this section, the government has put in place good governance structures, what is lurking behind are application of good practices and effective implementation of policies by public officials. Commenting on what the Namibian government has achieved since independence in 1990, Diescho (2000:39) states that we should always recognise that a "solid foundation has been laid for good governance in Namibia in [twenty-three] years of its democracy". This foundation provides good framework for public sector officials to correctly use existing governance structures and procedures to implement government policies and deliver much needed services



to all people on equal basis. In this context, this study maintains that good governance strategies and practices are catalysts to acceptable public service performance, active citizen participation, transparency, accountability and eventually fair resources distribution and affordable services to communities. In other words, good governance practices encourage public officials to stay focussed and use state resources wisely in order to benefit the people.

According to the Namibia Labour Force Survey (2008:32) about 52.4% of the Oshana Region's inhabitants live in traditional dwellings, while 11.2 percent live in improvised housing unities/shacks. The majority of these dwellings have neither potable water nor electricity. Proper sanitation is also lacking both in rural areas and informal settlements around local authorities' jurisdictions in the Oshana Region. Lack of sanitation is also highlighted by the Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:78), which indicates that 46.4% of the Oshana Region's population has no toilet facility. In addition, Namibian Labour Force Survey shows that unemployment in the Oshana Region stands at "48.8%, those without jobs who are available for work and looked or did not look for work", and "36.8%, those without jobs who are available for work and actively looking for work" (Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, 2008:32). In essence, this is indicative of situation that needs to be rectified, not only in the Oshana Region, but in the whole Namibia in general. Proper planning and policy priority are necessary to address socio-economic aspects in the Oshana Region. Proper coordination between line ministries and the Oshana regional council is required. Although the recent population and Housing Census conducted in 2011 indicates that unemployment rate in the Oshana Region has slightly decreased to 37.2 percent (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:61), the situation still requires government and regional councils' attention if the living standard of the people in the Region is to be improved. Arguably, the current governance practices need to be revisited. Also, there seem to be deficiencies in the manner public policies are executed in Namibia.

The above-mentioned unacceptable situation in Namibia particularly in areas of socio-economic development, service delivery and poverty at sub-national levels, made the government to allocate N\$14.6 billion, in its 2011/2012 national budget, to address such situation. "Targeted Intervention Programme for Employment and Economic Growth (TIPEEG) was initiated with an effort to create about 104 000 jobs over a period of three years, *i.e.* between 2011 and 2014" (National Planning Commission, 2011:6). TIPEEG is a government strategy aimed at stimulating economic growth thereby promoting job creation to alleviate the problem of poverty in Namibia. TIPEEG aims at promoting social development in the country and integrate previously

economically disadvantaged communities into the country's economic mainstream. The commitment by the Namibian government to create 104 000 jobs within a short space of time provided a challenge to governance structures and its leadership. The problem with this is the failure to indicate how many job opportunities this programme intends to create in each region, including the Oshana Region. TIPEEG allows regional councils to make unguided decisions regarding the number of jobs to be created in their respective regions.

Though it is not the sole responsibility of the Namibian government and its agencies to create jobs, the TIPEEG programme requires regional and local councils to be at the forefront and create favourable environment to ensure that funds allocated for such programme are utilised as intended. Regional and Local Authorities are expected to identify and initiate development programmes in which both temporary and permanent employment can be created National Planning Commission, 2011:6. These programmes can be in areas of housing, sanitation, rural community projects, small and medium enterprises, and road network. All in all, the existing governance practices determine the extent to which initiatives are taken by both politicians and public officials to ensure a conducive environment which lead to job creation by private sector. In this regard, subject to pro-activeness of regional councils, some regions may benefit more than others.

The question whether TIPEEG could manage to address the problem of unemployment and service delivery within a three-year time period is paramount, particularly at sub-national levels. Notably, the government has not managed to create such number of jobs during its twenty two years of existence, *i.e.* since independence in 1990. Therefore, this study questioned the “new governance mechanisms” the government put in place to realise the above - mentioned ambitious intention. It is interesting to see whether the huge amount of taxpayers' money appropriated for TIPEEG programme can put to good use to deliver the expected outcomes. TIPEEG has triggered the researcher's already existing question on the impact of the current governance strategies and practices in the public sector in Namibia on the delivery of services to people, predominantly those at sub-national levels. Basically, this has provided an opportunity for the researcher to examine and analyse the scope and extent to which public sector governance, particularly in Oshana Region, contributed to service delivery, also taking into consideration TIPEEG intervention programmes.

In view of this study, if the current governance practices and the manner public services are distributed and provided in the Oshana Region are not properly addressed, it can result in skewed social and economic development in the Region. Skewed development shifts people from undeveloped areas to areas where development is evident. If skewed development is allowed to continue, high rate of migration might be recorded in few years to come especially in towns and their immediate surroundings in the Region, as well as in areas alongside the main road between Ondangwa and Oshakati. This situation poses a formidable challenge to Oshana Regional Councils and its local authorities, and if not properly addressed, will subsequently place the country on a back-foot as far as the achievement of Vision 2030 is concerned. Rondinelli (2007:8) advises that contemporary governments can only overcome the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century if they “enact and implement policies that create an enabling environment” which provide social and economic support and benefits of all people.

### **1.3 MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH**

Good governance practices and service delivery are the single most important aspects that can improve the livelihoods of the previously disadvantaged citizens of Namibia. They also contribute to socio-economic development of the country. However, governance practices at sub-national levels seem to be poor, while service delivery at grassroots is done at a snail pace. Issues of State funds mismanagement, poor coordination among public institutions, lack of accountability and transparency have been pointed out in various Auditor-General Reports of 2009, 2010, and 2011. During the opening of the workshop for Regional Governors, Chairpersons of Regional Councils, Special Advisors to Regional Governors and Chief Regional Officers in September 2011, President Hifikepunye Pohamba stressed the importance of coordination between these institutions (Smit, 2011:1). Although proper governance structures are in place, regional and local government institutions lack vigorous policy implementation and accountability, poor financial management, and decentralisation of services is slow. Similarly, communication and consultation among public institutions do not seem to be properly taking place, resulting in delay of delivering essential services to communities. Regional and local governance system is not effectively encouraging active citizen participation in issues of governance and service delivery. Furthermore, occasionally non-attendance of important council meetings by regional and local government councillors delays crucial council's decisions, thus denies citizens their constitutional rights to services.

In light of the afore-mentioned shortcomings, the provision of essential services to communities, for example, clean water, sanitation, housing, education, health, electricity and road network at grassroots levels is negatively affected. It must be stated that the Namibian government has in place good policy interventions aiming at ensuring that all citizens including those at grassroots are well taken care of and benefit from government's social and economic development programmes. For example, the government has in place Rural Water and Sanitation Policy, Rural Electrification Policy, Education Policy and Health Policy, to regulate the delivery of those services. In addition, as indicated earlier, regional and local governments were established and eventually the decentralisation policy has been adopted to facilitate government services to people especially the previously marginalised communities. The aforesaid government efforts need to be supported and complemented through good governance practices in order to enhance service delivery, and also to promote public officials' accountability. This institutional arrangement is critical to meeting the needs and expectations of citizens at sub-national levels.

The Constitution of Namibia, Regional Councils and Local Authorities Acts do not make provisions for sub-national levels to make laws and policies. Regional and local government can only make by-laws as determined by their respective Acts. In this regard, sub-national governments only act as implementing agencies of central government. In addition, regional councils in Namibia do not appoint officials but only recommend to the Public Service Commission for the appointment of those officials. This is because Namibia is a unitary state (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:2) and the central government assume full responsibility of directing and overseeing the activities of lower levels of government. This means the centre is vested with more powers than sub-national levels. Fundamentally, this has implications on governance and service delivery at sub-national levels. Other countries, for example South Africa, makes provision in the constitution that "provincial governments are responsible for the recruitment, appointment, promotion, transfer and dismissal of members of the public service in their administrations within a framework of uniform norms and standards applying to the public service" (Republic of South Africa, 1996:20). Significantly, such arrangement can accelerate service delivery to people at sub-national levels, since regional governments can fill positions in a more convenient manner. Another problem is the lack of Constituency Development Fund (CDF) in Namibia (New Era, 2013). The lack thereof delays the implementation of community projects, thus, negatively impact socio-economic progress at grassroots levels. It is without doubt that impartial services can be provided in a proper and

unhindered governance practices environment. This study, equally, suggests that a thorough analysis into aspects of governance and services delivery at sub-national levels need to be conducted to determine and recommend best practices to mitigate the current backlog of services in Namibia.

#### **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Regional and local governance in Namibia are not addressing services to citizens in a manner that is effectively contributing to equitable service delivery at grassroots levels. Government structures lack coordination, transparency and accountability. There seems to be lack of active citizen participation, while slow policy implementation adversely affects public service and eventually service delivery. In addition, some services such as water and health are not decentralised to sub-national levels, and this has negatively affected the livelihoods of rural people especially the previously disadvantaged communities. This study therefore suggests that good governance practices need to be put in place at sub-national levels to enhance community participation, promote transparency and accountability, and thus accelerate service delivery. Furthermore, improved governance practices encourage public officials to focus and seriously consider community needs and expectations in the process of policy implementation.

The existing state of governance practices in Namibia particularly at sub-national levels shows a different picture. The provision of essential services, for example, clean water, sanitation, education, health, electricity and road network is very slow. Rural people continue to endure hardships and travel long distances in order to access the above-mentioned services (National Statistics Agency, 2011:77-78). During state of the nation address in April 2013, President Pohamba acknowledged that many [Namibian] citizens, mainly in remote areas and informal settlements, endure hardships. They have limited access to essential means of survival and amenities. In this regard, the President directed that the government must turn this situation around by addressing the underlying causes of unemployment, poverty and inequality in a comprehensive manner (Office of the President, 2013:6). However, to address the current situation of service delivery in the country requires concerted efforts. It calls for improved governance practices. In this regard, Kaapama *et al* (2007:68) argue that governance practices and service delivery in public sector institutions in Namibia is multifaceted. As such, it requires

coordinated commitments of all stakeholders in order to promote good governance practices among public sector institutions.

Following is a detailed explanation of the elements contributing to lack of good governance practices in Namibia, a situation that has adverse effects on service delivery to communities in the Oshana Region:

The implementation of policies by government structures especially at sub-national levels seems to be slow, while the development of policies is not augmented by effective implementation. This is so as policies are made at central government and implemented at sub-national levels. This requires trust and proper coordination between policy makers and those tasked with implementation of such. In addition, some of the resources including policy makers, form part of the development but are not involved at the implementation stage. This makes it difficult for administrative officials at sub-national levels to effectively translate policy intentions into actions. This creates a gap in the implementation of policies. Another critical issue is the structure through which implementation is carried out. Government structures are not as straightforward as we are meant to believe. Central government still dictate what regional structures should do or not do. Authority lies at the centre and only delegated to regional and local government institutions. Therefore, even though the Namibian government has in place good governance structures and policy interventions to mitigate socio-economic problems in Namibia, their implementation needs to be revisited. This was also noted by Diescho (2000:39-40) who states that the Namibian government should be commended for putting in place good governance framework and structures. Therefore, it is up to public sector officials to ensure effective utilisation of those framework and structures to provide services. Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2013:380) claim that policy implementation needs to be support with sufficient budgets and human resources.

Regional councils including the Oshana Region are still facing daunting challenges regarding governance practices, and the manner and extent to which public services deliver services to citizens. It is noted that lack of transparency and accountability as well as lack of skills and competences have contributed to ineffective implementation of public policies. Funds allocated to ministries for projects are sometimes returned to treasury, because those in position of authority to utilise such money would have failed to do so. Relative to preceded aspects, Kaapama *et al* (2007:7) note that citizen participation in policy implementation is also low

because avenues for such participation are either not available or very limited. For this reason, some development programmes take long to get off the ground to address community problems and deliver much needed services to the people. Numerous factors are attributed to this undesired situation. This study argues that some of the factors are poor governance practices, slow pace under which decentralisation take place, lack of financial resources and the capacity to effectively implement programmes. Consequently, these factors contributed to poor service delivery in the Oshana Region. These issues are discussed in detailed under chapter four of this thesis.

Since independence in 1990 there has been an outcry by people about poor governance and ineffective implementation of policy across public institutions especially at sub-national levels (The Namibian, 2013:2). The 2011 Namibian Population and Housing Census Basic Report reveals that more than 86% of the households in rural areas in Namibia use wood to cook. 16% of households in rural depend on unpurified water from dams, streams and rivers, while an additional 13% use water from unsafe sources (Namibia Statistics Agency 2012:77). In addition, Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:77) indicates that 46.5% of people in the Oshana Region use wood for energy due to lack of electricity. There is also a shortage of housing and sanitation facilities in the Region.

Government institutions lack of good governance practices, transparency and accountability. Sebudubudu (2010:251) points out that “good governance exists where there is responsiveness, equity and consistency” regarding the manner public goods are distributed and shared among members of the society, in particular to the needy. On the same issue, Adetula (2011:13) acknowledges that it is widely accepted that the reason why democratic societies fail is due to poor governance structures and practices as well as the capacity of political institutions. Sub-national institutions lack capacities to deliver and sustain the level of services required by the people. Also, poor transparency and accountability weakens coordination among sub-national agencies to deliver services. Fundamentally, weak institutions have contributed to poor governance and equitable service delivery at sub-national levels in developing countries including Namibia. Lack of favourable governance environment in developing countries coupled with poor institutional capacity and accountability present challenges to democratic principles that are essential to service delivery. Transparency and accountability require both elected and appointed officials to be answerable to the electorate to who service are intended. The rationale behind the establishment of sub-national governments in Namibia in 1992 was to bring

government closer to the people and provide the necessary basic services to grassroots people (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1992:2). Although these governance structures exist, the nature, scope and delivery rate of services need to be revisited to ensure that such services cover all people.

Generally, regional and local government strengthen democracy and decision making process at sub-national levels. As noted earlier, governance at regional government level in Namibia is the responsibility of a combination of centrally appointed civil servants and locally elected councillors. To put it simply, governance and service delivery are duties of civil servants who are appointed by the Public Service Commission on recommendations of the regional recruitment division, and councillors who are elected by citizens in a particular region. This can influence governance practices and service delivery. Civil servants might consider themselves as not accountable to politicians at sub-national levels, while politicians might feel more accountable to electorate than central government. Besides, Totemeyer (1993:6) observes thus “Regional Councils Act 1992 equips regional councils with advisory power only”. Regional councils have neither policy making powers nor budgetary powers. In addition, the National Planning Commission (2007:20) also states that Regional Councils only advise government on social and economic development issues. In this regard, misunderstanding can develop between appointed and elected officials which can have negative effect on the manner and extent to which services are provided in the country. In essence, this situation has a direct impact on democratic governance, transparency and accountability in the Oshana Region. It also inconvenienced people who might need to consult with those offices.

Another problem is poor financial management by regional and local councils. This study argues that good governance requires sound financial management and accountability by those entrusted with the responsibility to manage these meagre state resources. This means that public finance should be utilised only for the intended purpose, and in fact good management of financial accounts and records are important. The Auditor General reported that the Ongwediva Town Council’s accounts report for 2009 reveals “that the council face problems in distributing water to communities, i.e. the council makes a loss on water distribution” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2010:7). Again, “for the year ended 30 June 2011, the auditors could not perform distribution analysis on water due to incomplete information in the council’s books” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2011:6). The Report cites lack of capacity in the council to deal with issues of water distribution and cost recovery. Regarding the Oshana Regional



Council, the Auditor-General Report of 2008 - 2009 also reveals that it was not easy to find some documents that support various transactions due to information that was not available. This entails that there were “no proper procedures in place for preparing, approval and processing journal entries” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2009:2). In the same vein, the Report states that the regional council failed “to keep cash-books at settlement areas”. In addition, “no receipts for payments were available, and debtor cards [cards on which debtor’s transactions are recorded] were not in place” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2009:3). Notwithstanding the above-mentioned shortcomings, the Auditor General’s Report indicates that Ongwediva Town Council’s financial statements for the year 2011 presents a “fairly financial position of the Council and the results of the operations and cash-flow”, and it is in accordance with generally accepted accounting practices (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2011:10). In this regard, the above-mentioned shortcomings might be improved if personnel, particularly those in the finance department, receive training on financial related aspects.

During state of the nation address in 2013, President Hifikepunye Pohamba conceded that it is “an open secret that many local authorities face challenges of governance, which have led to inconsistent and poor service delivery” (Office of the President, 2013:17). The Pohamba (2013:17) further said that the government will put in place “measures to strictly enforce financial prudence requirements for local authorities, promote capacity building and review institutions, staffing and development planning procedures in local authorities”. In essence, this illustrates that at present there is lack of good governance practices which affect the delivery of inclusive services and amenities at sub-national levels.

Decentralisation of functions and services in Namibia is slow. Studies on democratic governance and service delivery, (as discussed by Schmidt, 2009:34; Rondinelli, 2007:17; Katorobo, 2007:242-247), indicated that governments in developing countries are committed to bringing government services closer to the people. However, decentralisation of key functions such as budgeting and policy making power have been slow, hence poses notable challenges. In the Namibian context, decentralisation followed the establishment of regional and local governments in 1992. Equally the coming into effect of decentralisation policy and the enactment of Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000 “allowed government to move closer to the people especially communities at grassroots levels” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1992:2). As professed by Namibian government then, “decentralisation serves as an instrument which allows policy makers and policy implementers to move closer to grassroots people and, to

put in place effective policy inventions to mitigate the problem of poverty hands-on” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2000:4). In other words, public sector officials’ proximity to the populace facilitates informed decision making on issues of governance and service delivery.

Fourteen years after decentralisation policy was implemented, key functions such as finance and policy making powers have not been devolved to sub-national levels in Namibia. Regional and local authorities do have budgetary and policy making powers. These tiers of government rely on central government for finance and policy directives. These setbacks have contributed to delayed appointments of officials to strategic positions. In some areas, key positions such as regional and town planners, as well as civil engineers are vacant or under-staffed, resulting in citizens being denied essential services. The fact of the matter is that Namibia has lack of human resources in those areas, and limited number of available town planners and civil engineers are reluctant to join public service because of poor salary. Since the country’s independence in 1990, some communities in remote areas in the Oshana Region are still trapped under poverty due to lack of capacity and resources from the Oshana council’s side to deliver services (Commonwealth Local Government Forum, 2009:2; Kuusi, 2009; Sinvula, 2009,). This study noted the unitary nature of the State. However, it is also argued here that the primary purpose of the government’s existence is to render services to its citizens. With no doubt, the slow pace under which decentralisation takes place has negative implications on service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia.

Furthermore, as stated earlier in this thesis, it is acknowledged that the Namibian government has put in place proper governance frameworks and structures to facilitate delivery of services and other social amenities to people at sub-national levels (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:53-56). Nevertheless, some communities in the Oshana Region continue to experience difficulties in terms of access to those services and social amenities. According to Shivute (2013:5) the Ondonga Traditional Authority proposed to the Fourth Delimitation Commission hearing that took place in the Oshana Region in April 2013 that they wanted a new region to be created on the eastern part of Oshana Region. Similarly, Shivute (2013:5) reports that Ondangwa town councillors and officials were not pleased that most government offices were moved to Oshakati which is 30 km away from Ondangwa. In other words, officials demonstrated that, Ondangwa being the oldest town in northern Namibia was being turned into a ghost town. It has to be noted that the suggestion to establish another region came out of

dissatisfaction by both officials and inhabitants in the eastern part of Oshana Region who claimed that they do not receive proper services from Oshana Regional Council (Shivute, 2013:5).

It is also important to note that the fourth Delimitation Commission referred to above was instituted by the President Hifikepunye Pohamba to look into the demarcations of regions and constituencies in Namibia. It conducted various hearings with community members in order to come up with recommendations on how best regions and constituencies can be demarcated to be able to manage services delivery to the people. It was during the said hearing, that the Ondonga Traditional Authority raised concerns over services deficiencies, especially in the eastern part of the Oshana Region (Shivute, 2013:5). For example, lack of potable water to some communities, lack of electricity to rural poor, shortage of housing in Ondangwa town, and poor sanitation facilities in both informal settlements and rural areas.

In this regard, it was argued early in this chapter that the problem of affordability of services is caused by multiple social and economic factors. Government may not squarely be blamed for this situation. However, government makes laws and policies; therefore, it is the custodian of those laws and policies. It will be discussed in chapter four of this thesis that unfavourable government laws and policies can to a certain extent have an impact on basic services' availability and unaffordability.

In addition, some school-going children in the Oshana Region are still being taught under deplorable building structures and there is lack of quality educational facilities, while rural people continue to walk long distances to access health facilities (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:25). The "Presidential Commission of Inquiry into the activities, affairs, management and operations of the Ministry of Health and Social Services found out that treatment of patients at state hospital and clinics in the Oshana Region is flawed" (Office of the President, 2012:40). The Report further points out that sick people walk long distance to reach the nearest clinic, and experience long queues before they receive treatment. At Oshakati hospital, sewerage pipes near the maternity ward have been blocked for almost five years and sewerage is constantly running between the surrounding buildings (Office of the President, 2012:40). In essence, poor governance practices result in lack of maintenance which eventually contributed to poor provision of services, in this regard, health services in the Oshana Region. Even though this appears to be a hospital management issue only, in terms of service delivery, it denies hundreds

of people who visit the hospital access to proper sanitation. Based on the preceded argument, these are but some of the problems that placed governance structures and practices in Oshana Region under scrutiny and, in fact, necessitated this study.

Another problem that this study has examined was lack of citizen participation at sub-national levels. Citizens especially the previously disadvantaged communities are not actively involved in decision making due to lack of information on development related issues. This resulted in essential services not reaching the intended beneficiaries in the Oshana Region. Burkey (1993:56) claims that citizen involvement in government programmes and activities is an important component of social and economic development to ensure acceptable services to the people. It also promotes “pride, initiative, creativity, responsibility and cooperation” of those participating in government service delivery processes. In this regard, Burkey (1993:56) argues that “if people are not allowed to participate in government’s activities pertaining to their wellbeing, all efforts to address their respective social and economic welfare will be more difficult, if not impractical”. Mijiga (2001:2) commends that, from the constitutional arrangement point of view, avenues and structures for public participation exist in Namibia. The problem therefore is to arrange such structures in a manner that is properly coordinated to effectively function in order to “strengthen and enhance the capacity of these structures”. According to the National Planning Commission Report (2007:39) the survey conducted in the Oshana Region between 2005 and 2006 reveals that participants in the survey described the concepts good governance as the capacity of government to manage the society and promote development in a democratic manner. Moreover, it entails reciprocal solving of social problems, listening to community members and providing feedback, working together with the people, organising meetings with the people, meeting with people and not waiting until called upon, accommodating majority views and constantly consulting with people. All in all, this can materialise if there is properly functioning and coordinated public participation avenues.

According to Mijiga (2001:8) the workshop held by members of the National Council and researchers from the National Democratic Institute in the Oshana Region in 2000 provided a clear indication of lack of citizen participation in government affairs. For instance, during the workshop in question, a participant commented that little public hearings take place in the Oshana Region. It was also pointed out that those conducting such hearings, in most cases, are ill prepared to produce answers as expected by members of the community. In other words, they are not ready to provide answers to public demands. Moreover, public participation is not taking

place on a regular basis; hence, this situation leads to delay in service delivery. It must be noted that lack of citizen participation in government's activities is not conducive to governance practices and addressing the aspects of service delivery at sub-national levels. If members of the public are not afforded fair and sufficient opportunity to discuss and decide on social and economic issues that affect them, it will have direct impact on governance and service delivery. Likewise, if public avenues for participation are not sufficient and available, citizens cannot be able to voice their concerns. Citizens might think that the government is too remote from them and their demands and aspirations are not properly addressed. In other words, "citizens might feel that they are not afforded sufficient time to voice their opinions" (Mijiga, 2001:8). This is an indication that though avenues for participation exist, public participation is not effective in the Oshana Region.

Burkey (1993:56-57) put it correctly when he advises that in order to deliver acceptable services to the people, people themselves must always be involved. In this regard, institutions for participation must be strengthened to give people an opportunity to participate in governance decisions and services affecting their lives. Providing institutions for public participation can go beyond the mere physical facilities. It involves availing opportunity for capacity building, increasing information sharing and accessibility, community education, and to develop accessible avenues where communities can come together and discuss issues concerning social and economic development related to their wellbeing.

Poor governance and service delivery are exacerbated by ineffective consultation and communication between government structures and grassroots people. Broadly speaking, communication exists between public officials and the citizens at sub-national levels (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1992:50). The problem, however, is that existing communication avenues and procedures are not effective because of lack of avenues for communication in the Oshana Region. Meeting halls are only available in towns. However, there are no meeting halls at the constituency level. Traditional leaders (who could serve as one of the good institutions for communication between ordinary citizens and public officials) in rural areas are not well informed and equipped on issues related to good governance and policy implementation. In addition, civil society organisations are very limited at grassroots level, resulting in fewer advocacies on issues that are directly affecting poor people. Public officials usually make use of radio, newspapers and television to communicate government projects and

programmes to the people. However, there exists a problem in that not every citizen in Namibia has access to these media of communication.

This study acknowledges that the above-mentioned media might be good communication avenues. Therefore, those without access to the afore-mentioned media might be left out in the dark when it comes to regional council's activities and government projects. Confirming this claim, the 2011 Namibia Housing and Population Census revealed that "out of 176 674 population of the Oshana Region 125 053 have access to radio, 51 655 have access to television while 13 737 have access to daily newspapers" (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:347). This situation shows that quite many people in Oshana Region have no access to medium of communication. Basically, this suggests that those without either a radio or television might remain uninformed when public officials announce government programmes related information. In this context, this study argues that in a developing country, such as Namibia, where many people in rural areas have no easy access to electronic and print media, utilising traditional leaders who are closer to the people and community meetings at grassroots might be effective to ensure that government programmes and projects are communicated and made known to all people.

Furthermore, councils' meetings either at regional or local level is poorly attended by councillors. Council meetings are very important tools in running the affairs of towns or the Region as a whole (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2011:3). Councillors bring forth problems experienced by their respective communities in terms of governance, services delivery and general development of the Region. Subsequently, decisions that affect the people are taken at those meetings. In other words, councillors listen to peoples' problems during community meetings, and bring forth those problems for discussion during regional council meetings. To this end, decisions are taken to address those problems. It is within the above context that councillors must attend council meetings and actively participate as representatives of their respective communities. They should be mouthpieces of communities at those meetings.

Notwithstanding the above, the Oshana Regional Council and its local authorities are facing challenges in terms of governance and decision making due to poor attendance of councils' meetings. The Auditor General Report of 2011 revealed that numerous council's meetings at Oshakati Town Council, be they extra-ordinary, ad-hoc or ordinary, have experienced poor attendance by councillors throughout the year (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2011:3).

The Report further indicates that one councillor could remain absent in 3 consecutive meetings. In essence, poor attendance by councillors has an implication on quorums at those meetings thereby creating unnecessary delays in decision making.

Against the backdrop of the above exposition, it is possible that the Namibian government's governance strategies and practices are not effectively and efficiently addressing the problems of service delivery at sub-national levels. Although there seem to be adequate governance frameworks and structures in place, the practical application thereof by public officials needs improvement. Poor governance practices, lack of accountability and transparency, and poor citizen participation, and poor attendance of councils' meetings by public officials have adverse effects on good governance and public service delivery in Namibia in general and in the Oshana Region in particular.

To address the problem as identified in this study, it is recommended in chapter seven that the Namibian government should have in place effective governance practices to enhance good governance and improve service delivery at sub-national levels. In a way, this can accelerate public policy implementation to provide basic services to the needy especially rural communities. Moreover, good governance practices improve public accountability, transparency and increases citizen participation. By and large, the above-mentioned principles are catalysts for efficient utilisation of public resources to ensure effective service delivery to people.

## **1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION**

*What impact does good governance practices have on the delivery of services at sub-national levels in Namibia and in the Oshana Region?*

## **1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This study's objectives are:

- to explore the extent to which good governance practices contribute to service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia in general and in the Oshana Region in particular.
- to provide a broad overview of governance and service delivery, taking into account their effects on the living standard of grassroots communities in Namibia.
- to examine existing governance framework and structures in order to explain their impact on service delivery.
- to analyse challenges related to governance and the provision of services in the Oshana Region.
- to analyse and interpret results, as well as draw conclusions on governance practices and services delivery in the Oshana Region, and to provide recommendations for the improvement of service delivery.

## **1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS AND PHENOMENA**

Key terms which are predominantly used in this study are defined and clarified to provide a succinct and explicit understanding of these terms and the context they are used in this study. Conceptualising and contextualising these terms are indispensable to understanding the basic fundamentals of good governance on service delivery and the need to have an improved quality of life of all citizens. In other words, defining and clarifying key terms are very crucial in any scientific study because it guides potential readers to contextualise the issues under consideration. If readers understand the context in which key terms are utilised they would be able to put the study into perspective. These terminologies are: good governance, democracy, decentralisation, public participation, effectiveness, efficiency, public sector governance, service delivery, Oshana Region and public sector officials.

### **Good governance**

The term good governance signifies a “participative manner of governing that functions in a responsible way based on the principles of efficiency, legitimacy and consensus for the purpose



of promoting the rights of individual citizens and the public interest, thus indicating the exercise of political will for ensuring the material welfare of society and sustainable development with social justice” (Muhith 2007:4). Explaining the term good governance, the Asian Barometer (2009:13) advanced eight proportions that can be associated with principles of good governance. These are: “citizen participation, rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, predictability, equity and inclusiveness and accountability”. Similarly, employing effective and efficient public administration measures is also crucial to good governance practices.

Good governance can be equated to democratic governance. Bertucci (2007:3) claims that democratic governance depends on societal and institutional values and norms. In this regard, Bertucci (2007:3) posits that the State should put in place mechanisms that allow society to exercise its democratic rights, for instance, to participate and elect leaders of their choice. In essence this facilitates society’s compliance to governance practices and procedures. Many African governments have functional constitutions that guarantee respect of citizens’ rights, transparency and accountability. In the Namibian context, mechanisms were in place to promote good governance as well as to encourage transparency and effective delivery of services. Basically, Auditor-General Office, Anti-Corruption Commission, Ombudsman Office as well as various Parliamentary Committees are some of the mechanisms put in place to guarantee transparency, accountability and effective service delivery. All in all, these contribute to democratic governance.

Regarding the above issue, Rondinelli (2007:6) defines governance as the “exercise of political, economic, and administrative authority to manage a nation’s affairs”. Rondinelli further maintains that it is the “complex mechanisms, processes, relationship and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their rights and obligations and mediate their differences”. According to Rondinelli (2007:6) the above-mentioned framework indicates that, the “State is only one of the institutions through which authority is exercised”. In other words, the responsibility of any State might not only be to guarantee political governance but also to engage with society on governance and service delivery if the State is to realise societal goals and objectives.

To put good governance into perspective it is imperative to quote the United Nations Development Programme - UNDP (2006:78) Report which clarifies that: “any definition of governance must relate government to the society as a whole, in terms of its quality and

functions. Governance comprises the traditions, institutions and processes that determine how power is exercised, how citizens acquire a voice and how decisions are made on issues of public concern”.

In the context of this study, the term good governance implies that effective legislative framework and administrative practices are in place and applied by public sector officials to facilitate the delivery of service to citizens. The implementation of realistic governance practices by public officials is strategic to democratic governance. It encourages citizens to participate in design, plan and decision making on issues affecting their livelihoods. Essentially, as alluded to earlier in this chapter, good governance practices are premised on democracy, public participation, decentralisation, effectiveness and efficiency of public sector institutions. The concept and context of good governance is discussed in chapter three of this thesis.

### **Public Participation**

Public participation refers to the involvement of citizens and civil society in the affairs of the government. It is also parallel to democratic participation. Kaapama *et al* (2007:40) define public participation as “the collective engagement and involvement of citizens, individually or collectively, in the public spheres of the society”. Participation is an important component of the “political legitimacy of States” because it facilitates accountability and transparency of state institutions. Keulder (2010:8) sums up the importance of participatory democracy, and in fact citizen involvement in governance by stating that “it adds value to people’s lives” because it promotes responsiveness of the public institutions. However, in Keulder’s view, public participation needs citizens to consistently be conversant with government processes and structures of governance.

Totemeyer (2010:109) clarifies active public participation and involvement, “as an important element of dynamics of local participatory democracy. Whether public participation can take place at community gatherings, through media or open hearings does not matter”. What is important though is that public participation should result in community voice being listened to and heard. The challenge however is to develop mechanisms that encourage people at sub-national levels to participate in local politics.

Participation comes in many forms. These, amongst others, are: political participation - where citizens are encouraged to make decisions and vote political leaders of their choice. Citizens also have the rights to remove elected leaders from power through democratic means. Secondly, economic participation - when citizens are afforded the opportunity to partake in activities leading to economic development of their respective communities. This means that a conducive environment should be created for small and medium enterprises to do well. Equally important is that citizens must also be encouraged to participate in the budgeting processes. Finally, is cultural and social participation whereby communities' involvement in issues at the grassroots level can create social cohesion which brings about the critical sense of belongingness. Generally, participation promotes openness, transparency and accountability. The term public participation and its application are discussed in detailed in chapter four.

## **Democracy**

Democracy is the term associated with governments that are elected to power through democratic means. Keulder (2010:8) argues that for many people, the catchphrase “government for the people, by the people encapsulates what democracy is all about”. Similarly, Denhardt and Denhardt (2009:464) describe democracy as a political process under which the authority to make decisions is the responsibility of all citizens. In other words, government decisions are taken after consultation with members of society. Albritton and Bureekul (2009:3) put it succinctly clear when they assert that, democracy is a procedural indicator of “electoral democracy; universal suffrage, elections registering voter preferences faithfully, unbiased choice among alternatives, and these choices and preferences become the basis for constituting holders of public office”.

Van Der Waldt (2007:25) argues that democracy can be enriched when active participation of members of society is guaranteed. In that sense, accountability, transparency and responsiveness are promoted. Democracy is particularly important at grassroots levels because people who are affected by government's programmes and projects are provided an opportunity to participate in decisions pertaining to service provision in their respective localities. Fundamentally, Van Der Waldt (2007:25) provides the original connotation of the term democracy. It is derived from two “Greek words demos and kratos”. “Demos” means the common people and “kratos” means “rule”. Thus, democracy essentially means “the rule of the common people” (Van Der Walt, 2007:25). All these are ingredients of good governance.

Finally, the term democracy is also dealt with by Tommasoli (2007:52) by explaining that “democracy goes beyond the rule of law and the protection of human rights; it means more than good governance and effective management of public resources”. Making democracy work is not a once off event. It is a continuous process that requires active participation and involvement of both public and private institutions as well as ordinary citizens. Democracy facilitates implementation of good governance practices and increasingly enhances effective provision of basic services to citizens. Democracy can work only if people have due regard for the government of the day. In other words, people respect legitimate governments and comply with their directives. In short, democracy is a “set of political institutions and processes based on the principles of popular control over public decisions and decision makers” (Tommasoli, 2007:52). In a democratic society, citizens elect the government, thus, determine and set the agenda of the government in terms of governance and service delivery. Likewise, citizens also have constitutional power to remove the sitting government through democratic means. In this regard, public officials are compelled to abide to the rule of law, and good governance principles.

### **Decentralisation**

Another term that is essential to governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels is decentralisation. Decentralisation is fundamental to local governance and provision of basic services to local communities. In addition, it brings government closer to the governed. Katorobo (2007:239) defines decentralisation as “the transfer of political, administrative and fiscal authority from the central government” to institutions located at sub-national levels of government. According to Katorobo (2007:239-241) decentralisation can be in the form of delegation of powers and authority to state agencies either at national level or those located at sub-national levels. Secondly, decentralisation can be in the form of devolution which provides “political, administrative and fiscal power” to lower levels of government. Finally, deconcentration “involves transfer of administrative functions, roles and responsibilities within public administration network from national to lower levels” (Katorobo, 2007:239-241). Essentially, decentralisation requires proper coordination among all three tiers of government as well as relentless interaction with community members to whom government initiatives are aimed at. Totemeyer (2010:113) simplifies that decentralisation is part of reconfirming the State’s responsibility. It implies devolution: the sharing and transfer of power from the top to the lowest level. It entails sharing powers and decision making between central government and its

agencies at local levels, such as regional and local governments. Totemeyer explains that with decentralisation “responsibilities are assigned for specified functions within given administrative and political areas”. Conversely, Totemeyer (2010:113) concedes that decentralisation is “more easily decided in a federal State than in a unitary State, where the constitution does not specify which, or whether at all, powers should be decentralised or devolved”. In the Namibian context, however, the situation is different due to the fact that Namibia is a unitary state and powers are defined from the centre, causing decentralisation process to be slow.

## **Effectiveness**

Effectiveness is central to addressing societal needs and aspirations. It is argued that government institutions can only deliver inclusive services if they are effective in their approach. The resources appropriated to public institutions should be utilised to maximum in order to ensure that all citizens benefit from government-led services. Mandl, Dierx and Ilzkovitz (2008:3) explain that, “effectiveness relates the input or the output to the final objectives to be achieved, that is, the outcome”. They further argued that effectiveness in achieving specific objectives is determined by the resources utilised to attain such goals. The outcome referred to above is associated with, and linked to multiple environmental factors. In this regard, this study acknowledged that the term effectiveness might not be easy to assess in terms of governance and service delivery because the final outcomes are influenced by political choice.

There is a link between the term effectiveness and governance and service delivery. As indicated above, for good governance practices to take effect in Namibia, there is need for public sector institutions to be effective in their approach. Jones and Pendlebury (1996:10) define effectiveness as “success in achieving objectives”. In other words, it “relates to goal achievement”, whether the “goals and objectives were achieved within the limitations of allocated resources”. If that is the case, Minnaar and Bekker ask “how much value was created in the process” (Minnaar and Bekker (2005:128). According to Cohen (1993:49) success in public management is a product of the interaction of personality and circumstances. This includes the skilful use of many approaches; structural, political and symbolic to produce movement toward personal goals in specific situations. Cohen (1993:49) further says that the definition of effectiveness varies with different organisational environments, different organisational types and different organisational goals. Each of the functions and the attributes needed to perform those functions vary in different organisational settings.

## **Efficiency**

Since delivery of services to people involves public resources, the issue of prudent utilisation of those resources is paramount. This means, for public institutions to achieve their goals in terms of good governance practices and delivery of equitable services, efficient use of public resources is indispensable. Minnaar and Bekker (2005:128) equate efficiency to the “relationship between the cost and the expedience of transforming inputs into outputs”. The aspects of proper administration of resources must be taken into account as far as public resources are concerned. According to Grandy (2008:1) the concept efficiency denotes that public officials use the cost effective manner to attain the intended outcome. In this regard, alternatives means should be pursued to ensure that maximum results are attained from available public resources. Moreover, Grandy (2008:3) provides that “two early public administration writers such as Morris Cooke and Frederick Cleveland held a broad view of efficiency” regarding use of public resources. This is supported by Van der Meer and Rutgers (2006) who indicate that, “Cooke and Cleveland have argued that “efficiency is a mean of promoting public responsiveness to citizen demands in a democracy”. In this regard, Van der Meer and Rutgers (2006) construe that in view of limited public resources efficiency is the “basic value” in a sense that if it is correctly adhered to it “undergirds and supports the broader values of government activity”, (<https://www2.hawaii.edu/grandy/Writings/efficiencyPaper-PrePrint081308.pdf>). This means that, efficiency is important to governance and service delivery. It has also to be noted that the term efficiency may have broadly different connotations in different study disciplines. In this study it refers to prudently use of public resources to achieve maximum results with limited resources.

## **Public Sector Governance**

The definition of this term is equally important in order to highlight its connection to good governance practices and service delivery. In the context of this study public sector governance implies administration and management of public institutions in a manner that they are arranged and coordinated to provide required services to the people. Even so, the international Federation for Accountants (2013:8) posits that there is no general “agreed upon definition of the term public sector governance”. Definitions provided by various authors seem to be different from one field of study to the other. This causes confusion among those in position of authority to properly steer public sector institutions. Koliba, Meek and Zia (2011:52) also analyse the term and conclude that the public sector reform that took place in the early 1990’s has “coincided with the

new public management movement and the accompanying reinvention and reengineering initiatives tied to it”. Of course this changes the way public sector governance is understood. Basically, this speaks to public sector governance which, according to Koliba, Meek and Zia (2011:52) ascribes “to inter-organisational networks tied to some component of the policy process”. Public sector governance implies considering the entire public institutions environment in which policy framework are interpreted and executed. In this regard, the environment referred to above determined and shaped by rights, rules, preferences as well as human and financial resources that structure political outcomes. Furthermore, Koliba, Meek and Zia (2011:52) argue that public sector institutions can prosper when both policy and operating environments are properly organised and coordinated. In other words, for policy implementation to be successful, it needs good governance practices not only at management level but also among departments that form an institution. In this respect, control and supervision by management ensure effective policy implementation. In addition, it requires both participatory governance and collaborative governance.

Public sector governance implies effective governance of public goods and prompt policy execution. It means that public sector agencies are accountable and transparent in addressing needs and demands of citizens. In the Namibian context, public sector governance carries a historical nuance of divide and rule dated back to decades of colonial occupation. It is on that basis that many people especially those in remote areas lack basic services and amenities. However, after independence in 1990, this was rectified through public sector reform. It was done decisively to ensure that public institutions live up to government’s national development agenda in order to realise Namibia Vision 2030.

To be effective, public sector governance needs public-private partnership. This is possible in an environment favourable for such purpose. “Public and private sector cooperation is a key success factor when it comes to rapid economic growth” (Republic of Namibia, 2012:38). According to Rizvi (2007:85) “governance is a tripartite and shared endeavour in which each sector has its own comparative advantages and specialises in what it does better without detracting from the government’s role as guarantor of social justice”. Rizvi (2007:85) argues that the fact that public sector “control large resources and expertise”, does not necessarily mean they are sufficient to address social problems in society. In this regard, social problems can be effectively addressed if public and private sectors work together and mobilise resources aimed at resolving social issues. However, as indicated above, private sector cannot invest in rural areas where there is lack of

necessary infrastructures. As pointed out by Rizvi (2007:85), various “governments have involved the private and non-profit sector governance - the so-called distributed public governance”. The purpose is to ensure and guarantee continuous and sustainable service delivery.

## **Service Delivery**

Service delivery refers to the continuous process whereby accessible and affordable services are substantially and impartially provided by public sector institutions as well as the private sector to people in Namibia on a sustainable basis. According to McLennan (2009:21) service delivery is commonly understood to mean “the provision of goods or services by a government or other organisations to those who need or demand them”. Such delivery of services by whoever is constitutionally responsible takes into consideration numerous social factors. This includes evenly rearrangement and reallocation of resources, social equality, and improvement of people’s living condition and stimulating economic to ensure service provision sustainability. UNDP (2006:78) states that lack of services and insufficient operating environment have a direct influence on people’s demands for much needed services and amenities. For instance, the more the distance to access services the less the demand for such services. In other words, poor service provision and lack of necessary infrastructures have negative implications on the people’s way of life at grassroots level. Poor rural communities might find it not easy to access medical facilities, send their children to schools, and even to buy the necessary foodstuff.

Katorobo (2007:257) posits that understanding the scope and context of the term service delivery allows public institutions to focus on “what the sub-national government intends or plans to provide, and what the citizens expect to get in terms of the quantity and quality of services rendered”. Moreover, Katorobo (2007:257) suggests that a good approach in the provision of services increases the capacity of public sectors to deliver services as per demands and needs of people. In this regard, the effect of services being provided should be measured to important and well-designed measuring methods to improve the delivery process. Measuring methods includes citizen surveys and polls. In fact, this points to the purpose of this study which is to determine the nature and the extent to which governance practices in Namibia impact service delivery especially at sub-national levels.



In this study, it is argued that service delivery particularly at sub-national levels in Namibia requires public officials to pay special attention to deliverance of essential services. The provision of potable water, health, education, electricity and ensuring food security especially at grassroots level are critical. In essence, this advances social and economic development, and eventually increases Namibia's chances of achieving the 2030 dream. In respect of public service delivery in Namibia, Government of Republic of Namibia (2012:40) indicates that the following strategies and actions were pursued to promote service delivery and accordingly realise the Fourth National Development Plan (NDP4). For instance, the government:

- Reviewed the Public Service Act 1995, to streamline disciplinary processes
- Introduced and enforced performance management across all levels agencies and functions of government.
- Continued focusing on building and strengthening of specialised skills, particularly in project management and leadership.
- Positioned civil service to become an employer of choice that is able to compete head-on with the private sector for skills and talent.
- Reviewed the role of the Public Service Commission to make it easier for the state to compete with private sector for specialised skills.

To put it simply, the Government of Namibia (2012:40) makes it clear that the objective of this public sector reorganisation is to provide “effective, efficient and economically sound service delivery to the citizens of a country”. It promotes the welfare of the society in general, and more importantly, it builds capacity and competences of those entrusted with public authority to effectively and prudently utilise public resources in sustainable manner.

## **Oshana Region**

Oshana Region is one of Namibia's thirteen political and administrative regions which were established through an Act of Parliament - Regional Councils Act (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1992:5). In particular, Section 2 (1) of this Act stipulates that “there shall be a regional council for every region to be known as the regional council for that region”. Oshana Region constitutes the second tier of government in Namibia which situated farther to grassroots level. The rationale behind the creation of Oshana Region is to bring services provided by the government closer to the people. This encourages public participation and state accountability.

This implies that government functions and services which are provided by line ministries are planned, designed and implemented in coordination with the Region. In other words, as a second tier of government, the Oshana Regional council provides an opportunity for citizens to be involved in decision making pertaining to government services that affect them. The establishment of political and administrative regions in Namibia made it possible for decentralised functions and services to be rolled over to the regions. As a matter of fact, the establishment of regions including the Oshana Region promotes democracy, and enhances good governance and service delivery in Namibia.

### **Public Officials**

Public officials refer to persons who are officially appointed by the Public Service Commission to hold positions of authority (power) in the public service of Namibia. Public service mentioned here refers to all national government institutions, including parastatals and public service enterprises. For the purpose of this study, the term public officials includes both political and administrative officials who have an important role to play in terms of governance and service delivery. Public officials especially those located at sub-national levels face a daunting task to ensure that governance practices are compliant with the nature of services being delivered. This is essential to ensure that services such as water, school and health facilities, markets, and public transportation communication are within reach of the people. In this respect, a need exists for public officials to remain focused and responsive to the real aspirations and needs of citizens. The UNDP (2006:65) could not make it more clear by stating that “from an institutional perspective, poor service delivery arises when public officials have wide and uncontrolled authority, little accountability and perverse incentives, or when their accountability responds to informal rather than formal forms of regulation”. Public sector officials need to familiarise themselves and understand legislative frameworks governing government practices and the delivery of services. They need to be exposed to all aspects of governance and service delivery, through formal and informal training. Best of all, public sector officials must be well conversant with rules and regulations guiding institutions they are entrusted to manage. While it might be impractical to have all public sector officials knowledgeable in all aspects of governance and services delivery, effort must be made to ensure that people with required skills and competences in regional and local governance are employed.

In summary, the definitions and explanations of the afore-mentioned key terms help to understand the nature, scope and the context of this study. By explaining these terms it provides a clear picture as to how and why they are fundamental in the context of this study. This study, therefore, maintains that good governance practices are fundamental catalysts to services provision to people in Namibia especially the previously disadvantaged grassroots communities. In this regard, good governance principles such as democracy, rule of law, public participation, decentralisation, accountability, transparency, effectiveness and efficiency are indispensable to the manner and approach government assumes in shaping citizens' destiny. However, while public sector institutions are expected to remain efficiency in dealing with public resources, such expectations should not overshadow effective delivery of services to the citizens.

## **1.8 CHAPTER OUTLINE**

This section provides a brief sketch of chapters contained in this thesis. The study consists of seven chapters that discuss aspects of governance and service delivery. These chapters discussed issues that are relevant to this study under the following headings: Overview of the study, research methodology, conceptual framework of the study, literature review, findings, analysis and interpretation of data, and, finally, summary, conclusions and recommendations.

### **Chapter 1: Introduction and Background of the Study**

Chapter one introduced the thesis, and provided an overview and background of the study. Fundamentally, it provided an overview of governance, good governance and service delivery. Chapter one presented the motivation for research, research problem statement, research question and research objectives. Chapter one also provided definition and detailed explanation of key concepts to provide an explicit understanding of the nature and the context in which these key concepts have been used in the study. Finally, it provided an outline of the chapters contained in the study.

### **Chapter 2: Research Methodology**

Chapter two provided an explicit explanation of the research design and methods utilised to collect primary and secondary data needed to put into perspective governance, good governance

and service delivery in Namibia. The research population, research sampling as well as the research instruments and their relevance to the selected research method have been indicated and explained. Chapter two also provided an explanation of the methods and procedures used to analyse and interpret data. Research instruments' reliability and information validity have been explained. Finally, chapter two concluded by discussing the research ethical aspects, and explication of research limitations encountered in the course of this study.

### **Chapter 3: Conceptual Framework of the Study: Relationship between Public Administration, Governance and Service delivery**

Here the conceptual framework of the study is provided and the relationship that exists between public administration, governance and service delivery is discussed in detail. In this respect, and in relations to the purpose of this study, chapter three discussed the Constitution of Namibia, the Regional Councils Act, the Local Authorities Act, Decentralisation policy, and the Anti-Corruption Commission and Ombudsman. In the context of Namibia the afore-mentioned are the legal frameworks for governance and service delivery. The Mercy Corps Good Governance Framework Model is also discussed analysed and applied to Namibian context. This enabled the researcher to suggest a governance model which can best address governance and service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. Finally, chapter three discussed values and principles which this study suggests as ideal for good governance and service delivery at grassroots levels.

### **Chapter 4: An Overview of Governance and Service Delivery**

Chapter four reviewed literature to provide a detailed theoretical framework on public administration, good governance and service delivery. In this regard, key variables of the study, *viz*, public administration, governance, good governance and service delivery have been extensively analysed and discussed. Chapter four analysed the governance and service delivery in the Sub-Saharan Africa since the independence of African states. It also discussed the prospect of governance and service delivery in Namibia since the country's accession to democracy in 1990. Both primary and secondary sources are reviewed to succinctly understand, describe and explain the key variables under consideration.

In addition, chapter four also discussed urban expansions and rural migration at sub-national levels and their unintended effects on good governance and service delivery were discussed.

Finally, chapter four discussed administrative and governance challenges facing governance structures at sub-national levels in Namibia.

### **Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Interpretations on Governance and Service Delivery in the Oshana Region Case Study**

Chapter five analysed, interpreted and discussed data collected during fieldwork in the Oshana Region from July 2013 to May 2014. In this regard, chapter five provided empirical evidence on governance practices and actual service delivery, as pointed out by respondents in the Oshana Region. Moreover, empirical evidence collected in the Oshana Region revealed that progress has been made by the Government of Republic of Namibia in terms of service delivery. It also indicated the challenges encountered since the inception of regional councils in 1993. In terms of data analysis and interpretation, the researcher was able to draw conclusions of the study, and put forward recommendations as indicated in chapter seven.

### **Chapter 6: Research Findings and Discussions on Governance and Service Delivery Situation in Namibia**

This chapter has analysed and discussed the actual governance and service delivery situation in Namibia. It provided a broad, but yet explanatory, findings on the governance practices and performance of each of the selected areas of service delivery. This chapter provided statistical information on service delivery which indicated both successes and shortcomings in each area. Chapter six also provided the actual service delivery in the Oshana Region as indicated in various government reports.

### **Chapter 7: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations**

Chapter seven is the last chapter of the thesis. It provided the abridged summary of the study. In the same vein, it also drew conclusions based on conceptual framework, literature review and analysis of empirical data. This chapter provided recommendations in order to assist beneficiaries of this study. In this regard, the beneficiaries are academics, political office-bearers, administrative officials, community activists and the general public. Against the backdrop of the afore-mentioned exposition, it is suggested in this chapter that if the recommendations are properly considered and applied by beneficiaries, they may result in improved governance

practices in public sector institutions at sub-national levels in Namibia. Finally, chapter seven proposes potential areas of future research.

## **1.9 SUMMARY**

As it can be construed from the presentation of chapter one, the central aim was to provide an overview of governance and service delivery in Namibia. Chapter one introduced and provided detailed background of the study. The motivation for research, problem statement, the research questions and objectives have been explained and discussed. Significantly, chapter one clearly indicated and suggested that good governance practices are central to service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. To conceptualise this issue, chapter one defined and extensively explained key terms which appear and are utilised in this study in order to avoid misinterpretation of those terms by potential readers of the thesis. Finally, chapter one concludes by providing brief outline of chapters that form part of this thesis. Having concluded chapter one, the next chapter, that is, chapter two follows. This chapter discusses and explains the research design, techniques and the methodology utilised in this study to collect data necessary to address the problem statement and achieve the research objectives.

## CHAPTER 2

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on research design, approach and the methodology used to collect and analyse data in order to achieve the study objective. It also explains the research population, sample and sampling procedure. This is an exploratory study that examined and analysed how good governance practices by public institution officials can improve the delivery of services at sub-national level in Namibia, using the Oshana Region as the case study. The scope and nature of this research required that empirical data are collected, analysed and interpreted in order to put into perspective and explain governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana region. This chapter, therefore, provides a systematic research approach and methodology utilised to collect information necessary to answer the research question so as to address the identified research problem statement. A case study approach was employed. Qualitative research method was used to collect qualitative data from the selected case study.

The purpose of collecting qualitative data was to obtain insiders' view on governance and service delivery. Insiders in the context of this study refer to public officials and ordinary community members who are directly affected by governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. The collected data was scientifically explored, examined and analysed in chapter five of the study in order to explain governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Brynard and Hanekom (2005:36) argue that "research methodology, as a group or body of collection, requires reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the study to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity". Likewise, Mouton (2011:3) maintains that research methodology explains the technique, method, process as well as the type of research instruments and measures to be utilised to successfully achieve the objective of the study.

Furthermore, this chapter explains and discusses the study design, method and the methodology utilised. It also explains the research population, sample and sampling method, the kind of instruments utilised to collect data, and how such data was analysed, validated before a final report was written. Chapter two explicates the scope and the boundaries of the study. Finally, the chapter explains why this study is significant, and then spells out ethical issues which were considered and adhered to throughout the research process.

## **2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Academic research requires that a correct and relevant research design is selected and utilised to ensure a successful completion of the study. In the context of this study, research design denotes a systematic approach and procedures used by the researcher to collect data in order to put into perspective issues under consideration. The issues referred to above include governance practices and service delivery. These issues were properly evaluated, and information was collected in order to determine the nature, scope and the extent to which they affect the wellbeing of the people in the Oshana Region. It must be noted that governance and service delivery are social issues that require knowledgeable, experienced and competent public sector officials to execute them. In the same vein, these issues also need citizens' involvement and participation if public service is to meet its social and economic obligation. Thus, to understand and explain governance practices and service delivery aspects, an explicit exploration and description as well as proper analysis were necessary. For this reason, qualitative research design is utilised to collect data necessary to answer the research question and eventually address the research problem.

It is pointed out in the introductory paragraph that this study is exploratory which mainly utilised qualitative research method. As discussed in chapter one, the purpose of this research is to evaluate governance practices and service delivery in Namibia, particularly at sub-national levels, using the selected case study of the Oshana Region. This selected research design was necessitated by the nature and type of data to be collected and the problem statement to be addressed. The research problem identified in this study does not only require extensive examination of the issue under consideration, but it also needs scientific exploration of themes in order to provide an in-depth understanding of those issues, and to explain the extent to which good governance practices impact service delivery in the Oshana Region. However, where



extremely necessary, the observation technique was also utilised. This is important to provide descriptive notes on issues that might have been observed but not properly noted during personal interviews. Observation notes address the caveat of insufficient time to listen and take comprehensive notes during face-to-face interviews. Furthermore, this study also takes into account that the Oshana Region is geographically a large area in terms of conducting research of this magnitude. As discussed under the section on “research limitations”, the study could not cover all corners of the Oshana Region within the set time period available. It must be noted that it requires time and resources to collect data from as many respondents as possible. Against the above exposition, different data collection techniques were used. For example, some personal interviews were conducted at public offices, community gathering venues, while others were held at houses and homesteads of respondents respectively. In summary, all interviews were qualitative in nature.

Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011:278) describe the use of qualitative design as useful method to gathering data necessary for descriptive and analytic study. In this regard, the use of this research method can “create a synergistic research project in which one technique enables the other to be more effective” (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2011:278). Against the above explanation, qualitative design enabled the researcher to ask questions such as: What is good governance? How do governance practices impact service delivery? Why are the availability and accessibility of basic services in the constituency influence people’s livelihoods? In the same vein, this research technique assisted in understanding and answering questions such as, what governance structures are in place in the Oshana Region to augment service delivery? What government services does the Oshana Region provide to community at grassroots levels, and how do communities in the Region embrace such services? Though, not the purpose of this study, Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011:280-281) advise that researchers can also use “mixed methods” for triangulation and complementarity purpose. In other words, mixed methods are employed in the service of assisting the researcher’s total understanding of the research problem. However, in the case of this research, and due to the descriptive nature of information needed to put the study into context, only qualitative method was utilised.

Exploratory study, as a method of investigative research, gained momentum in social sciences research. It provides good ground for thorough examination of social issues in order to generate information necessary to contextualise the situation under investigation. In particular, issues related to governance and service delivery can be understood better through evaluative and exploratory study. Essentially, the approaches referred to above suit qualitative research design. Bachman and Schutt (2011:43) define exploration as a method used in research to investigate social phenomena without prior expectations, to develop explanations of them. Likewise, Heigham and Crocker (2009:141) maintain that the weight of the exploratory study is typically given to qualitative data, because it provides the foundation for the qualitative exploratory on the topic. Other authors such as Snape and Spencer (2012:28) could not be far from reality when they explain that exploratory study is concerned with determining and explaining why certain things happen and the conditions and circumstances that make them happen. Accordingly, Snape and Spencer (2012:28) argue that, “qualitative research provides a unique tool for studying what lies behind, or underpins, a decision, attitude and behaviour” because the method enables researchers to analyse the topic intensely and profoundly.

It is mentioned earlier in this chapter that scientific research is a logical method of enquiry which allows society to resolve social issues which affect community’s daily life (Stringer (2007:1). Significantly, the research methodology utilised in this study involves the application of various techniques that are appropriate to develop scientific understanding of governance practices and service delivery issues. Essentially, the research methodology provides a clear research path in which all aspects regarding the topic and problem statement are identified, and data are collected, analysed and interpreted to explain how things appear the way they are. In this regard, possible solutions are suggested to address the problem concerned. In the same context, Stinger (2007:2) posits that researchers are expected to use “applying scientifically derived expertise” in order to recommend solutions to multiplication of social and public issues that impact citizens’ welfare. The above clarification reveals that a correct research method should be employed to bring about acceptable outcomes. Summarising the above, Naidoo (2004:43) accepts that qualitative scientific research usually “follows a traditional research approach of presenting a problem, asking a question, collecting data to answer the question, collecting data and answering the question”.

Exploratory research also suits the case study approach utilised in this research. To understand issues put forward in this study, it requires an inductive approach. This means one starts with the general conclusion, and then works through such conclusion to determine whether it is applicable to the conditions under research. For example, in the context of this study, bad governance practices contribute to poor service delivery. However, in addition to bad governance practices there might be other contributing factors. These factors can only be known through proper data analysis and examination. Although induction reasoning has been criticised by many authors, for example, David Hume's (1739) "problem of induction", published in his book "*Treatise of Human Nature*". Yes, Hume (1739) did not use the concept "inductive" but instead wrote on "deductive and probability reasoning". It is from the probability reasoning that contemporary writings derive the concept "induction reasoning. It must be mentioned that as research evolves, induction reasoning becomes important in research because it allows scholars to dig deep into exploratory aspects to ensure that inductive argument leads to reliable outcomes. Bernard (2011:7) concludes that exploratory research is inductive in nature. The scenario provided earlier, suggests that bad governance practices contribute to poor service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. However, for this study to provide a clear understanding in that regard, descriptive information is needed to contextualise the above argument. As expound above, such assumption cannot be reliably true until all relevant information is made available to explicate such argument.

Therefore, qualitative approach is necessary to explore the situation at hand in order to generate information necessary to describe and explain why and how governance practices have direct effects on service delivery and vice versa in the Oshana Region. The advantage of this kind of research approach is that the researcher can be able to converse with respondents in one-on-one situation and obtain the required information. Stewart (2002:132) argues that "qualitative research method is appropriate to exploratory study as it yields the required results". As indicated earlier, this qualitative method requires inductive reasoning to generate theories (– See early explanation in this regard). Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:203) defines inductive reasoning as process that "proceeds from the specific to the general and from empirical data to theory". Fox (2011:429) explains that induction is of particular importance in qualitative research approaches. It lies behind any effort to generate general statements based on observations or efforts to develop theory from empirical data. For example, interview or ethnographic data (particularities) may be used to propose broad understanding or theories (generalities) that are intended to apply beyond the sample of participants interviewed or

observed. Moreover, Fox (2011:429) stresses that whenever such general statements are made; inductive reasoning is required to explain the relevance and reliability of such statements. Significantly, Fox (2011:430) agrees that in social science research, inductive reasoning is of particular relevance in qualitative approaches that are used to extend existing theory into a new setting or to develop understanding and theory where none currently exists.

Whatever, the time frame and limitations were, exploration of the issues under consideration was done in an environment where they are taking place. In other words, the researcher visited selected public officials and ordinary community members in the Oshana Region and interviewed them respectively on governance practices and service delivery issues in the Region. Significantly, the case study approach and the research design made it practical. Brink, Van der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:110) cannot put it clearer by stating that, a “case study is an in-depth study of an individual, a group of individuals or an institution”. Notably, while case studies offer important amounts of descriptive data, in addition, they also provide explanatory information. This means that case studies are useful in explaining the reasons of why phenomenon takes place as well as describing it. In this regard, case studies are helpful in studying the why and what of the phenomenon. Essentially, by means of case study the researcher could be able to examine, analyse and determine the impact of existing governance practices on service delivery in the Oshana Region. As portrayed under chapter one of this study, good governance practices by public sector agencies are critical to addressing people’s needs. Good governance practices promote democratic exercises, stakeholders’ collaboration and also influence equitable distribution of state resources. Detailed discussions of the significance of good governance practices and their influence on service provisions in Namibia especially at sub-national levels will be provided in chapter four.

Moreover, qualitative investigators begin by collecting detailed descriptions of behaviour, and then examine those descriptions for patterns or trends that might explain the situation (Stewart, 2002:132). Qualitative is a helpful method of inquiry, as it can be used to investigate the dynamics of how things work. Qualitative designs contribute to an understanding of results by exemplifying the several kinds of impact and consequences which develop from policy environment and the manner they arise.

Qualitative data is defined in Ridenour and Newman (2008:20) as “detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interaction, observed behaviours, direct quotations from people about

their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts and excerpts or entire passage from documents, correspondence, records, and case histories”. In this sense, qualitative method is used to examine naturalistic human behaviours. Naturalistic implies studying subjects in their natural locations. In other words, qualitative research design has provided an opportunity for the researcher to receive more insight on how people in the Oshana Region think, accept and perceive the services being delivered to them by public sector institutions. In essence, this entails a natural perspective of persons in a particular setting. In short, the researcher has observed individuals behaviour as they ordinarily do in their natural settings. According to Berg and Lune (2012:3), “qualitative research refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of things”. Basically, it helps the researcher to get a clear picture of the practices, processes and extent to which good governance practices increase service provisions and advance people’s living standard in the Oshana Region.

Heigham and Crocker (2009:70) maintain that the methodology being used should be appropriate to allow easy collection, interpretation and analysis of data. As such the selected research method helped the researcher to analyse and interpret collected data, draw conclusions and present recommendations. Accordingly, Heigham and Crocker (2009:75) postulate that the benefit of qualitative research method is that it involves studying phenomena in their natural habitat and therefore confirming Ridenour and Newman definition. In Heigham and Crocker’s (2009:75) view this research design “yields results that are more true to life and can be generalised to similar situations”. Qualitative research method can also be used to obtain complete and detailed views of subjects of study and offer well defined information. Charmaz (2011:24) mentions that “qualitative research permits the researcher to follow leads that emerge throughout data collection process”.

From the onset it is important to mention that this study has taken into consideration the limitations created by limited data (as discussed under section 2.7) in Namibia on governance and sustainable service delivery. This is so because literature on regional and local governance practices and service delivery is either outdated or limited. On the other hand, this study also takes cognisance of great efforts that are currently being made, especially by academic researchers in the country, to contribute to this field of study. Significantly, lack of available data posed challenge on the methodology used in this study. For example, most literature on governance practices and policy implementation as well as service delivery, were collected from textbooks, academic theses and reports of other countries. As discussed later in this chapter,

literature, reports and discussion papers (though limited) on Namibian governance were also consulted and utilised. In fact, this enables the researcher to apply governance and service delivery models on Namibia, and develop strategy that can be implemented to promote governance and service delivery.

Regarding data collection, personal interviews (structured, semi-structured and unstructured) and the observation methods are useful data collection instruments which were used in this study. This made it possible for the interviewer to pose probing questions in order for respondents to clear certain issues related to governance practices and service delivery. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with some public sector officials while unstructured interviews were conducted with ordinary members of community. Respondents include: the Oshana Regional Governor, Constituency Councillors and Local Authority Councillors, administrative officials, civil society organisation officials, community leaders as well as ordinary members of society in the Oshana Region. As it explained later in this chapter, the above-mentioned respondents are important sources of information regarding governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

The Governor is the political head of the Oshana Region. The Governor is appointed by the President in accordance with the provision of “Section 2(1) of Special Advisors and Regional Governors Appointment Amendments Act 15 of 2010” (GRN, 2010:2). The Oshana Regional Governor is the representative of the central government and serves as mediator between central government and the Oshana Regional Council on political, social and economic aspects. In total, 338 respondents were selected for data collection purpose. As already mentioned, these categories of respondents determine governance strategies and practices used to deliver services, and also affected by service delivery respectively. Constituency and Local Councillors make policies and by-laws while administrative officials implement government’s policies to ensure that essential services are delivered to communities. In addition, ordinary members of the community are beneficiaries of governance practices and services being delivered.

Data collection instruments, for instance, interviews and observations which have been used in this study are appropriate to exploratory approach and qualitative design that were selected. These instruments generate sufficient qualitative data needed to answer the research questions in order to address the problem statement (Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg, 2009:110-113). In essence, this explains that in order to contextualise data collected through literature review;

empirical data were also collected through structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews with selected respondents in the Oshana Region. It was indicated earlier that respondents of this study include public officials (elected and appointed officials), traditional leaders and ordinary members of the community. Public officials are directly involved in governance of public institutions and service delivery to citizens, while community leaders and ordinary members of the community are direct beneficiaries of the services being delivered. So, the types of qualitative interviews utilised in this study enabled the interviewer to “initiate questions and pose probes in response to interviewee’s descriptions” (Berg, 2004:79). It must be borne in mind that even though interview questions were prepared prior to conducting interviews, necessary and detailed information can only be solicited through probing questions. In this regard, information collected from these categories of respondents has provided an insight into governance and service delivery situation in the Oshana Region.

As indicated in the introductory section, this is an exploratory study that used qualitative research method to examine and analyse governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. To put this into context, the identified problem statement requires a clear explanation of the situation at hand so as to elucidate why good governance practices are considered as fundamental catalysts to inclusive service delivery in the Oshana Region. As such, an exploratory study seems appropriate for such purpose. The relationship between exploratory study and qualitative research method is also discussed by various authors such as Brink, Van der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:111), Snape and Spencer (2012:29), Bachman and Schutt (2011:43), Heigham and Crocker (2009:142), and Berg and Lune (2012:3). Also contributing on this issue are Babbie and Mouton (2010:74) who observe that whereas “research design is a plan or blue print of how the research is to be conducted, research methodology refers to systematic methodological and accurate execution of that design”.

It must be noted that the objective of this study is not necessarily to be confined to discussing in detail those legal frameworks that are in place in Namibia to regulate governance structures, but rather, to explore and evaluate the existing governance practices in the Oshana Region. The underlying principle is that once good governance practices are put in place and effectively and efficiently implemented, it is suggested that they can enhance service delivery, thereby improve the living standard of the previously disadvantaged and marginalised people at grassroots level in Namibia. In this regard, and due to the scope and nature of this research, qualitative research method was used. This confirms Bachman and Schutt’s (2011:253) explanation that qualitative

study allows the researcher to utilise structured, semi-structured and unstructured questions in order to obtain “in-depth information on the interviewee’s feeling, experiences and perceptions”. This point is also argued by Heigham and Crocker (2009:70) when they maintain that the methodology being used should be appropriate to allow easy collection, analysis and interpretation of data. To sum up, this study suggests that the selected research instruments fit the research design, and hold advantages of collecting information necessary to accomplish the objectives of the study, and produce the required results and/or findings.

### **2.3 OSHANA REGION CASE STUDY APPROACH**

It is indicated in chapter one that this study selected and made use of the Oshana region as the unit of analysis from which data was collected, analysed and interpreted in order to write a report. This study acknowledges that the case study though geographical small in comparison to other regions in northern Namibia, it was not easy to collect data within the time frame indicated in this study. Some constituencies are so vast and sparsely populated. It will be explained in this chapter that time and financial resources limited comprehensive collection of data. However, the case study in question provided an advantage position and guaranteed accurate data. Stake (2012:119) observes that case studies are common way to do qualitative inquiry and is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011:256) argue that case study is an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, programme or system in a real life context.

In this regard, Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011:256) underline that the primary goal of the case study is to generate in-depth understanding of a specific topic, programme, policy, institution or system to generate knowledge and/or to inform policy development, professional practice and civil community action. Thus, the study made use of what Matthews and Ross’ (2010:128) call a ‘representative or typical case study’. In this sense, a case study has been selected because it is seen to represent many other similar cases in the Namibian context. In this regard, the study attempted to explain and put into context the claim that bad governance practices in Public Service contribute to the delivery of poor services in Namibia. By contrast, the study provided an in-depth understanding of the extent to which good governance practices augment the provision of much needed services, especially the previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities at grassroots level in Namibia. In that way their living standard will be improved. Within this scope of understanding, case study researching involved visiting specific sites and



locations in Oshana Region, and interacted with people through interviews to obtain information needed to answer the question and address the problem statement.

Clayman and Gill (2004:589) posits that human interaction lies at the very heart of social life. It is primarily through interaction that children are socialised, culture is transmitted, language is put to use, identities are affirmed, institutions are activated, and social structures of all kinds are reproduced. In other words, it is through human interaction that a researcher gets relevant information to address the research question.

Yin (2003:12) argues that the essence of a “case study is that it tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions as to why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result”. In other words, case study examines current issues to explain why they are the way they are and what can possibly be done to change or improve them. Moreover, Baxter and Jack (2008:554) acknowledge that, “the hallmark of case study research is the use of multiple data sources, a strategy which also enhances data credibility”. In this regard, “potential data sources may include, but are not limited to, documentation, archival records, interviews, physical artifacts, direct observations, and participant-observation”. In case study, information collected in this way is put together in an analytic process and not necessarily individually processed. Also, Notably Baxter and Jack (2008:554) confirm that unique in comparison to other qualitative approaches, within case study research, investigators can collect and integrate other techniques, which facilitate reaching a holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied. Accordingly, Baxter and Jack (2008:554) posit that, “each data source is one piece of the puzzle, with each piece contributing to the researcher’s understanding of the whole phenomenon”. Employing the correct method of data gathering ensures reliable and credible information and eventually provides clear understanding of the case. However, Baxter and Jack (2008:554) indicate that “although the opportunity to gather data from various sources is extremely attractive because of the rigor that can be associated with this approach, there are dangers. One of them is the collection of overwhelming amounts of data that require management and analysis. Often, researchers find themselves lost in the data”.

This study argues that the use of a case study research provides a clear insight on the nature and scope of governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Therefore, using a case study provides opportunity to determine the roots and causes of bad governance practices and lack of service delivery in various constituencies in the Oshana Region, thus, appropriate recommendations will be made to address the situation.

According to Shank (2006:126) a case study, by its nature, turns away from the typical and toward the unique. To understand the typical, one really should do a survey. To understand an individual in depth, regardless of why, one needs to sit down and talk and listen to that person (Shank, 2006:126).

Lee and Fielding (2004:540) describe the use of a case study in research as an important strategy of gathering data. In this regard, Lee and Fielding (2004:540) make the following observation:

- identify the phenomenon you want to explain;
- formulate a rough definition of that phenomenon;
- formulate a working hypothesis to explain the phenomenon;
- study one case;
- ask whether the facts of this fit your initial hypothesis; and,
- If the answer is ‘yes’ go on to study the next case. If the answer is ‘no’ either redefine the phenomenon to exclude the case or formulate your working hypothesis.

Arguably, the above observations informed the method, nature and the extent to which this study will deal with the identified problem statement. In this regard, it helps to define, discuss and explain governance practices and service delivery situations in the Oshana Region, in an attempt to prove the given hypothesis.

According to Ridenour and Newman (2008:74) case study data come from strategies of information collection, and involves assembling raw case data, constructing the case record, and writing the narrative. Also, Ridenour and Newman (2008:74) refer to Stake and Patton, well-known advocates of “naturalistic inquiry, who considered validity to be an advantage of case studies because of their compatibility with readers’ understanding. In other words, case studies seem natural as data is collected from people who are directly affected by the issue being studied. In fact, Patton (2002:39) maintains that qualitative designs are naturalistic to the extent

that the research takes place in real-world settings and the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest, for example, a group, event, program, community, relationship, or interaction. In light of the above, “naturalistic inquiry involves fieldwork that puts one in close contact with people and their problems” (Patton, 2002:49).

Ridenour and Newman (2008:75) argue that case study methods have potential for increasing validity for several reasons. These, amongst others, are:

- *“First, because multiple data-collection techniques are used, for example, interview, document study, observation, and the weakness of each can be counterbalanced by the strengths of the others, methodological triangulation.*
- *Second, validity may be increased by checking the interpretation of information with experts. In the context of this study, it can be subject experts (academics) or technocrats with vast experience in governance and service delivery.*
- *Third, case studies generally have a variety of data sources. There should be a structural relationship among these sources. A nomological network should evolve from the empirical material the researcher gathers. A nomological network is a theoretical framework that represents the basic features of a construct, their observable manifestations, and the interrelationships among them (Peterson and Zimmerman, 2004:130; Cronbach and Meehl (1955:290).*
- *Fourth, using a scientific method in which the researcher hypothesises something about the case and collects data to determine if the hypothesis should be rejected could add to validity and also help future researchers to determine starting places for their research. Similar to theoretical sampling, this foreshadowing from data leads the researcher to new understandings”.*

The above mentioned approaches to case study lean towards contextualise issues under study, provide in-depth descriptive information and subsequently improve understanding of the case study.

In the opinion of Pickard (2008:85), case studies are not as simple to define as many other research methods, because of the nature and form of the method. A case study can be both the process engaged in to investigate a phenomenon and the written output of that investigation. This implies that a case study involves both the fieldwork and the report of that fieldwork. Furthermore, Pickard (2008:85) says that case study research is the method designed to study the particular within context and has a very specific purpose. The term has been used very broadly to cover as far wider remit than is appropriate. In this premise, the case study has unfortunately been used as a “catch all” kind of anything that does not fit into experimental, survey or historical methods.

According to Pickard (2008:90) “the major advantages of case studies are that they facilitate confirmation or refutation of emerging themes as the researcher becomes aware of them before vacating the site and can adapt the data collection to respond to these emerging themes”. Immediately after each data collection exercise has taken place the researcher usually transcribes interviews and observation notes. Thus, Pickard (2008:93) confirms that using “case studies is the most appropriate research method when the purpose of the research requires holistic, in-depth investigation of a phenomenon or a situation from the perspective of all stakeholders involved”.

## **2.4 TARGET RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLING**

The entire population of the Oshana Region totals 176 674 inhabitants of which 54 % reside in rural areas (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:19). This figure represents the total research population from which a manageable research sample was selected. According to Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:123) research population refers to the total number of people or objects which are of interest in terms of data collection. In other words, research population is that category of persons that meets the criteria in which the researcher is interested in studying. In the context of this study, research population refers to all inhabitants of the Oshana Region. This includes public officials as well as ordinary citizens who are directly involved in

governance and service delivery in the Region. However, because the size of the population is so big, and that the researcher could not study each element in the population due to time constraints and cost, a sample was chosen. In essence, this confirms Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg's (2009:123) observation that, "studying each element in the population would generally take long and be impractical and costly".

Brynard and Hanekom (2005:43) aver that in the research methodology population does not refer to the population of a country, but rather to the objects, subjects, phenomenon, cases, events or activities specified for the purpose of sampling. According to Fox and Bayat (2011:51) the research population is the object of research and consists, among others, of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events or the conditions to which they are exposed. Furthermore, Fox and Bayat (2011:52) note that population is the full set of cases from which samples are taken, and in research these cases need not necessarily be people. It must be noted that scientific research requires that the population size of the study is pre-determined and collection of data is made according to the pre-determined research population. Virtually, it was not convenient to use the entire population in this study. Therefore, a manageable research sample was chosen.

It is indicated earlier in this section that a manageable research sample was selected. By selecting the research sample, non-random methods or non-probability sampling techniques were utilised. In this regard, a total number of 329 respondents were identified for personal interviews. The research sample includes politicians who make by-laws and take decisions on policy implementation, and administrative officials who implement policies and by-laws in order to deliver services to the people of Oshana Region. The mentioned sample size also includes ordinary community members who are directly affected by governance practices and service delivery respectively. This study acknowledges that owing to the big size of the population in the Oshana Region, the selected sample might not mean representing the views and opinions of each element of the research population regarding governance practices and service delivery in the Region. However, for the purpose of this study, the selected sample has provided insightful information that was cautiously analysed and interpreted in chapter five to provide coherent exposition of governance practices and service delivery situation in the Oshana Region. Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:132) state that, "non-probability sampling requires the researcher to judge and select those subjects who know the most about the phenomenon, and who are able to articulate and explain nuances to him/her".

Non-probability sampling is constructed from an objective judgement of a likely starting point, and the direction that the sampling takes will be a decision made by the researcher as the study progresses. There are several disadvantages of non-probability such as results and findings cannot be generalised, the sampling error cannot be estimated, and biasness (Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:132). Notwithstanding the above, the objective of this study is to determine the extent to which governance practices impact service delivery in the Oshana Region. The identified sample includes officials who deal with governance issues and rural people who are affected by service delivery in the Oshana Region. It is for this reason that the selected sample possesses accurate and invaluable information to explain the nature and extent to which governance practices impacted service delivery. Also, Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:132) contend that the “quality of the data obtained from non-probability samples has the potential to be high if the researcher is dealing with willing and able subjects”. Moreover, Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:132) note that the importance of research outcomes could have the similar value if a “logical and theoretical direction” is taken during data collection. According to Welman and Kruger (2002:62) non-probability sampling in research is “less complicated and more economical in terms of time and financial expenses”.

Fox and Bayat (2011:54) also maintain that in social science researchers limit their sample because it is not always practically feasible to conduct personal interviews and obtain information from the whole research population. Fox and Bayat (2011:54) explain that this is the case especially if the size of the population is huge, the researcher cannot be able to see each element of the population. Particularly, in this study, time constraints and available financial resources curtailed the conducting of interviews to the selected sample only. Fox and Bayat’s observation is in fact relevant to this study. As indicated earlier, the size of the research population of this study is large and the researcher was not able to include all of them in the sample. It was also impractical to select a large sample due to constraints as mentioned under section 2.7 of this chapter.

Before explaining the sampling methods and the different categories of respondents who formed part of research sample, it is also necessary to explain why they were divided. This study collected in-depth information regarding governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. In order to get objective perspectives, different set of questions, as indicated in annexure A were posed to politicians (councillors), administrative officials and members of the

community respectively. On one hand, politicians are policy makers and were elected by the people to serve them. In this regard, they make decisions pertaining to governance at regional and local level respectively. They are also closer to communities and know communities' socio-economic hardships. As such, they were perceived to possess knowledge in those particular areas. On the other hand, administrative officials are policy implementers and play an important role in promoting governance and ensuring that government programmes and projects are implemented to address the needs and demands of the people at grassroots. Furthermore, members of the community are beneficiaries of governance outcomes and service delivery. Without doubt, ordinary community members are important sources of information on services availability and accessibility in their respective constituencies and towns. This is so because community members are directly affected by governance and service delivery. Therefore, dividing the respondents and asking them questions that are relevant to their respective responsibilities provided an insight for the researcher to determine the nature, scope and the extent to which governance practices influence service delivery in the Oshana Region. This enables the researcher to have an in-depth understanding of the responsibility of each category of respondents in terms of governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

The 329 respondents were identified using the following non-probability sampling methods:

- A convenience non-probability sampling was utilised to select ordinary members of the community. It should be indicated that the vastness and sparsely populated areas in the constituencies in the Oshana Region necessitated this sampling technique. It was also impossible for the researcher to travel to all corners of each constituency to conduct interview with as many respondents as possible. Thus, a readily available sample was taken. This sampling method is appropriate to this study because the study is exploratory in nature.
- Politicians such as the Oshana Regional Governor, the Constituency Councillors and Local Authority Councillors, as well as Administrative Officials (Chief Regional Officer of the Oshana Region, Chief Executive Officers and other officials of Oshakati and Ondangwa Town Councils, and other administrative officials at various constituency offices in the Region) were selected through purposive sampling. Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:134) state that purposive sampling is also referred to as judgemental or theoretical sampling. Thus, it is commonly used in qualitative research.

The latter category of respondents is perceived to possess knowledge and experience in areas of governance and service delivery. In essence, the objectives of this study was to collect information in order to explain the nature, scope and the extent to which governance practices impact on service delivery in the Oshana Region. In this regard, using purposive sampling technique and selecting politicians and administrative officials were necessary. This is also maintained by Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:134) when they elucidate that, the “advantage of purposive sampling is that it allows the researcher to select the sample based on knowledge and phenomenon being studied”.

Bachman and Schutt (2011:129) cited Rubin and Rubin (1995) three guidelines for selecting respondents using purposive sampling. Firstly, the selected sample should be conversant and experienced on the issues being studied. Secondly, they must be prepared to converse freely with the researcher. Finally, respondents must represent wide spectrum of issues of which information is required. In this context, and to achieve the objectives of the study, completeness and saturation of information are imperative for the researcher to understand, be able to contextualise it and explain the situation under consideration. Bachman and Schutt (2011:131) caution that “purposive sampling might not produce a sample that represents some larger population”. However, in the context of this study, respondents who possess knowledge on governance practices and service delivery are public sector officials. Consequently, purposive sampling is the best technique to ensure that they are included in the sample.

Following is an explanation of categories of respondents who are included in the selected research sample:

Oshana Regional Governor (herewith referred to as the Governor). The Governor is appointed by the President in accordance with section 2 of the Special Advisors and Regional Governors Amendment Act 15 of 2010. The Governor represents the central government, and at the same time, he is the political head of the Oshana Region and reports directly to the President. Therefore, in the context of this study, the Governor is one of the invaluable sources of information regarding government’s current and future strategies about governance and service delivery in the Region.



7 Constituencies Councillors: Constituency councillors are political representatives of various political parties duly elected in terms of section 7 of the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, and serve as political heads of respective constituencies in the Oshana Region. They are also referred to as regional councillors. Constituency councillors deal with policy issues regarding developmental programmes, projects and service delivery at grassroots level. In other words, they are closer to the communities. Therefore, they hold critical positions in identifying, coordinating and facilitating policy decisions, and governance practices, as well as advising line ministries and community members regarding the delivery of services. In this regard, Constituency Councillors are strategically located in the proximity of citizens, therefore, provided invaluable information on governance and service delivery at grassroots level.

8 Municipal (Town) councillors: Town Councillors are representatives of various political parties duly elected and constitute town council political bodies. They discuss and make decisions on implementation of municipal by-laws. These by-laws have directly impacted on the life of the citizens in terms of service delivery and livelihoods. Consequently, information provided by town councillors is very important to understanding the context of this study.

It was pointed out earlier in this chapter that data was only collected from councillors in the Ondangwa and Oshakati town councils in the Oshana Region. No research was conducted in the Ongwediva town council. This was due to the fact that the researcher was not granted permission to collect data in the Ongwediva Town Council. As such, this study did not include empirical substantiation on governance practices and service delivery in the Ongwediva town area of jurisdiction. However, some citizens in the peripheries of the Ongwediva town councils were interviewed, as part of data collection process in the Ongwediva constituency (not Ongwediva town council). In other words, views and opinions of respondents from Ongwediva constituency are included in this study.

20 Administrative officials: This included the Chief Regional Officer of the Oshana Regional Council, and Chief Executive Officers of Oshakati and Ondangwa Town Councils, as well as other administrative officials from the ten constituencies and the two towns in the Region. The reason to interview this category of respondents is apparent. Administrative officials are key implementers of government policies, programmes and projects. They also serve as advisors to politicians on governance and administrative matters. In this regard, they hold strategic positions in ensuring that government services reach beneficiaries as per policy directives. Significantly,

administrative officials are responsible for translating structures into governance practices, and the application thereof. The information provided by this category of public officials was very crucial to determine the relationship between governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

3 Civil society organisation representatives: As part of society in the Oshana Region they play an advocacy role. Virtually, civil society organisations involve in service delivery aspects. For example, women empowerment organisations, home-based community assistance and HIV/AIDS counselling, and community based development programmes, to mention just few. This implies that civil society organisation representatives provided valuable information regarding the pros and cons of governance practices and service delivery. They also understand the adverse effects of poor governance on the citizens in the Oshana Region.

20 Traditional (Community) leaders: This refers to traditional leaders such as headmen and senior headmen. Traditional leaders are closer to the community and in most cases they are the first to be consulted before programmes are implemented in their respective communities. Also, traditional leaders know the kinds of services their subjects need. In this regard community leaders provided essential information which the researcher used to explain governance practices and service delivery at grassroots level in Oshana Region.

270 Ordinary members of community: In the context of this study, ordinary community members refer to those people who are located at grassroots level in the Oshana Region. In other words, these are people who reside in different localities, towns and traditional villages in the Region. The community members are the electorate, therefore, delegate powers to politicians and administrative officials in the Oshana Region to put in place good governance practices which can increase equitable delivery of services to all people. They are the end users of government-planned services. Ordinary community members are directly affected by governance practices and service delivery. Ordinary members of the community are, to a large extent, dependent on sub-national government to provide services such as water, electricity, health, education and sanitation in order to improve their livelihoods. Therefore, in view of the identified research problem and research question to be answered, the researcher deemed it absolutely necessary to talk and interview this category of respondents respectively. This provides useful insight into service delivery in rural areas in the Oshana Region, where the majority of these previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities live.

As indicated earlier, and owing to population size of the unit of analysis, the researcher is aware that the selected research sample is by no means representing the opinions and views of every element of the research population. In that regard, the researcher considered the accuracy of the sample and information provided rather than focussing on the size. Therefore, the selected sample of respondents' views and opinions were collected, analysed and interpreted to generate the required information, which was then utilised to establish an explicit understanding and insight of governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. The rationale behind this argument is that the research sample was drawn from the research population that is affected by governance practices and service delivery. In this context, the researcher was able to make conclusions and recommendations regarding the manner in which services are being delivered, and how such practices can be altered to enhance service delivery, and to improve the livelihoods of the people in the Oshana region. It must be noted that the sampling procedure was informed by the selected research design and the type of data to be collected. This means that by selecting respondents, the researcher used a "non-probability sampling particularly convenience and purposive methods" as discussed by Brink, Van der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:126) and Welman and Kruger (2002:46).

For the validity and reliability of information, researchers' biasness is avoided through carefully and judgemental selection of samples. Frey et al cited by Latham (2007:3) posit that researchers eliminate bias through their own opinions, judgements and desires". In this regard, Frey *et al* cited by Latham (2007:3) advise that "when bias is eliminated, the outcomes or results of the research may be applied from the selected sample to the whole of the population because the sample was drawn from the entire research population".

## **2.5 DATA AND INFORMATION COLLECTION**

This section discusses data collection instruments utilised during the research process to answer the research question in order to realise the objectives of this study. These instruments are selected based on the research design and methodology approach employed by the researcher. It is also important to mention that the correct usage of the selected research instruments ensure information acceptability and consistency. In other words, research instruments appropriateness ensures reliable research results. A case study is no exception to this rule. According to Brink,

Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:110) researchers conducting case studies use a number of approaches to the collection and analysis of data. Popular approaches include various data collection instruments such as interviews, questionnaires, observations and written accounts by the subjects. However, Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:110) advise that the disadvantages of case studies are that they tend to be time-consuming and quite costly. Subject drop-out may also occur if the study is carried out over an extended period. In contrast, Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:110) admit that the advantage is the detailed level of analysis that results when research is confined to a small number of subjects. In the context of this study, it is suggested that governance practices information is not readily available and accessible to ordinary members of the community. Consequently, the size of the sample from which governance practices information was collected became smaller and only confined to politicians and administrative officials in the Oshana Region. Ordinary members of the community were more helpful in providing information regarding availability and accessibility to service delivery in their respective localities. Yet, as indicated earlier, the size of this category of respondents was also narrowed due to the big size of the research population and the geographical vastness of the constituencies in the Oshana Region.

Following is a detailed discussion and exposition of the sources of information and instruments used to collect data. In this regard, the researcher does not only start with collection of empirical evidence. In social sciences, interviews and observation may precede comprehensive review of literature. Literature includes published and unpublished sources of information. This allows general conceptualisation of issues concerned. Only then, interviews can be conducted in order to contextualise those issues. Naidoo (2004:51) states that, “an exploration of secondary resources can begin with a search of published data and the identification of unpublished data that is relevant to the topic or problem area. It is therefore essential to explore all the possibilities of secondary data sources before proceeding with the remaining steps of research process.”

Theoretically, there is abundance of secondary sources on governance, good governance and service delivery. Various institutions and organisations, as discussed in chapter three and four of this study, have published an abundance of information on governance and service delivery. These institutions include, but not limited to, the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, and New Partnership for African Development. These institutions also

provide suggestions and recommendations on how to improve governance practices and service delivery particularly in developing countries. Moreover, secondary data is available from textbooks, journals, academic thesis and dissertation as well as internet sources and newspapers.

According to Matthews and Ross (2010:152) one of the first questions researchers need to address when thinking about how they are going to choose their data sources is how they will want to use the data when they have gathered it. Possibly, this is a central point in data collection and obviously influences the researcher's decision on the types of data collected. Moreover, the collected data influenced the manner research results were presented and vice versa. In this regard, the researcher consulted various sources of information in order to collect not only sufficient but relevant data necessary to answer the research question and address the problem statement. Data collection was done in a manner discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

Firstly, this study made use of secondary sources. In so doing, a comprehensive literature review was conducted in order to collect data to provide a broader overview of governance and service delivery. In the same vein, the study reviewed literature on governance practices and service delivery in Namibia in general and in the Oshana region in particular. That was done through desk study (library visits and internet search). The researcher has extensively reviewed and explored the following sources of information:

- Books on Public Administration, governance, good governance and service delivery available in libraries and resource centres, as well as website documents.
- Government gazetted legislations (Acts of Parliament, Government National Development Plan documents, Regional and Local Government by-laws, as well as Policy documents).
- Research theses and dissertations.
- Journals and other scientifically researched articles.
- Daily newspapers.
- Internet sources.

The above sources of information have provided useful data relevant to the research question of this study. It assisted the researcher to conceptualise and put into perspective governance and service delivery in Namibia, taking into cognisance the global governance viewpoint and the manner government services are delivered to people especially previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities at grassroots. Literature on governance and service delivery in the Southern African perspective has also been analysed and applied to Namibia's situation.

Secondly, the researcher consulted and carefully analysed primary sources of information in order to obtain primary data. This data collection strategy includes the researcher's personal interactions with respondents in the form of face-to-face interviews. Collecting primary data was crucial because it enabled the researcher to obtain first-hand information on governance practices and service delivery, thereby, analysed and interpreted such information to put into perspective and explain the current situation in the Oshana Region. Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:141-156) maintain that the research tools to be used to collect data, should be well planned and designed based on the research design and research question to be answered. According to Matthews and Ross (2010:181) the history of social research has included the development of a range of research tools to help social researchers to organise and manage the task of data collection. The researcher, therefore, utilised the data collection instruments as mentioned in the next paragraphs: These research instruments are appropriate to this study because they generate data necessary to conceptualise and put into context governance and service delivery in the Oshana region. The research instruments are as follows:

- Personal interviews were conducted with the Governor of the Oshana Region, and the Chief Regional Officers of the Oshana Region: 7 Constituency Councillors, 8 Local Authority Councillors, 2 Chief Executive Officers of Oshakati and Ondangwa Town Councils respectively, 17 administrative officials (11 officials from nine constituencies in the Oshana Region, 6 local authority officials in the Department of Local Economic Development as well as Department of Town Planning in the Oshakati and Ondangwa Town Councils respectively) and, 270 ordinary members of the community (27 from each constituency). The researcher also interviewed 20 traditional leaders (2 from each of the ten constituencies) and 3 officials from non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in the Oshana Region. **This brings the total number of interviewees to 329 respondents.** These respondents were selected using the non-probability sampling methods.

It should be pointed out the interview questions are divided into three sections. This is because interviewer targeted two categories of respondents whose knowledge and understanding regarding governance practices and service delivery are not on the same level (*Read section 2.6* in this regard). It must be cleared here that although structured questions were prepared, as indicated above some actual face-to-face interviews were reduced to semi-structured and unstructured sort-of conversations, depending on respondents and the situation. For example, respondents, particularly ordinary community members, who were not comfortable to meet the interviewer at their respective homesteads, were interviewed by using unstructured interviews. This ensured that necessary information is obtained. It also means that some interviews took place at places where respondents were found. For example, community water points, informal business centres, and other places of gathering. In the case where the respondent found it uncomfortable to engage into direct face-to-face interview, interview was reduced to informal discussions. Yet, this method has also produced important data as this technique allowed ordinary members of the community to freely discuss and share information. According to Bernard and Ryan (2010:28) unstructured interviews provided a wealth of information, and in some cases it is the only realistic tool available for gathering information. In that regard, informal interviews (unstructured) can occur everywhere - in homes, in bars, on street corners. Thus, to supplement unstructured interviews and create an easy atmosphere for some members of society to freely engage in conversations with the researcher. Informal discussions were also held with respondents in this category.

Respondents were drawn from governance institutions and communities in the Oshana Region respectively. As explained in the previous sections, these are lawmakers who make decisions on governance and service delivery and ordinary members of the community who are directly affected and benefit from services being provided by Oshana Regional Council and Local Authority Council respectively. These categories of respondents are assumed to possess a wealth of information necessarily for the purpose of this study. Consequently, the researcher was convinced that by interviewing these respondents, it provides an opportunity for probing questions in order for them to clarify certain issues related to governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

Additionally, the researcher has reviewed and analysed government documents that contain primary information on policy interventions and directives. These sources include the following:

- State of the Nation Address speeches by the President Hifikepunye Pohamba.
- Speeches by political figures such as Regional Governor and Regional Councillors when addressing various platforms and community gatherings respectively.
- The researcher has also utilised observation method, and took comprehensive field notes, or the so-called ‘jottings’ (Bachman and Schutt, 2011:267), was done. Data gathered through observation method or field notes are explained in details in chapter five. In this regard, the researcher has visited community centres, food-for-work projects, community water points, and draught relief distribution centres. These are places where community members gather to discuss issues affecting their respective communities, collect clean water for both human and animal consumption, and receive draught relief food to sustain their livelihoods. Therefore, these visitations provided good opportunity for the researcher to observe and collect data necessary to answer the research question and achieve research objectives.

According to Heigham and Crocker (2009:17) observation allows the researcher to collect information about participants’ external behaviour which can be further explored casually in conversation or more formally in interviews with questions about participants’ inner ideas, beliefs and values. Nevertheless, the researcher was aware of the disadvantages that the observation method held, such as biased reporting, and the behaviour of the participants if they are aware that they were being observed. These shortcomings were addressed through double-checking (validating) the information with responses provided through interviews. For example, in an event where the researcher has observed that some community members travel long distances to access certain services, a convenience approach was utilised to talk to them through informal discussions. This was made to verify and confirm what has been observed. Likewise, information obtained through studying government reports, researched documents as well as data provided by public officials and members of the community were correctly examined and validated to ensure accuracy. In other words, double-checking was done to ensure correlations and relevance of information.



## 2.6 DATA ANALYSIS, VALIDATION AND REPORTING

This section explains the methods and techniques used for analysing and interpreting data collected from the case study. Explaining and discussing these techniques is essential because it enables correct integration of empirical data with reviewed literature to arrive at research findings and to make appropriate recommendations. This section also explains how data was double-checked and validated to ensure that the written report is, to a certain extent, and objectively based on accurate information.

The question is what is data analysis all about? One also needs to know, why qualitative research design is selected and how it suits the chosen data analysis techniques? It is also imperative to understand why the data collection instruments were used in relations to data analysis methods. In research, collected data is meaningless until it is analysed and interpreted. Similarly, Mello (2007:9) states that “data has no meaning unless it is analysed and interpreted”. The process of categorising and making data meaningful is referred to as data analysis. The manner data is analysed, interpreted and reported also depends on the research design utilised. In the context of this study, empirical data was collected. Thus, proper analysis was done. Matthews and Ross (2010:345) describes “data analysis as a process of working with the data to summarise, describe, and explain the data in terms of the research questions”. Specifically on qualitative data, Bernard and Ryan (2010:4) claim that analysis is ‘mischievously ambiguous’. It can mean, ‘the analysis of qualitative data’ or it can mean, ‘the qualitative analysis of data’. What this means is that data analysis does not always assume the same approach.

Data can be analysed to understand general trends, for example, social issues, or to make meaning out of it in order to write a well-informed research report. In this regard, Bernard and Ryan (2010:4) advise that this confusion can be eliminated by distinguishing clearly between data and analysis. Data analysis is the technique of looking for patterns that can assist to clarify the reason why they are there and what they represent. It must be noted that analysis begins prior to data collection. More often than not, data analysis and collection happen concurrently. Even Fox and Bayat (2011:105) agree that the process of data collection and analysis may run concomitantly. Bernard and Ryan (2010:109), therefore, caution that researchers need to have prior knowledge about what you are studying. This must continue all the way through the research process. Moreover, Bernard and Ryan argue that “as you develop ideas, you test them

against your observations; your observations may then modify your ideas, which then need to be tested again, and so on”. The researcher started by ‘re-familiarising’ (Matthews and Ross, 2010:323) himself with the data by reading through and made notes. The purpose was to make sure that the researcher understood the collected data. This analysis enabled the researcher to categorise data that is related (Matthews and Ross, 2010:334). Through analysis of data, a systematic analysis approach was used to analyse each piece of data (Matthews and Ross, 2010:317). As it is explained earlier in this section, the content of the text documents (Matthews and Ross, 2010:395) was analysed to find meanings and context of information to enable the researcher to write and report such in the context it was provided by respondents without necessarily distorting such information. This process of ‘sorting and writing’ (Matthews and Ross, 2010:402) was scientifically applied to ensure that information collected through case study approach is reported in a scientific manner and in the context respondents have put such information. Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005:208) state that if the “study has been conducted in a scientifically rigorous manner the data will hold the clues necessary to address the researchers’ questions”. The nature of this study required that the researcher collect data, analyse, validate and report the findings. This is essential in order to elucidate the existing governance practices and service delivery situation in the Oshana Region. Whereas, the goal and intention of government are to deliver services to all citizens in a fair and uncompromised manner, the practical reality may portray a different picture.

Data collected from the case study was analysed and interpreted and discussed using what Bachman and Schutt (2011:282) phrase as a “flow model”. The model suits qualitative data analysis. In this regard, flow model implies a systematic way of data analysis and interpretation. This model involves techniques researchers use to analyse, interpret and present data. It allows deductive approach to create clear and meaningful information. Deductive implies careful analysis of data to make it suit the explanation necessary to understand the issues under study. Bachman and Schutt (2011:282) identify some of the characteristics of the flow model techniques as follow:

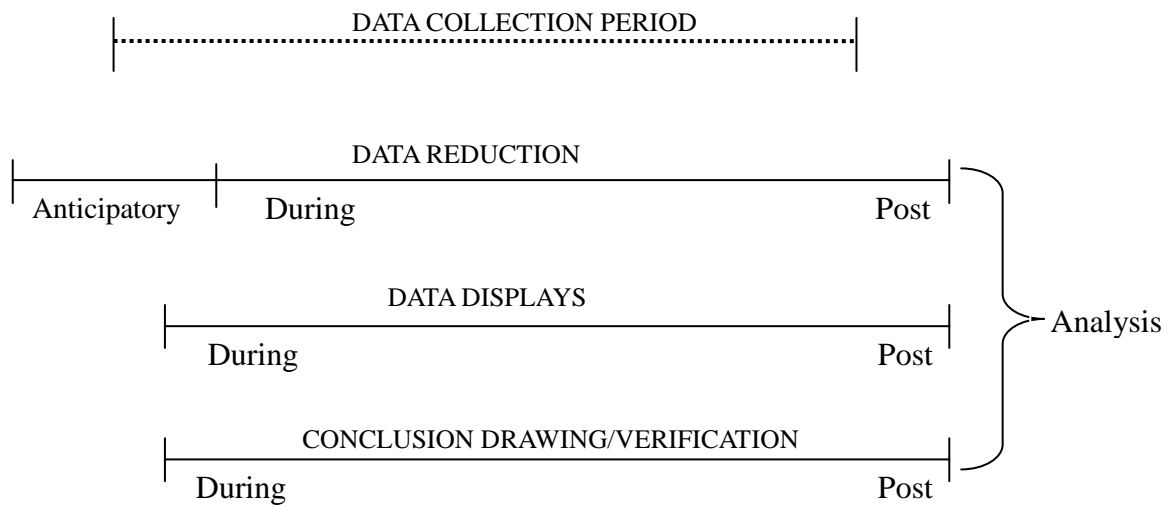
- Documentation of the data and the process of data collection. It entails proper recording of data during research process. This allows better organisation of data during interpretation phase.
- Organisation or categorisation of the data into concepts. Data is categorised in order to find proper meaning and understanding of concepts. It is only when the meaning is clear

that the researcher would be able to put it into context. In social sciences, one of the purposes of research is to investigate social problems and attach meaning to those problems in order to provide proper recommendations. Thus, this can only be done once data are well organised and categorised.

- Connection of the data to show how one concept may influence another. In other words, grouping of data is necessary to ensure relationship among concepts.
- Corroboration or legitimisation, by evaluating alternative explanations, disconfirming evidence, and searching for negative cases. Basically, disconfirming of evidence is usually done to ensure that contradictory evidence provided by respondents is cautiously analysed and validated before included them in the research report. It should be noted that collected data, once categorised, may carry different meanings, which need to be carefully analysed before included in the research report. In this regard, matching and testing such data is important before a final draft is written. In short, this implies that all necessary steps must be taken by the researcher to ensure correctness, relevance and reliability of information.
- Representing the account, in other words, reporting the findings.

Against the backdrop of the aforementioned exposition, in this study, data analysis and interpretation techniques such as documenting, conceptualising and categorising (Flick, 2009:206-209) were utilised. This process of grouping, regrouping and relinking of data was necessary in order to consolidate meaning and explanation of data. It also presented an opportunity to the researcher to analyse data right at the time such information was collected. Patton (2002:4) notes that the data for qualitative analysis typically come from fieldwork. During fieldwork, the researcher spends time in the setting under study. It can be a programme, an organization, a community, or wherever situations of importance to a study can be observed, people interviewed, and documents analysed. This presents good flow of data collection and interpretation. Bachman and Schutt (2011:282) argue that the advantage of the flow model is that data analysis and interpretation starts in the field at the time of observation or interview as the researcher identifies problems and concepts that appear likely to help in understanding the situation. The flow model data analysis approach is illustrated in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Flow model of qualitative data analysis components



*Source: Bachman and Schutt (2011:282)*

On the same issue, Mason and Davies (2011:33-47) explain that qualitative research is grounded in a philosophical way which is broadly explanatory and interpretivist in the sense that it is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced and constructed. In addition to the above, Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:170) indicate that qualitative data is analysed by means of categorising, coding, ordering, and summarising the data and describing them in meaningful terms. For clarity and for the purpose of this study, coding refers to the process of arranging and organising information into similar groups in order to determine interrelations. It allows the researcher to understand the issue or phenomenon under consideration.

According to Coffey and Atkinson (1996:29) coding and retrieving is the procedure most often associated with coding as an analytic strategy. The role of coding in such a conceptualisation is to undertake three kinds of operations. These are:

- noticing the relevant phenomenon;
- collecting examples of those phenomenon; and'
- analysing those phenomenon in order to find commonalities, differences, patterns and structures.

Therefore, the data collected through interviews and observation through the so-called 'field notes' (Bazeley, 2007:55) were carefully analysed and interpreted to generate information necessary to explain the nature and scope of governance and service delivery in Namibia in general and Oshana Region in particular. In essence, the aforementioned data analysis instruments have presented useful meanings of information. This confirms Bachman and Schutt (2011) advice that the techniques for data analysis should be appropriate for the research design. Significantly, the data analysis techniques utilised in this study have provided an opportunity for the researcher to answer the research question.

Regarding the validation of data, the researcher has properly double-checked the data before inclusion in the research report. By and large, this was done to ensure validity and reliability of information and data collection instrument respectively. According to Bachman and Schutt (2011:93-100) validity refers to the "context to which measures indicate what they are intended to measure while the reliability of an instrument is 'when it yields consistent scores or observations of a given phenomenon on different occasions'. Reliability, therefore, is a prerequisite for measurement of validity". Brink, Van der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:165) emphasise that reliability and validity are closely related. Aborisade (2008:7) says, "the assumption in research is that the data gathered and the results/findings made are of the highest possible quality, and that they were obtained empirically and objectively analysed. Validity and reliability have to do with the concern to attain this goal". Aborisade (2008:7) further explains that, "validity is concerned with the ability of a research instrument to measure what it is designed to measure while reliability is concerned with the consistency in the results given by the same instrument from all respondents".

In order to maintain the principles of validity and reliability, the researcher made sure that all items that are included in the interview were critically analysed and properly calculated. This was done to ensure appropriateness of questions in the research instruments to the objective of the study. Moreover, the validity of the content was ensured through comprehensive literature review, and verification of questions, through piloting as explained later in this section, in the interview research instrument. Reliability of collected information was guaranteed by means of prior piloting of the interview questions, prior to actual interview sessions, to a small group of respondents. This category involved public sector officials and ordinary members of society. Fox and Bayat (2011:102) claim that a pilot study can be conducted on a small scale to determine

whether the research design and methodology are relative and effective. Notwithstanding the above, during actual data collection process reliability of information was done by means of follow-up interviews and informal discussions with respondents, and where practically possible re-interviews with the same respondent to verify unclear issues. Bachman and Schutt (2011:97) call this process 'test-retest reliability'.

During piloting the research instrument (interview questions), it was realised that ordinary members of the community do not have information on governance practices and procedures. They lack information on budgeting and planning more especially when it comes to policy implementation. It also came to light that administrative officials are not as close to communities as constituency councillors; thus, they cannot answer some questions pertaining to community issues in different localities in the Oshana Region. This helped the researcher to rephrase and readjust interview questions. For example, questions regarding governance practices, budget and planning were only included in the sections to be answered by politicians and administrative officials. Furthermore, questions on community livelihoods and other related aspects were included in the section to be answered by community members. It must be noted that the above exposition has an influence on the findings of this study. In academic research, findings determine the type of recommendations to be provided. Therefore, in the context of this study, it was important to obtain correct, accurate and appropriate information from where to derive findings and subsequently put forward relevant recommendations.

It must, however, be noted that the limitations as discussed in the ensuing section, to some extent, influenced the researcher's decision to re-interview some respondents where necessary, and in exceptional circumstances. As alluded to earlier, this was done to ensure that collected information is valid, accurate, consistent and reliable before including them in the research report.

## 2.7 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY

This study has evaluated good governance practices and service delivery at sub-national level in Namibia, using the Oshana Region as the case study. During this scientific research process ethical issues were cautiously considered and respondents' rights and dignity were respected. As explained by Leedy and Ormrod (2010:101) protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy and honesty are ingredients for research ethics. All these were carefully observed throughout the research process. Fox and Bayat (2011:148) posit that research projects are bound to raise ethical considerations. It should be noted that this study was designed in such a way that data was collected from respondents in a manner which did not discriminate them against on the basis of race, gender, status and political affiliation. In other words, respondents were informed to freely participate or decline to be interviewed or withdrew from an interview session at any time of their choice. This confirms Stake's (2003) argument cited in Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:33) that, "as researchers we must always remember that we are guests in the private spaces of the world. Our manners must be good and our code of ethics strict".

Importantly, the researcher made sure that respondents are protected from unnecessary unethical related behaviour, and anonymity and confidentiality are highly maintained. That means questions that might have had negative implications to respondents were neither included in the interview nor asked during interview sessions.

A covering letter was designed and attached to the interview questions. In this letter, the researcher explains all ethical issues to respondents. Respondents were advised that their participation in the study was on voluntary basis and that they could decline or withdraw from interview at any time of their convenience. They were also informed that in order to maintain anonymity and to protect their confidentiality and privacy they were advised not to disclose their names, if they so wish, during interviews. Significantly, the researcher has sought consent from each respondent before face-to-face interview commenced. In other words, the content of the letter was explained to each respondent to solicit consent prior to interview. Regarding public sector official (politicians and administrative officials), the letter was handed in at the time the appointment was made. Interview questions are attached as per **annexure A**

To ensure legitimacy of the research, the researcher applied for ethical clearance, and was issued with an ethical clearance certificate (**annexure B**) by the Department of Public Administration

and Management of University of South Africa (UNISA). Equally, the researcher sought consent from public institutions in the Oshana Region. Letters of consent (permission) to conduct research in the Oshana Region were sought and received from the Oshana Regional Governor's Office, Ondangwa Town Council and Oshakati Town Council (**annexure C, D and E**). It must also be mentioned that the letter as per annexure A was also attached to all letters sent to institutions to seek permission to conduct research.

Finally, effort was made to ensure that all information contained in this thesis has been cautiously and carefully double-checked and verified, and all citations and quotes are properly acknowledged and referenced. This was done specifically to appreciate sources of information, wherever such information appears in this thesis. Source acknowledgment was crucial as it avoided academic dishonesty and plagiarism. In the process of scientific research, limitations were encountered which constrained comprehensive collection of data. Matthews and Ross (2010:181) maintained that data collection is a practical activity, one that has to be carried out within time, spatial and resource constraints. This study was not unaffected by such limitations. As a result the researcher could not cover the topic in a very comprehensive manner. However, where practically possible the researcher addressed those limitations in a systematic way to minimise invalidity and fallibility of research outcomes. The limitations encountered during the data collection process were:

- **Limited financial resources.** The study was conducted without any external funding. The researcher used his own resources (finance and auxiliary material required to conduct a scientific research). Fundamentally, limited financial resources contributed to unintended effects on the collection of data. The researcher had to delimit travelling and visitations and collected as much data as possible from various locations in the constituencies in the Oshana Region due to limited funds.
- **Permission to conduct research:** Reluctance by the Ongwediva Town Council to grant permission to the researcher to conduct research, although not having a negative influence on the research outcomes; it stops the researcher from collecting data in order to explain and provide insight on governance and service delivery situation in Ongwediva Town Council. It is indicated in this chapter that the researcher had made numerous efforts to obtain consent from the Ongwediva town council. However, all efforts ended in vain. To preserve research ethics, the researcher could not pressurise the



council to grant him permission, as information received through coercion might not be reliable. It must be noted that Ongwediva Town Council is within the jurisdiction of the Oshana Region. It was also the purpose of this study to include it in this research. However, lack of permission made it impractical. To cover this caveat, the researcher only used Ongwediva Town Council Annual Reports and analysed newspaper reports on the activities of the council in question. In other words, no empirical evidence was collected.

- ***Mistrust by some respondents.*** The study deals with sensitive and complex issues such as governance and service delivery. As such some politicians and administrative officials in the Oshana Region were hesitant and uncomfortable to discuss governance and service delivery issues with the researcher. This is attributed to the fact that they felt uneasy to disclose information that may discredit their respective offices at the end of the day. For example, if a constituency councillor says that his office has no capacity to deal with issues of poverty in the constituency; to citizens it may indicate that politicians are not fulfilling promises made during election campaign. Similarly, some community members were also uncomfortable to share information with a stranger - in this case, the researcher.
- ***Political intolerance:*** Some respondents, particularly ordinary members of the community in rural areas did not trust the researcher. Some respondents wanted to be assured that the researcher is not collecting information to be used for political purpose. Even after they were assured by the researcher, some were reluctant to provide complete information during interviews, and some have withdrawn from interview.
- ***Limited published resources:*** limited recent published material on governance and service delivery particularly in the Oshana Region, in a way, has forced the researcher to use old sources, in addition to existing laws and government publications. It must be noted that government publications such as the National Development Plan document, Population and Housing census, Labour Force Survey and Regional Poverty Profile are only published once in a while. Therefore, the researcher had no choice but to also include sources which are older than five years in this thesis. Logically, in the absence of recent data, old sources referred to in this study are considered as relevant and useful for

the purpose of explaining governance and service delivery situation in the Oshana Region.

It should be noted that identifying and explaining the aforementioned limitations do not necessarily obscure the outcomes of this research. According to Matthews and Ross (2010:181) it is important to consider how valid social research data can be collected effectively and efficiently within those constraints. Therefore, the researcher pointed them out to demonstrate that albeit every effort that has been made to ensure validity and reliability of research results, there were limitations that posed challenges to the researcher especially during data collection, analysis and interpretation. As such the significance of noting research limitations and addressing them cautiously could not be over-emphasised.

## **2.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Research on governance structures and practices is very important in understanding both positive and negative implications on service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. Governance practices impact on political, social and economic environments of the country. To understand how these environments affect the wellbeing of citizens, a study of this magnitude is needed. While various studies have been conducted on local governments in Namibia, a study on how governance practices impact service delivery at sub-national levels has not been conducted before. In this respect, this makes this study profoundly significant. As provided in chapter one of this thesis, the objectives of this study are:

- to explore the extent to which good governance practices contribute to service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia in general and in the Oshana Region in particular.
- to provide a broad overview of governance and service delivery, taking into account their effects on the living standard of grassroots communities in Namibia.
- to examine existing governance framework and structures in order to explain their impact on service delivery.
- to analyse challenges related to governance and the provision of services in the Oshana Region.
- to analyse and interpret results, as well as draw conclusions on governance practices and services delivery in the Oshana Region, and provide recommendations for the improvement of service delivery.

Given the objectives of the study, this research is significant to Namibia's public sector in terms of governance and service delivery. The model of governance and service delivery presented in chapter three of this study, if correctly adopted, can contribute to improved governance practices and service delivery at sub-national level in Namibia. This study is also important in a sense that the Namibian government is currently in the process of service delivery revitalisation through decentralisation, thus, taking into consideration recommendations of this study may significantly help public sector officials to put in place mechanisms that are conducive to service delivery environment.

Good governance connotes transparency, flexible decision making, accountability and participation. As such improved governance principles can accelerate service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. Subsequently, this improves the living standard of grassroots communities. In this respect, this study can make an essential contribution to social and economic development of Namibia in general and the Oshana Region in particular. Finally, the researcher is aware that recommendations put forward are not a "one size fits all". Therefore, a careful environmental analysis may be needed before applying these recommendations in other administrative regions in Namibia. The reason is that, though all regions form the second tier of government, they may be different from each other in terms of cultural social and economic environments.

## **2.9 SUMMARY**

Scientific research requires researchers to employ scientifically-tested methods to collect, analyse and interpret data in order to either solve problems or develop an explicit understanding of situations that may result in a solution to a problem being found. Therefore, it was imperative to explain and indicate how data was collected and scientifically analysed. As such validity and reliability of results are maintained. Against the above exposition, chapter two discusses the research design, approach and the methodology used to collect and analyse data in order to achieve the study objective. The research population, sample and sampling procedure are also explained in this chapter.

This chapter discusses the research ethics that have been observed to ensure that the results/findings are of high quality. Issues such as informed consent, privacy, voluntary participation, honesty, anonymity and confidentiality were explained and maintained through the research process. The chapter concludes by explaining limitations encountered during the research process. This is necessary to demonstrate to readers that despite the fact that the researcher has made every effort to ensure that sufficient data has been collected, there were some limitations that placed restraints on those efforts.

The subsequent chapter three presents a comprehensive conceptual framework of good governance and service delivery in a broader perspective.

## CHAPTER 3

### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, GOOD GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY.

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The understanding of Public Administration as a science provides a clear overview of public institutions' governance practices and the manner public services are delivered. In other words, Public Administration is imperative to understanding of governance practices, accountability, ethics, transparency and management of public institutions and, also, how these aspects influence public service performance. In addition, the above-mentioned aspects ultimately impact on service delivery to the people. This is possible when public officials and other stakeholders in society work together to attain common goals. In this regard, good public administration is crucial to improve service delivery and promote the social welfare of people. Rondinelli (2007:1) notes that the "role of Public Administration in governance is a continuing topic of discussion and debate". Holtzhausen's (2004:265) view on the same issue is that understanding public administration is crucial because it involves public service which is a public trust. The central argument here is based on the notion that the public service has been created to provide services to citizens. Therefore, citizens expect public service performance to be effective in delivering such services to the public in an accountable and transparent manner. It has to be noted that effective public service promotes good governance and fast-tracks the delivery of much needed services to citizens. According to the African Good Governance Network (AGGN) (2010:5) good governance is "emerging as a principle of international law and African countries and their agencies are expected to adhere to such principle". From a political perspective, governance in contemporary African context is viewed to be 'good' when there is sound relationship between public officials and members of the community. Such a relationship promotes cooperation between those who govern and the governed. In this regard, essential services can be delivered, and sustainable social and economic development is promoted (African Good Governance Network, 2010:7). Sebudubudu (2010:259) concludes that good governance helps any nation to strive towards realising national development goals and objectives. These objectives might be related to "sustainable development, rapid economic growth, economic independence and social justice". In this respect, good governance practices

are catalysts towards effective service delivery and subsequently an improved quality of life in the society.

Essentially, this study argues that the application of good governance practices requires well-oiled and properly coordinated public service and vice versa. Similarly, public institutions are expected to develop the necessary governing structures and institutional capacity that are conducive to service delivery and providing social support to citizens. Bourgon (2009:5) advocates that in the process of governance and service delivery, public officials “can play an important role in improving the quality of public administration”. Public officials’ performance has a direct influence on citizens’ wellbeing and the performance of the whole public service. Their innovation and commitment determine the outcome of public service. If public officials fail to adhere to good governance practices, bad governance may occur in public service and eventually citizens will be negatively affected in terms of service delivery. All in all, a good connection between public administration, governance and service delivery helps public service to prosper. This means that for good governance practices to be implemented and effective services to be delivered there should be implementable policies in place that define the essence and public administration and its purpose of existence. Maheshwari (2007:323) argues that a core area of good governance is where the pragmatic execution of public policies takes place, which is the country’s public delivery system.

Chapter three discusses the relationship between governance, good governance and service delivery in relation to Public Administration in the Namibian context. It places into perspective the concepts governance, good governance and service delivery, to explain their relationship to Public Administration. Chapter three introduces analyses and explains the Mercy Corps Good Governance Model, hereto referred to as the “*Mercy Model*”, and its relevance to this study. In so doing, the researcher suggests a governance model that can be essential to Namibia if the government intends to improve service delivery and promotes good governance practices. Finally, chapter three discusses trends in public administration from the Namibian context. In this regard, the framework for governance and service delivery are discussed. These are: the Namibian Constitution, National Development Plans, Regional Councils Act, Local Authorities Act, Decentralisation Policy, Ombudsman Act and Anti-Corruption Act, and Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management.

### 3.2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

As indicated in the introduction, the study of public administration as a practice and Public Administration as a science draws interesting line of arguments. Western countries, such as American in particular, made invaluable contribution towards the development of public administration through research and practices. According to Stillman (2010:10), Woodrow Wilson in his book *The Study of Administration* observes that, “the field of administration is a field of business. It is removed from the hurry and strife of politics”. In addition, Stillman (2010:19) argues that, “the origin and growth of public administration and Public Administration after the dawn of the twentieth century, were directly related to rapid expansion of democracy in all sphere of public life”. According to explanations in Woodrow Wilson’s book, the twentieth century witnessed a positive significant challenge to autocratic governance system. It was also during this time that equal participation of both men and women in politics and decision making gained prominence. Increasing growth of public administration encouraged direct election of representatives, initiatives, referenda and recall measures. This was due to emergent public demands for proper government regulation of public service. Broadly speaking, the above implies equal participation, accountability and transparency in the governance of public institutions to ensure effective and inclusive service delivery. As stated by Stillman (2010:19), the above-mentioned development has influenced public administration reforms in developed countries, particularly the Western nations.

As noted by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), what influenced public administration reform in many industrialised countries is a trend from the maximalist State at the aftermath of the Second World War to the minimalist State of the 1980s. DESA is a United Nations body that works to address cross-cutting aspects that affect people’s livelihoods. In essence, such body assists national governments and other stakeholders to achieve their social and economic goals. In other words, this was attributed to a move towards a new understanding that signifies that both the public and private sector play an equal role in performing and providing invaluable functions and services in society (United Nations, 2009:3). Comparatively, another broad trend in several developing countries, particularly after independence, is the changing responsibility of the State to adapt to the expansion and development of private sector as well as increasing demands and needs of underprivileged groups in society. This rapid development influences governance practices and service delivery and by extension the direction

public administration has to take. Moreover, United Nations (2009:3) argues that up until now, another trend in numerous “current and formerly socialist countries is the gradual modification of the all-embracing role of the State to accommodate expanding market forces, growing pluralist democracies, and strengthening of an embryonic civil society”. The changing role of the State led to corresponding development in State agencies. Subsequently, this has evolved from the mere application of new public management methods to a new concept of governance. In other words, governance practices were extended to include the broader spectrum of society in order to ensure effective service delivery. Many governments in developing countries, including Namibia, are now committed to the principles of democracy and applying good governance practices to make sure that government institutions respond to the needs of the people.

Against the backdrop of the above-mentioned exposition, Rondinelli (2007:4) notes that, “the need to improve governance and Public Administration and to enhance the State’s capacity to carry out new functions and roles is now widely recognised”. Cheema (2007:30-31) explains that the concept Public Administration has gone through four significant phases. Though, Cheema (2007:31) did not refer to public administration in the Western countries, it is imperative for this study to discuss the eras of public administration from the perspective of the Western concept. The reason being that, such Western evolution of public administration has influenced the nature and scope of public administration reform in the developing countries, particularly in Africa, immediately after independence in the 1960s.

Authors such as Stillman (2010:19) and Cheema (2007:30-31) explain that the four phases of public administration evolution can be located in the development eras as discussed hereunder. However, from the onset, this study acknowledges that the nature, scope, period, and the extent to which public administration reform took effect might vary from one continent to another or from country to the other. As indicated earlier in this chapter, public service reform is a product of Europe and the Western world. This is so because many European and Western nations have attained independence in the early nineteenth century and over many years of try and error they embraced democracy and its principles. In Africa, however, public service reforms only gained momentum at independence in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Yet, during this era, State played dominant role in the provision of public services. Then, citizens’ involvement in governance and service delivery was very minimal. This made the State even more ineffective in meeting



society's needs and aspirations. The four public administration reform eras referred to above are explained in detail hereunder:

- **Period 1926-1950.** In the Western context, particularly the United States, this era of public administration evolution was referred to as the 'POSDCORB orthodoxy'. This refers to the acronym used in the classical view of public administration and management to explain public service functions. The acronym stands for planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. In essence, it places huge emphasis on efficient and prudent utilisation of public resources. Stillman (2010:20) states that, "the precise date for the intellectual birthing of the American public administration can be considered as 1926" In that year, the first textbook, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration*, authored by Leonard White, appeared. Although many other public administration textbooks were written thereafter, at the heart of White's theoretical synthesis was a POSDCORB way of thought that Luther Gulick, a decade later, most forcefully and fully articulated in the *Papers on the Science of Administration* in 1937 (Stillman, 2010:20). It is within the above explanation and understanding that Stillman (2010:20) postulates that the acronym referred to above then stood for a logical sequence of steps for practicing good administration, and ideally, in the order in which they should be accomplished. In this regard, POSDCORB, as both an idea and a practice for doing good administration, enabled the field of public administration to start, develop, and even flourish in national prominence in a manner that it has never quite achieved since. During this era, POSDCORB was regarded as the best way to effectively and efficiently administer the public service in order to deliver services to the people.

Historically, and notwithstanding the above, Cheema (2007:30-31) points out, "public administration was perceived to be a set of state structures, institutions, and processes, characterised by hierarchy, continuity, impartiality, standardisation, legal-rational authority, and professionalism. The aim was to provide human security, protection of property, establish and enforce societal standards and sustain the rule of law. However, this traditional public administration was criticised for red tape, slowness paternalism and greater focus on processes and procedures".

From an African perspective, the era mentioned above may not necessarily matter as many African countries were still under colonial administration. As such, colonial rulers imposed and applied public administration practices of their countries of origin on their respective colonies. In Namibia, public service was not properly structured and organised then. Public service was the extension of the South African colonial government. In other words, South African public service laws and regulations were also applicable to Namibia. In this regard, public administration reform in South Africa had direct repercussions on Namibia's way of governance. This was the case because Namibia was under the colonial rule of South Africa, hence, laws made in that country were also apply to Namibia.

- **Period, 1950-1970.** This era was a response to the post-cold war era of public administration which was perceived as failure. In the Western context, it became known as “the Social Science Heterodoxy” era (Stillman, 2010:20). Social Science Heterodoxy happened after the post-war period, and it was an attempt to integrate social science into public administration. The reason was to go beyond the ‘POSDCORB’ model and embrace the emerging notion of social sciences. This was seen as the best tool to improve public administration. In fact, it was Robert Dahl, a Yale political scientist, who in 1947 wrote a seminal *Public Administration Review* essay that spontaneously and predictively pointed out three central intellectual problems of pre-war orthodoxy (Stillman, 2010:20). In other words, this era was a direct response to ‘POSDCORB’ orthodoxy failure. The previous era was seen as lacking good strategies to effectively administer public institutions to deliver services. More emphasis was placed on institutions and procedures and standards to be followed, thus ignoring other important factors such as human relations that are also important for governance and service delivery.

According to Stillman (2010:21) old public administration (old way of administering public service) described under the first phase was challenged for three reasons: first, to rethink its normative assumptions that had been based on the sharp dichotomy between politics and administration, second, to expand its conception of human behaviour, beyond a view of a narrow, technical rational man in order to comprehend the whole man, and thus explain more realistically how humans act within organisation, third, to embrace broader historical, economical, and social conditions not merely techniques or

technicians, as influential factors that affect administrative results. In essence, Dahl's orientation, or rather reorientation to the field, by contrast to the pre-war orthodoxy values, suggested values of realism, behaviourism and scientific rigor (Stillman, 2010:21). In other words, this denotes that the reality, practices and the conditions should be considered in the process of public administration and management exercises. It must be noted that public administration varies from country to country due to human and institutional capacities. Financial resources also dictate and direct the development of public administration, and in fact the way governance of public sector may take.

Stillman (2010; 21) argues that the generation of the social science heterodoxy thought, was an answer to effective public administration. In particular, Herbert Simon criticised "the POSDCORB principles which he concluded were little more than folk wisdom or proverbs that confused facts with values". In effect, this generation advocated for the introduction of more management principles in public administration in order to shape the manner government functions. Cheema (2007:30-31) posits that this phase focussed on applying acceptable management principles, which include efficient utilisation of public resources, effective customer positioning, confidence in the private sector to assist in public service delivery and relentless focus on public needs and aspirations. This was seen as the possible solutions to public administration and service delivery.

It was also during this era that many African countries gained political independence. This encouraged States to seek and adopt effective administrative practices in order to sustain their political and economic gains. The United Nations (2009:3) agreed that during this period, mostly in the 1950s, that many developing countries gained independence from colonialism and looked upon the newly independent State as the main vehicle for delivering the benefits of political and economic freedom to their people. Despite the above explanation public reforms have been very slow, and this has negatively impacted governance practices and service delivery.

- **Period, 1970-1990.** From Western perspective, this era represents “the Reassertion of Democratic Idealism” (Stortz, 2009:40). Fundamentally, Stillman (2010:22) contends that “the 1968 Minnowbrook Conference (Minnowbrook I) best symbolising the starting point of the shift towards democratic idealism in Public Administration”. The conference served as a platform where public administration scholars and experts met to share ideas and learn from experiences and expertise of others. Generally, this type of conference culminates into useful recommendations to improve public administration. The above-mentioned conference or “Minnowbrook I” “involved mostly under thirty-year old academics, largely from political sciences field. Their conference papers argued for the field to adopt fresh intellectual perspectives or for a new public administration based on models of public participation, consensus-building, ideas sharing, mutual trust, and even love of mankind”. Expanding on the ‘Reassertion of Democratic Idealism’ notion, Cheema (2007:30-31) states that this phase presents an opportunity for New Public Management approach to be introduced in public service. Moreover, Cheema (2007:30-31) notes that during this era the focus was on flexibility, empowerment of citizens, new strategies to advance novelties and search for outcomes over processes. The new business principles, professionalism and ethics, and performance management and budgeting also become imperative.

According to United Nations (2009:7) a dramatic shift started in the late 1980s and early 1990s when governments ceased being considered as the sole driver of economic and social growth and development. Proponents of public administration saw the state as the main obstacle to economic and social advancement. This was due to financial difficulties and inefficiencies the public service has experienced during the above-mentioned period. Various structural adjustment measures imposed on developing countries by International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank also served as indication of ineffectiveness and inefficiency of public service (change public sector to public service as your study is confined to public service) in dealing with economic and social issues. The answer to the above-mentioned shortcomings was to introduce new public management in public service. It must be noted that, many developing countries failed to successfully adopt and implement this public administration reform due to various factors. Among these factors were lack of institutional capacity and resources created by the legacy of long-term colonialism. This is in line with Maphunye’s (2009:3) argument that the problems which

Africans and their governments have had to face since independence have, to a larger extent, been the product of their history.

It should be noted that the above-mentioned era was also characterised by “*the Thatcher revolution*” (Reitan, 2003 and Burton, 2013). The Thatcher revolution refers to a reforms effort introduced by the then British Prime Minister, Margret Thatcher, from 1979 to 1990. It might be argued that the Thatcher revolution, to a certain degree, has an influence on public service reform in various parts of the world, including Africa. The notion that free market economy produces wealth and grow national economy gained roots in both developed and developing countries especially from 1990. When Margret Thatcher became the Prime Minister of Britain in 1979, she immediately introduced major political, economic and social reforms in order to improve public administration and service delivery. “Thatcher embarked on a policy of radical change and reform which was aimed to return initiative and accountability to individual” (Reitan, 2003:70).

During her terms of office, Thatcher initiated and implemented political reform that saw the centralised governance strengthened and reduction in local government spending. Burton (2013:17) states that the Thatcher’s government “reviewed the controls by central on local government” and introduced economic reform policy that encouraged privatisation of industries. Besides, the power of trade unions was reduced. Thatcher believed that if trade unions have more power they may influence and incite workers to engage in industrial strikes which was not conducive to economic growth and development. Similarly, Reitan (2003:73) notes that Thatcher believed in “free enterprise, competition and the market economy”. To a larger extent, these have influenced her reform decisions during the above-mentioned period.

What is even more significant during the Thatcher revolution was her decision to downsize the public service. In her view, bloated civil service is unproductive, thus, not good to economic progress. Burton (2013:17) explains that upon taking office “Thatcher’s instantaneous decision was to impose immediate freeze on public service recruitment. The aim was to make it manageable, efficient and cost effective. The main argument, as indicated above, is that a bloated public service lacks transparency and accountability while it is also inefficient to economic development. While Thatcher’s reform strategies drew criticism from various quarters of society, especially from

socialists, such reforms, to a certain degree, have formed the basis for public administration and governance reforms in many developed and developing countries. This study, therefore, argues that the ensuing public reform era was a continuation of the above-mentioned era. It must also be noted that it does not necessarily mean that all countries that have embraced these reform approaches, particularly public service reform, are successful. The resultant benefits vary from one country to the other due to various environmental factors such as political, economic and social factors, as indicated in the preceding discussions. The challenges of public service reforms in developing countries, particularly in Namibia, are analysed and explained in chapter four of this thesis.

- **Period 1990 to present.** This phase was characterised by new thinking, innovations and pro-activeness. “A new generation of administrative thinkers” (Stortz, 2009:16) emerged during this phase. Public administration has also become a topic of interest in the wake of globalisation and new emerging and demanding technology. In this regard, “the new role of public administration to improve governance practices and service delivery is carried out within the context of and in response to local, national, regional and global pressures, as well as challenges for survival, development and change” (United Nations, 2009:7). Cheema (2007:30) states that the present era of governance emphasises an approach in which three main actors are involved. It involves the State which provides stable political conditions and legal environment, the private sector which provides employment opportunities and produces wealth, and civil society that provides enabling social and political partnership to ensure success of governance practices and service delivery.

Ayee (2005:1) notes that “by the late 1990s the need for a market-friendly economy had become widely accepted throughout Africa”. In essence, this implies a reduced role of the state in spearheading national economic management. Ayee (2005:1) argues that instead of involving in creating wealth the State is expected to provide an enabling environment for private sector economic activities. The State must formulate relevant policies that advance economic reforms. It is also expected to provide the necessary regulatory and legal framework for private sector to grow. Moreover, the current era requires the State to “provide some of the social and physical infrastructure, sometimes in partnership with community based organizations” (CBOs) (Ayee, 2005:1). Yet, these new roles for the State are not necessarily a one size fits all, and in many respects several

governments in developing countries have failed to live up to such demanding but yet progressive ideas. This notion of stakeholders' partnership in social and economic development becomes a catchphrase in advancing new public management, and in fact, promoting good governance practices and service delivery.

“The idea of stakeholders' involvement was further crystallised in the ‘*Washington Consensus*’ in 1995” (United Nations, 2009:7). The ‘*Washington Consensus*’ is a term invented by economist, John Williamson, in 1989 to refer to a set of policy reforms prescribed by Washington's major financial institutions such as the IMF, World Bank and US Treasury Department. These policy prescriptions were designed to address economic reform issues in the Latin American countries. It must be noted that it is not the purpose of this study to discuss the Washington Consensus policies and recommendations. The reference thereof is only made to indicate that the effort by developing nations to involve stakeholders in public service reform process and development is not new. It has its roots in some of the requirements of the IMF and World Bank. In addition, the United Nations (2009:7 also maintains that “it was generally accepted by major donors and international development agencies that trade as well as private investment would be more effective in bringing about sustainable development in less developed countries”. Against the above-mentioned exposition, the State's involvement in the economic and social development should be supplemented with private sector initiatives to ensure sustainable development. Thus, in the context of this this era, Washington Consensus suggests a new approach to administering public institutions.

Beyond conventional bureaucratic public administration, Governments now incorporate legal and policy frameworks for proper policy environments, and appropriate measures to promote participatory systems for civil society to engage in policy formulation and programme implementation, as well as contribute to an effective and transparent process for control and accountability of government actions. (United Nations, 2009:7; Ayee, 2005:1). In essence, this reform was necessary to ensure effective governance and functional public service.

In line with the above explanation, this study argues that public administration in Africa has taken a step further since the inception of public service reform in 1990. Constitutional democratic governments were established. In addition, institutional reforms were undertaken to suit the needs, demands and aspirations of the people. The issue of human rights protection and preservation has been largely addressed in many areas of governance. For example, national police respect and guarantees human rights, education is open and free to all people, and government policies are tailor-made to address the needs and aspirations of citizens especially the previously marginalised communities. Notwithstanding the above, much still needs to be done in terms of public service transformation. If good governance systems are to be maintained and accountability and public ethics upheld, active stakeholders' involvement is indispensable. The African Good Governance Network (AGGN) (2010:8) demands that the governed must have adequate rights to participate in demanding for government accountability. Good governance is the whole set of crisscrossing and webs of human development-oriented engagements between the governed and those governing. Thus, change is inevitable.

The above discussions on public administration reform indicate a symbiotic relationship between good governance and public service reform. In social sciences the concepts governance and good governance are contested ones. The concepts vary in definitions, models and application. However, as indicated in chapter one under limitations of study section, this study scope is confined to governance and good governance practices. In this regard, governance is focussed on the exercise of public service in terms of practices and service delivery. Rondinelli (2007:4) notes that rapid globalisation that happened since 1990 has altered the *modus operandi* of governments' way of doing things. Various studies such as Rondinelli (2007:4); Cheema (2007:30); Loftler (2009:216) posit that the meaning and application of governance and good governance depend on the existing government system. The type of governance practices being exercised defines the governance of that particular system. Like many social sciences issues, governance is not a new concept. Dwivedi and Mishra (2007:702) maintain that the concept of governance is as old as human civilisation. Pierre and Peters (2000:1) maintain that "governance is an old term. It was known in France (as *gouvernance*) in the fourteenth century although it quickly came to refer to royal officers rather than to the process of governing or steering". In this respect, governing or steering concept is relevant for the purpose of this study. It refers to the manner public sectors are administered to be able to delivery services to the people. In addition,



Skelcher (2008:29) states that good public governance generally refers to different corporate arrangements applied to the organisations through which public policy is shaped, made and executed, “the regime of laws, rules, judicial decision and administrative practices that constraint, prescribe, and enable the provision of publicly supported goals and services”.

Furthermore, the AGGN (2010:5) reveals that a study conducted in 1989 by the World Bank on the Sub-Saharan Africa entitled: *Sub-Saharan Africa: from Crisis to Sustainable Growth. A long-term perspective study*, confirmed that governance is certainly not a new term. The above-mentioned study indicated that the concept “had been dealt with by Max Weber, who in the early twentieth century, without necessarily using the term, outlined the functions of a bureaucracy that would facilitate development and called for strict observance of the rule of law and legal rationality - and also advised against a mixture of private interests with the public responsibilities of the bureaucrat” (AGGN, 2010:5). The AGGN (2010:6) further observes that many African scholars like Ali Mazrui and Claude Ake have dealt with the concept from an African context. The term evolved from the search by economics and political scientists for an all-embracing concept capable of conveying diverse meanings not covered by the term government. Fundamentally, the AGGN (2010) explains that the qualification of the term with ‘good’ has given birth to a whole new concept - good governance.

Various schools of thought define and conceptualise governance and good governance to put forward a clear and concise meaning and application of these two concepts. One school of thought that includes the World Bank, IMF and UN, view the concept governance in a technical sense. According to this school of thought, governance is an approach to ensure that the state and its institutions deliver services that address the economic and social development of the country. Similarly, Ladi (2008:9) concurs that the concept “good governance has been discussed in literature, and in addition to institutions mentioned above, the concept governance has been extensively utilised by other organisations such as Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD). The purpose was to promote institutional governance practices and service delivery.

Loffler (2009:216) establishes that the World Bank reinvented the term governance in a World Bank Report of 1998 to signal “a new approach to development that was based on the belief that economic prosperity is not possible without a minimum level of rule of law and democracy”. However, critics including Ladi (2008:9) claim that public administration reform aiming at good governance and modernisation of the state was not an original goal. The purpose of initial public administration reforms that took place in the early 1980s was to give more power to the State in order to control all aspects of life. This can be seen from the Thatcher revolution. For this reason, the implementation of reform strategies differs from country to country. Even so, Ladi (2008:9) clarifies that the present concept of governance is a broad term that includes values and practices such as legality, justice, trust of laws and institutions, efficiency, responsibility, budgeting, management of human resources and crisis management. From an outlook perspective, this school of thought concerns primarily with economic progress and success particularly in developing nations.

While the view of the afore-mentioned school of thought might be relevant, in the context of this study, it is argued that an increase in economic growth and development alone in a particular country does not necessarily trickle down to and benefit the rural poor. In addition to positive economic growth and development, there must also be other complementary mechanisms to compel public institutions to actually make sure that all citizens, including ordinary members of the society, benefit from government-led programmes. These mechanisms amongst others include competent civil service, institutional reforms, capacity building, actual and not rhetoric decentralisation of government power and services, transparency, accountability, active public participation and fair and just treatment of all people. Ahrens (2011:10-11) seems to agree with the above when the author states that the “public service needs to build sufficient capacity to create appropriate technical and administrative skills to implement policies”. It should be noted that this study does not necessarily imply that the preceded views are not relevant. But, from the perspective of inclusive service delivery especially to previously disadvantaged rural poor, other factors must also come to play.

The second school of thought, according to Solomon (2007:4-5), regards governance as a holistic approach that transcends the state and its institutions. It refers to the process of steering the state and the society towards the realisation of the collective goals. It is from this viewpoint that this study has focused, and explored, discussed and explained the nature, scope and the extent to which good governance influences service delivery in the Oshana Region. The view of this school of thought is also appropriate to the Mercy Model that has been adapted in this study. Salomon (2007:4-5) maintains that the second school of thought is widely supported because it enhances good governance, participatory democracy and in fact inclusive and equitable service delivery. Of worth noting is that, this school of thought goes beyond the confine of state and its power to include all sectors of society that make it possible for government to achieve its goals and objectives of service delivery. In particular, Namibia's national development plans that are aimed at achieving Vision 2030 seem to have been framed around the views of this school of thought.

Fundamentally, the meaning of the word "good" must be succinctly analysed to put into perspective the concept good governance. The most important starting point is; when is governance considered good? According to Ndue (2005:4) governance is good when it meets at least the basic ingredients of democratic exercise - 'democratic good governance'. The word 'good' implies that governance is considerate, efficient, transparent and accountable, and embraces diverse views and opinions before political and administrative decisions are taken. In the view of the Mercy Corps, governance is good if government procedures, systems and processes "are accountable, transparent, just, responsive and participatory" (Mercy Corps, 2011:2). As maintained by Dwivedi and Mishra (2007:702) good governance or good administration is a necessity for any government to produce the maximum outcomes that can improve the living standard of the people.

In this regard, the United Nations (2006:37) maintains that the World Bank characterises the concept "good governance as predictable, open and enlightened policy making, a bureaucracy imbued with professional ethos, an executive arm that is accountable for its actions; and a strong civil society participating in public affairs". Good governance practices concern with the proper functioning of public service, and well-coordinated corporation with all stakeholders in order to achieve intended development goals. Moreover, the United Nations (2006:37) explains that the OECD sees the concept good governance as consisting of a "set of principles that address the effective functioning of government, the relationship of citizens" with all State organs. These

principles include “respect for the rule of law, openness, transparency and accountability to democratic institutions, fairness and equity in dealings with citizens, including mechanisms for consultation and participation; efficient, effective services; clear, transparent and applicable laws and regulations, consistency and coherence in policy formation; and high standards of ethical behaviour” (United Nations, 2006:37). The same principles are advanced by NEPAD which sees good governance as “transparency, accountability, integrity, respect for human rights and rule of law, participatory decision making, efficient and effective administrative and civil services, and parliamentary oversight”. Significantly, NEPAD views democracy and good governance as inseparable twins necessary for effective service delivery and eventually sustainable development. (United Nations, 2006:37).

Punyaratabandhu (2004:9) reveals that in 2004, the United Nations surveyed 28 countries in the five sub-regions of Africa on the issues of good governance. According to Punyaratabandhu the survey has identified six components that influence good governance practices. They are as follow:

- A political system that encourages broad input from all elements of civil society;
- Impartial and credible electoral administration and an informed and active electorate;
- Strengthened public sector legislative and administrative institutions;
- Transparency, predictability and accountability in political, oversight and regulatory decisions by government and public bodies;
- Effective public sector management with stable macroeconomic policy, effective resource mobilisation and efficient use of public resources; and,
- Adherence to the rule of law in a manner that protects personal and civil liberties and gender equity and ensures public safety and security with equal access to justice for all.

Generally speaking, governance can be understood as the ensemble of ideas and structures on which social organisations are based. In this context, social organisation refers to a group of interconnected structures that should work together to achieve a common objectives. Brown and Barnett (2009:31) state that a social organisation suggests, “the systems of obligation-relations which exist among and between the groups constituting a given society”. Thus, in this regard, governance implies a system of interconnectedness and interrelatedness working for the common course. In other words, it entails mutual relations (in terms of attaining public benefits) between government, private sectors, civil society and ordinary members of the society. Stoll

(2011:264) concludes that so far States have been the most important frameworks for such governance, since they did and still do assume the highest level of authority and legitimacy. Ahrens (2011:8) suggests that actual governance practices represent formal and informal organisational strategies which direct policy formulation and execution. Ahrens (2011:8) further states that since governance strategies vary and significantly different from one country to another, theoretical “approaches and cross-country studies need to rely on relatively broad dimensions to assess the efficacy of a country’s governance structure in a comparative way”. Weingarth and Wiederer (2011:177-178) observe that institutions are identified as the major direct factor influencing Africa’s economic development.

Notably and taking into cognisance the above discussions and explanations of the concepts, from a broader perspective, the parameters of good governance are about participatory democracy (political, social and economical), accountability, transparency, workable strategies to combat corruption, respect for the rule of law and effective and efficient management of public service. As Muhith (2007:1) remarks, “good governance is the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests might be accommodated and cooperative action might be taken. It includes formal institutions, regimes empowered to enforce compliance as well as informal arrangements that people, and institutions either have agreed to or perceive to be in their interests”.

Boons, Van Buuren, Gerrits and Teisman (2009:231) are correct to say governance emphasises the idea that there is often no single government organisation in charge of a specific collective issue. In other words, governance, and, in fact, good governance, is a process that takes place within a variety of hierarchies, markets and networks. To make it work, governance structures, strategies and practices should be designed and applied in a manner that facilitates collective interventions. This can contribute to effective and efficient policy implementation and service delivery.

Generally, what constitutes governance and good governance and how it can be achieved are matters of debate in the Public Administration literature. Particularly, from an African point of view, extensive analysis of the concept good governance is required to contextualise it. Olowu and Mukwena (2004:7) highlight five key governance issues that dominate the policy discourse in Southern Africa. These are:

- Economic governance;
- Political governance;
- Tackling social problems, such as gender and HIV/AIDS;
- Structures of central-local relations; and,
- Governance of higher educational institutions.

It must be noted that even though the above-mentioned are leaning more towards policy aspects, the achievement thereof is only practical when there are good governance practices and strategies in place. The first four governance issues identified by Olowu and Mukwena (2004:7) are relevant to this study, in relations to governance and service delivery at sub-national level. Political, economic and social objectives can only be achieved, provided government follows and applies good governance approaches and practices. Namibia is part of the global community, and operates within that particular setting. Therefore, for the country to achieve its goal in terms of service delivery, governance structures and practices should be aligned with both national needs and global values and standards. Also, it is a fact that though globalisation is a necessity, states must have the capacity to act and react particularly if globalisation affects their independence and autonomy to decide their fate (Totemeyer, 2004:70). Significantly, governance practices to be employed should be relevant to local political, social and economic environment. Interestingly, the AGGN (2013:5) “calls for explorations on the possibility of reaching a consensus on an African meaning of good governance”.

### **3.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY**

Public Administration and good governance are interweaved, therefore, inseparable. As stated earlier, the performance of public service to a larger extent depends on the governance structures and practices which are in place and employed respectively. If no operational governance structures are in place, public service performance will be affected. Similarly, if there is no good

governance practices in place, the performance of public officials will be in question, and eventually service delivery to the people will be affected. On the whole, this means that impaired governance structures and bad practices have a negative effect on public service in terms of service delivery, and to a larger degree, on Public Administration. It must be noted that Public Administration is the nerve of a government in terms of providing public services and improving the welfare of society. In this regard, the above-mentioned exposition indicates an inseparable relationship between Public Administration, governance and service delivery. The views by Shafritz and Hyde in this regard might also be important in explaining the relationship between Public Administration and governance practices and service delivery. In essence, Shafritz and Hyde (2012:46) argue that, “the objective of Public Administration is the most efficient utilisation of the resources at the disposal of officials and employees”. In other words, good Public Administration implies that proper governance practices and procedures are in place to ensure that public resources benefit intended beneficiaries. Public Administration realise the demands and aspirations of the people as expressed in the constitution and other governance frameworks. Significantly, Shafritz and Hyde (2012:26) confirm that, “good administration seeks the elimination of waste, the conservation of material and energy, and the most rapid and full achievement of public purposes consistent with economy and the welfare of the people”. Holmes (2011:1) could not be more clear when he elaborates that, the “theory and practices of Public Administration is increasingly concerned with placing the citizen at the centre of policymakers’ considerations, not just as target, but also as agent”. In addition, Holmes (2011:1) explains that, “the aim is to develop policies and design services that respond to individuals’ needs and are relevant to their circumstances”. In other words, Public Administration aims at ‘putting the citizens first (Szeremeta and Kerby, 2007:169). Therefore, as Naidoo (2004:64) “sums it up saying, public administration is clearly necessary to meet the needs and demands of society”.

In a democratic setting, good governance and Public Administration coexist. Focusing on one and ignoring the other may result in corrupt practices, skewed distribution of public resources, and in effect, denying citizens their constitutional entitlement in terms of deliverance of services, particularly those at sub-national level. Farazmand (2007:22) concludes that good governance and Public Administration are in fact alive and will continue to persist. In the view of Aktan and Ozler (2008:172) good governance practices attempts to balance policy development and execution, as well as bridging the gap between “democracy and rule of law, and between Political Science and Public Administration”.

While Public Administration concerns with “civil service or some other organisations that have to put into effect the decisions that are made by policy makers” (Badun, 2013:137), such goals can only be achieved if there are good governance practices in place. Likewise, sustainable development and desired service delivery, which depend on the quality of Public Administration and its public service, can only be realised through democratic principles and good governance practices. Mulikita (2002:3) maintains that the initial function of Public Administration is the creation of enabling environment to facilitate sustainable socio-economic development. If availed, such an environment encourages private sector to invest more in the economic development areas in order to create wealth and conducive opportunities for people to make a living. In reality, this may not only lead to increased job opportunities but also facilitate effective service delivery to the people.

According to Bourgon (2009:14) applying good governance practices in public sector allows governments to “improve their capacity to tap the collective intelligence of society, to extract knowledge and meaning about emerging patterns and trends in the social system”. In short, good governance practices promote good Public Administration and vice versa. Nealer (2011:153) argued that those charged with public service responsibilities; must have the capacities to introduce and apply good governance practices in order “to promote a seamless, open, ethical, professional and accountable system of governance”. This, according to Nealer (2011:153), can be done through the following:

- continuously engaging the broader community in the decision-making process through appropriate public, private and development sector partnerships.
- ensuring social, ethical and political accountability.
- developing appropriate monitoring, evaluation and reporting systems and processes.
- building the capacity and capability of all relevant governance bodies.

The above indicate that public service alone might not be sufficient to effectively address society needs. Public Administration needs to be reformed and rearranged to accommodate the demands and aspirations of the people to whom services are being delivered. The issues raised by Nealer have relevance to this study in the sense that they show complexity of the field of Public Administration. This means that a well-balanced and coordinated public service and its officials are required to render services in order to promote the living standards of the people. The reason



that Public Administration covers all three organs of the state and also forms part of the political course make planning, coordination and collaboration and accountability obligatory. Ghaus-Pasha (2009:25-26) argued that an efficient, responsive, transparent and accountable Public Administration is imperative for the proper functioning of the State. It means government strategies are well positioned to achieve the nation's political, social and economic goals and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In the context of Namibia, good public service promotes national development objectives and subsequently realise Vision 2030. The attainment of these goals is important because it depicts the application of good governance practices. In other words, national development goals, MDGs and Vision 2030 can only be realised through democratic governance and good administrative systems. Vision 2030 is a long term national plan that will take Namibia from the present into the future and guide the country to make deliberate efforts to improve the quality of people's lives to the level of their counterparts in the developed world by the year 2030 (Malumo, 2012:1). Ghaus-Pasha (2009:26) posits that, "recent global trends, with increased globalisation, emphasis on the rights-based approach to development, decentralisation and commitment to time-bound human development targets - have changed expectations from the state machinery and consequently the nature of Public Administration reforms". There is a strong desire, among not only policy makers, but also bureaucrats and society for collaboration, consultation and working together to address societal needs. This can make governments effective in their respective approaches to governance and service delivery. It was mentioned earlier in this chapter that democratic governance practices shape administrative processes and systems. It moves administrative systems from state-centred decisions into a system in which all opinions and suggestions are equally considered; that is, the notion of people's government. In short, application of good governance practices improves Public Administration and contributes effective service delivery.

In Africa in particular, Ghaus-Pasha (2009:25-26) points out that in the 1980s and 1990s, Public Administration reforms were predominantly to change the way state operates. It attempted to make government institutions more democratic and accountable. In this regard, the public service is required to not only be efficient in the utilisation of public resources but also to be effective in the manner those resources are used to deliver public goods. In addition, Public Administration reform was an attempt to strengthen the capacity of public institutions and make them adaptive and responsive to societal needs taking into account both domestic and global environment. Naidoo (2004:64) notes that Public Administration "reform has emerged in response to political changes and increasing needs and demands from society". Analysis of

Public Administration literature reveals that in any society citizens expect the state and its agencies to promote their social and economic wellbeing. In the same vein, citizens expect the state to equally distribute resources and provide fair access to opportunities. Moreover, people look at the state to manage those resources and services sustainably, and develop active partnerships with all stakeholders. Inclusion of private sector and civil society as well as active involvement of members of community in government decision making and policy implementation are imperative to public sector performance, and consequently service delivery.

Skelcher (2008:36-37) observes that the current “scholarly and conceptual use of the concept governance in the field of Public Administration tends to take various forms”. These include a change in governance arrangements, change in performance, unintended change in social welfare, and also offer potential for local communities to meet their diverse service needs. This implies that governance determines the manner government structures are created and implemented. It also influences service delivery and make it more focusing on citizens’ needs. Moreover, good governance encourages community participation in aspects of their daily lives. Despite that above, it must be noted that putting in place and implementing good governance practices may also have negative unintended effects to both sub-national governments and society. Firstly, the construction of a rural gravel road may require that some people be relocated to pave way for such development. In the process, some people might lose fertile land for cultivation resulting in low food production.

Secondly, commercialisation of some essential services such as water and electricity may lead to an increase in communities’ financial burden due to high rates they have to pay to access such services. Finally, as it is discussed in chapter four, good governance practices promote development, which eventually lead to increased urbanisation. This study argues that even though the above-mentioned negative unintended effects of governance may exist, the society’s benefits derived from good governance practices are enormous. Thus, without necessarily ignoring the negative unintended effects of governance, good governance practices should be encouraged to ensure effective service delivery to all people. For this reason, governance must be all-embracing. In other words, governance practices should take into consideration all people regardless of their respective status in society.

In this regard, Skelcher (2008:37-38) questions the possibility to uncover or validate scientific association between governance arrangements to public sector performance. Honke and Thomas (2012:13) ask “how doing good turns out to be doing bad?” These questions are relevant to good governance practices and arrangements. They are pointed to the fact that Public Administration is crucial because it cuts across all aspects of the public service. It should be noted that, though desired in any society, good governance practices might as well carry some negative unintended consequences. Fundamentally, the above can be explained against the background of democratic governance practices *vis-a-vis* service delivery. Whereas citizens have constitutional rights to choose the government of the day through democratic means, and by extension, the governance system, there is no guarantee that governance agencies will live up to the wishes, demands and interests of the people. In this respect, institutional capacity and direct involvement of the people in governance affairs are fundamental to addressing people needs and minimise negative unintended effects. According to the United Nations (2010:211), in the absence of genuine efforts to increase citizens’ involvement in political process and in policy making decisions, many administrative reforms will have little effect on the lives of the citizens.

Public Administration is rooted in the surrounding society. The purpose of Public Administration is to provide service to the people. Thus, to meet the needs and demands of society, people should be involved in the affairs of the State. In this regard, Peters and Pierre (2012:3) maintain that Public Administration is the “explication of the collective interest and its legitimacy, to a significant extent, hinges on its ability to play a part in the pursuit of those interests”. In this context, the embedded notion highlights a symbiotic link between public administration and society. Moreover, Peters and Pierre (2012:3) argue that the scope and nature of public administration make it possible to assist in understanding the reason for relationship between citizens and the government, and by extension, public administration. From Public Administration viewpoint, adherence to government procedures and standards are necessary to good governance practices and service delivery. Therefore, by involving society in decision making and delivery of services, the government improves its capability to utilise public resources more effectively and prudently. According to Peters and Pierre (2012:3), the society-centred perspective of public administration depicts the notion of political decisions that take into account all groups in society. This may create political pressure between the public officials and members of the public. This might be true because public administration controls public resources, and sometimes operate from a distance. Society might feel that public service is not fulfilling its political responsibility in terms of governance practices and service delivery to

citizens. The above discussion illustrates symbiotic relationships between public administration and society. As such, public administration cannot be separated from society.

Yet, Rothstein's (2012:413) view is that, the systems of Public Administration vary tremendously in their relation to societal actors and the public at large. Basically, these variations could be addressed through institutionalising good governance practices and allowing society to set government agenda. In other words, public engagement in decision making on issues affecting them, and good governance practices by public sector officials are catalysts to effective and efficient Public Administration and consequently acceptable manner in which services are delivered. Holmes (2011:15) avers that, "engagement is not a single process or set of activities. An ongoing process or conversation builds trust and relationship". It is, therefore, in a sense that society influences governance practices and, by extension, Public Administration.

Das (2010:112) espouses that governance as an alternative approach to public sector, and specifically to Public Administration, represents an attempt to involve society more in governing and to reduce bureaucracy elements of the system. The basic ills of the government are that bureaucracy has led to wasting the talents of the people inside the government and has alienated the public. This implies that complex bureaucracy hinders performance, and decreases innovations. Rigid rules and procedures are counter-productive in the public service. To the extreme, Das (2010:112) confirms, some scholars of Public Administration have argued that there can be governance without government and that the networks in society are capable of organising themselves and providing direction to particular segments of society. Maheshwari (2007:313) claims that governance is essentially a value-laden normative concept, defined as 'how well do governments govern' or 'does the government serve us well'. In essence, this implies that democracy requires that government and its Public Administration be facilitators of state activities. The society should set the agenda and the government must listen in order to help society in realising its goals and objectives.

According to Skelcher (2007:37-38) Public Administration functions well in an environment in which political decisions are made based on consensus and that policies are implemented depending on the needs and aspirations of the society. For this to happen, good governance practices should be designed and considerately applied. Despite that, Skelcher (2008:37-38) notes that there are no signs that policy makers are lessening their willingness to engage in institutional design of new governance arrangements.

### 3.4 THE MERCY CORPS GOOD GOVERNANCE FRAMEWORK MODEL

The Mercy Corps Good Governance Framework Model, hereto referred to as “Mercy Model”, has been used by the researcher to suggest a model that is more relevant to governance and service delivery in Namibia. Mercy Corps is an international organisation that works with public and private institutions, and assists them on aspects of good governance practices. This organisation has its roots in the 1979 Cambodian refugee crisis (Saha and Jayawickrama, 2010:17). It started as small organisation dealing and helping destitute people in developing countries who were displaced by conflicts and wars. Since then, it grew tremendously and became “a humanitarian relief and development organisation that advances community-led and market driven interventions in over 40 countries” (Saha and Jayawickrama, 2010:17). It is, therefore, on the development side of the Mercy Corps Organisation that this study draws interest. In other words, this study, while appreciating the whole contribution made by the Mercy Corps in developing countries, is more interesting in the good governance model and principles advanced by the Mercy Model. This understanding helped the researcher to propose governance practices model (as discussed later in this chapter) which is appropriate to Namibia.

Apart from providing humanitarian relief and supporting rural communities to become self-sufficient, the organisation places a huge emphasis on good governance structures and practices. Central to this concept are democratic principles that enable governments and institutions to operate efficiently and effectively in the delivery of public services. As indicated by the Mercy Model, “these principles are accountability, transparency, equity and inclusiveness, and participation” (Mercy Corps, 2012:5). The Mercy Model has been applied with success in several developing countries in Europe, Asia and Africa. According to the Mercy Corps (2012) the following development programmes were initiated and successfully implemented: In Kosovo, the Municipal Infrastructure and Support Initiative Programmes were introduced to promote community participatory governance and strengthen the capacity of local authorities (Mercy Corps, 2012:76). In India, public-private partnerships were introduced to expand market and create wealth in the tea growing industry and connect it with small famers (Mercy Corps, 2012:29). In the Democratic Republic of Congo, a programme was introduced to ensure access to portable water of the population of Goma areas. While in South Sudan, training programmes were implemented to provide leadership and youth participatory skills training. In Somalia, a programme was implemented to ensure that young people have access to basic education while at the same time provided training to teachers and school committees to improve leadership

capacity (Mercy Corps, 2012). These are just some, but successful initiatives and social and economic programmes of the Mercy Model. The application of this model helped to promote and build a strong relationship between public and private sectors as well as civil society. Fundamentally, the above-mentioned initiatives and programmes are aimed at building capacity of local authority, civil society and communities to overcome service delivery challenges.

Although the examples provided above are of countries that have been in conflict and some were even torn apart by many years of civil wars, the emphasis here, which is also the focus of this study, is that good governance practices have the potential to promote democratic governance and subsequently increase service delivery in society. The Mercy Model is not only a theoretical description, but, to a large extent, it can be practically applied to address service delivery to improve the livelihoods of the people.

The Mercy Model suggests that “peaceful, secure and just societies emerge when public, private and civil society sectors are able to interact with accountability, inclusive participation and mechanisms for peaceful change” (Mercy Corps, 2011:2). Moreover, the Mercy Model depicts capacity building of governance sectors (public, private, civil society), while establishment institutional capacity to be able to coordinate with each other. In view of this model, public sector is the main actor to good governance. However, it requires constant support from private sector and civil society. Public sector is composed of structures and systems deliberately established “for service delivery and ensuring security, voice and institutions of all people in a country’s borders who fall under authority of the State” (Mercy Corps, 2013:1). To implement this framework is dependent on the State machinery. Firstly, it requires a legitimate government with high regard of its citizens, active public participation, and respect for human rights. Secondly, proper institutional arrangements and capacity, as well as good governance structures and practices should be in place. As it was indicated earlier, the Mercy Model is framed around the following key good governance characteristics, of which a responsible government cannot do without:

- democracy and rule of law;
- inclusive and accountable decision-making;
- equitable civic participation;
- effective public service delivery; and,
- government responsibility.

The above-mentioned characteristics are fundamental to democratic governance and service delivery. As illustrated by Gregory (2007:341), the state bears 'objective responsibility' to facilitate service delivery at sub-national levels. This requires government agencies (national, regional and local institutions) to employ cautious strategies in dealing with and utilising state resources. Firstly, the notion of constitutional responsibility should be adhered to at all times. Democratic governments are obliged by their respective constitutions to maintain and respect human dignity, and promote political, social and economic development relevant to people's well-beings. Nef (2007:326) cautions that if the State cannot maintain political and economic sovereignty, protect the life and well-being of its citizens, safeguard democratic rights and assure participation - in brief - provides for human security, its very reason for existence becomes problematic.

Secondly, the Mercy Model emphasises responsible decision-making. Good governance practices encourage effectual coordination at all levels of government if people's needs are to be served. Thirdly, public service delivery requires State institutions to effectively and efficiently respond to citizens' needs and demands. In chapter one of this study, it was indicated that government responsibility to promote the welfare of all citizens. In this regard, good governance practices and prompt response are necessary. "Good governance exists only where there is responsiveness, equity and consistency in the way resources are allocated to the needs especially those of the poor people" (Sebudubudu, 2010:251).

Finally, Mercy Model emphasises community involvement in the affairs of the state as central to good governance and service delivery. This means that government's decisions and actions should not be imposed on the people. Issues affecting communities must be publicly discussed and mutually agreed to before decisions are taken. Consultation and communication among actors are paramount. Essentially, this model highlights democratic governance features that are also widely advocated by various studies such as Republic of Namibia (2012:38); Sebudubudu (2010:251); AGGN (2010:7-8); Diarra and Plane (2011:9); Rondinelli (2007:7-8); Chabal (2009:55); United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2006:23); and Robison (2009:6). These features include rule of law, citizens' participation, accountability, transparency, equity, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency.

It must be noted that even though this study has used the Mercy Model to explore and analyse good governance and service delivery at sub-national level in Namibia, it has also taken into cognisance other models and theories including those advanced by authors and institutions mentioned in the preceded paragraph. Therefore, by selecting and adopting one particular model or theory does not, in any way, imply that others are not relevant. Plausibly so, all good governance models and theories were crafted to help public sectors, civil society, private sectors and members of the public, particularly in the developing countries, to overcome their dilemmas and address their respective political, socio-economic environment in a manner that is beneficiary to their respective citizens. This study does not also imply that the Mercy Model should be copied and applied to Namibia. The application of governance principles as identified by the Mercy Model should be done within the context of the Namibian governance framework and its environments.

The above statement holds true because developing economies especially in Africa were perceived to have lacked good governance practices and the capacity to handle their own domestic affairs (Weingarth and Wiederer, 2011:200). Governments, then, corruptly used state resources to benefit only the affluent while ignoring the masses at grassroots levels. In their study, Weingarth and Wiederer (2011:200) discover that African states do not have effective governance structures that allow for sustainable economic development. If good governance practices are properly enforced, Weingarth and Wiederer (2011:200) advise, African states can follow the development of East Asian countries.

This study maintains that though it is appropriate for a country like Namibia to adopt and apply good governance practices, significantly, governance model is not a 'one size fits all' approach. Each country is unique in terms of its environment. Consideration to adopt and apply specific good governance practices is entirely depending on the country's political, cultural, social and economic environment. Institutional arrangement and the capacity to put into effect those practices are, to a larger degree, determinants of country success.

The Mercy Corps (2013:3) states that good governance model should be "informed by vision for change and commitment to relief and development programming that is both community-led and market driven". The aspect of institutional coordination, feasible intergovernmental relations and stakeholders' involvement are critical. In other words, good governance practices and effective service delivery requires coordinated efforts. Government as the main actor, private sector, and



civil society should work together if an acceptable life standard of all people is to be realised. That is what the Mercy Model is insisting on. In relation to this study, the researcher argues that Namibia stands a good chance to become one of the shining examples of Africa in terms of promoting good governance practices and service delivery because of the following indicators:

- The country has a democratic constitution that recognises and respects the rights and freedoms of all people, in terms of equal participation in state activities.
- The government has in place governance structures (regional and local government) at sub-national to facilitate and advise central government on governance and service delivery related issues.
- Decentralisation policy was adopted and implemented to ensure that government services are brought closer to the people particularly the previously disadvantaged communities.

To sum up, Namibia has one of the best legal frameworks for governance and service delivery in Africa. The problem, however, is the manner in which public sector officials act on their mandates and apply existing governance practices. Lack of capacity in public institutions, unequal distribution of state resources and lack of transparency among public officials are some of the issues that should be addressed. Regional and local governments lack capacity and resources to address communities' needs. For example, these institutions do not have sufficient planners, engineers, environmentalists and surveyors and architects, and this has persisted since Namibia's independence. As a result, the lack of the above-mentioned professionals at sub-national levels has contributed to poor service delivery. The institutions of governance referred to above, though well regulated, the practices thereof need to be revisited. In this regard, this study proposed a model of good governance practices for public service. Here, the emphasis is on appropriate legal frameworks, adherence to good governance principles, stakeholders' involvement, and proper institutional arrangements. All in all, these will make public service more efficient and effective to deliver quality services to the people. It is maintained that once this model is correctly applied, it can improve regional and local governance practices and service delivery in Namibia in general and the Oshana Region in particular.

### **3.5 PROPOSED GOOD GOVERNANCE PRACTICES MODEL FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE OF NAMIBIA**

It was indicated in the previous section that the fundamental constitutional obligation of the State is to deliver services to citizens. Thus, public service must focus on the welfare of citizens. Naidoo (2004:70) asserts that public administration is essentially the execution of various functions, namely: policy-making, organising, staffing, determining work procedures and control. Bourgon (2009:5) says that, “one challenge for governments and public administrators is thus to move government programmes, services and activities up the value added chain of results”. Furthermore, Bourgon (2009:8) maintains that, “governments are the providers of public services, the problem-solvers, the arbiters and the decision makers. Therefore, many public reforms have focussed on the direct services delivery role of government to citizens”. It is, therefore, argued by Naidoo (2004:79) that [good] governance is an approach to strengthen the public service and make it more responsive to the needs of society.

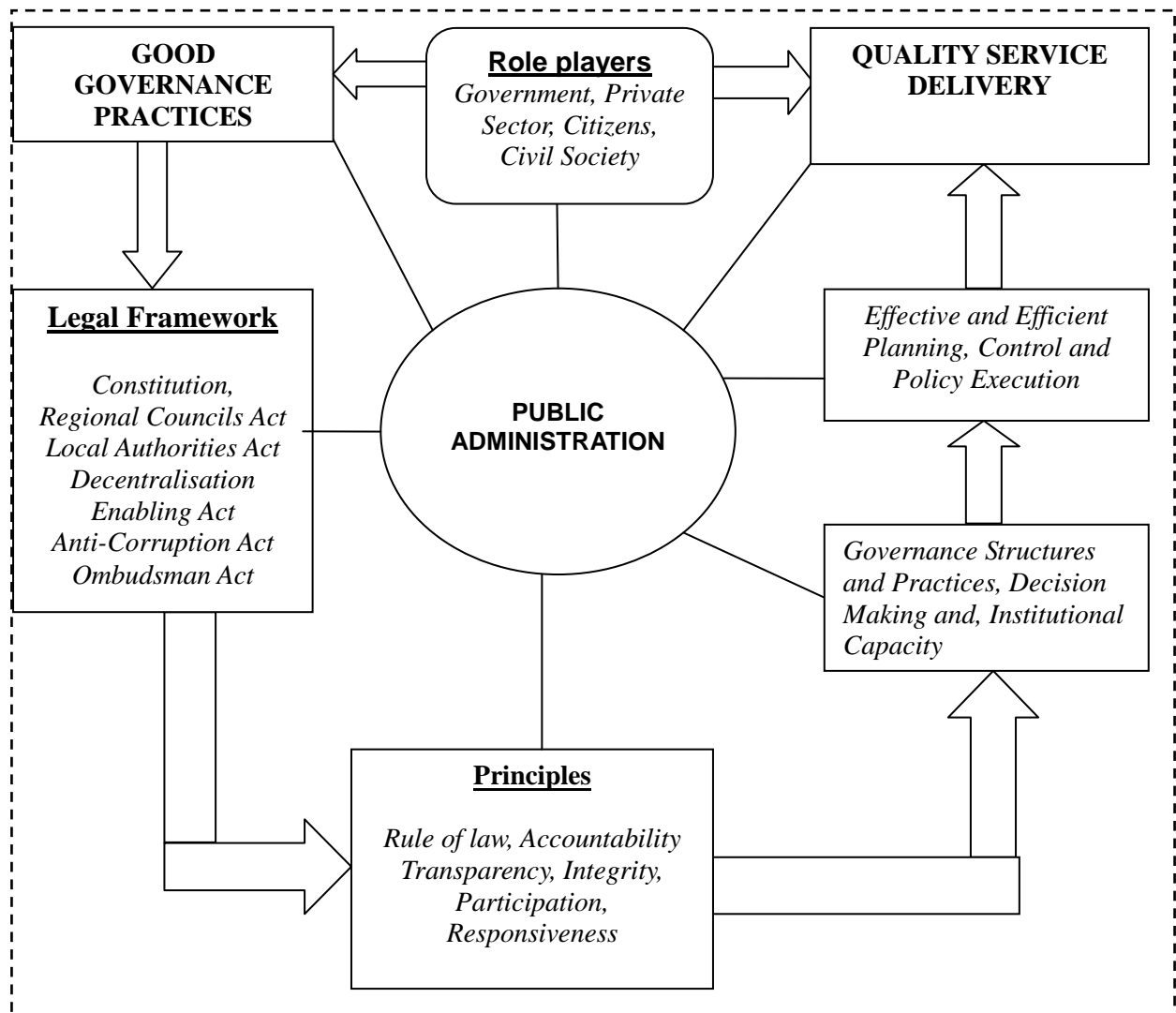
Good governance practices are the characteristics of democratic government in which involvement of all citizens is recognised and valued. Governance practices also place an emphasis on enhancement of socio-economic development. The United Nations (1995:6) concludes that developing countries should be formally committed to three important goals. They are as follow:

- survival of the state and strengthening of national political and economical independence;
- modernisation of the society through industrialisation, social development and the application of science and technology, and changes in socio-economic relations and behaviour; and,
- active participation by private sector and communities in governance aspects and decision making, thereby bringing about representative institutions, political equality, participative governance and the guarantee of collective and individual rights.

In essence, the aforementioned goals require a well-designed governance structures and practices to enable government to meet the needs and aspirations of society. It is indicated in chapter one that government alone cannot provide sufficient services to the people, thus, involvement of all stakeholders in government programmes is very crucial. Chapter four of this study discusses the importance of public-private partnership which is regard as the key to effective service delivery. This illustrates that proper service delivery to society can only be realised when mechanisms are put in place to facilitate such delivery. Naidoo (2004:64) states that, “the purpose of public service is to provide services to the society, but before any services are provided certain functions should be undertaken in the public service”. The United Nations (1995:50) states that these functions, amongst others, include organisational arrangements and institutional capabilities. In other words, planning, decision making, coordination, and proper implementation must take place.

To promote good governance practices and enhance service delivery in Namibia, the study has proposed and designed a governance model as illustrated under *figure 3.1*. The ***Process Model*** emphasises the imperativeness of taking into consideration all aspects related to governance in order to achieve the required results. The correct interpretation and application of this model can strengthen governance, enhance service delivery and, by extension, improve the living standard of all people. As part of recommendations, chapter six explained the significance of ‘process model’ to good governance and effective public service.

**Figure 3.1: Proposed Good Governance Practices Model in the Namibia Public Service: Process Model**



Source: Helao (2014) - (adapted from Mercy model and various governance frameworks in Namibia)

Good governance practices are necessary to ensure that public administration achieve its goals of service delivery and promoting socio-economic development. In other words, if public service is to succeed, public administration reform must be undertaken to accommodate good governance practices. Even so, Briggs (2007:5) explains that “approaches or models for building better governance differs considerably depending on agency size, complexity, structure and legislative background”. In addition, Briggs (2007:5) avers that well-crafted models may not serve any purpose if there are no mechanisms that inspire public officials to assume responsibilities for governance practices and service delivery to society. As such, Badun (2008:136) maintains that

contemporary public governance requires public service to keep abreast with development trends and process to be able to effectively deliver services. In addition, public service should promote and maintain the principles of good governance practices.

The model depicted in *figure 3.1* represents a sequential approach to effective and efficient governance practices and service delivery in Namibia. Governance practices derive from government's legitimacy. In the context of Namibia, for example, the Constitution and other laws are central to democratic governance. For public administration to provide equitable services it requires government institutions to abide by constitutional provisions and other relevant laws. Likewise, proper implementation of policies increases the delivery of services at sub-national level. Government does not operate in isolation, thus, stakeholders' involvement is needed. This democratic governance setting calls for government's accountability, integrity, transparency, responsiveness, as well as active public participation. Consequently, government is expected to put in place proper governance structures, improve institutional capacity, and take and implement decisions that are beneficial to the people, especially the previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities. In this regard, proper planning, control, and continuous programme and project evaluation are indispensable to quality service delivery.

This study suggests that good governance practices are central to public service performance and service delivery to society. However, as it has been illustrated in *figure 3. 1*, good governance practices are only possible if there are in place recognised legal frameworks to regulate the activities and behaviours of public administrators. Therefore, the Constitution, Regional Councils Act, Local Authorities Act, Decentralisation Enabling Act, Ant-Corruption Act and the Ombudsman Act are critical foundations in ensuring good governance practices and eventually equitable delivery of services to society. Moreover, public administration, and by extension, good governance, will flourish in the presence of "effective and strong leadership" (Naidoo, 2004:7; Briggs, 2007:6). In this regard, Briggs (2007:7) asserts that good governance practices are promoted if the actions and behaviours of public officials at all government levels possess the necessary skills and competences to utilise and control state resources. In other words, well organised administrative component respect citizens' constitutional rights, therefore, strive to meet the interests and demands of such society.

The Namibian Constitution established Namibia as a unitary state. It means that government operates as a whole. The notion of unitary state possesses a challenge to public service with regard to decentralisation of authority and functions. In effect, this has direct implications on

governance practices and service delivery. Other countries, for example, Ethiopia, Nigeria, France, and the United States of America have federal governments – that allows a complete decentralisation of decision making powers to states and provinces. Briggs (2007:13) notes that the “governance implications of whole government approaches centre are on the need to know who is responsible for what actions”. In this context, accountability, transparency, integrity, active participation and responsiveness are imperative. These governance principles provide an opportunity to citizens to hold public administrators accountable for their respective actions. Also in this governance system, the provision of services is centred on acceptable governance framework and involvement of the citizens. Briggs (2007:13) declares that this approach requires a well-managed and coordinated governance especially accountability arrangements. In essence this means that for the government to delivery effective services, there is need for effective control mechanisms and collaboration between public and private institutions. Institutions such as Auditor-General Office, Public Protector Office and the Anti-Corruption Commission Office must be effective enough to promote administrative accountability and avert misuse of public resources. This study, therefore, argues that acceptable governance framework, if put in place and respected by government institutions; will culminate into government accountability, transparency, citizens participation and responsiveness, and by extension, the delivery of quality service to citizens.

The creation of governance structures and application of good practices especially at sub-national level is imperative to service delivery. Governance structures create a platform for citizens’ involvement in decision making thereby smoothening implementation of government policies and programmes. Swanepoel and De Beer (2010:28-29) posit that, “it is the democratic right of people to participate in matters affecting their future”. Accordingly, if the people are not afforded an opportunity to participate in decision making and service delivery programmes the blame should not only be labelled on the people themselves but also on government structures and practices. It could be mentioned that the enactment of Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Act of 1992 as well as the adoption of Decentralisation Policy in 1998 were intentionally done to complement the constitutional provision of bringing the decision making and government services closer to the people.

The establishment of governance structures at sub-national levels has created the need for institutional capacity building to facilitate proper planning and decision making. In other words, decentralising functions to sub-national levels should be accompanied by both human and financial resources necessary to strengthen service delivery. It also means developing adequate infrastructural facilities to facilitate governance and service delivery. The central argument here is that if the aim of decentralisation is to bring government and services closer to the people, then public institutions at sub-national levels must be well equipped and capacitated to be able to plan, govern and deliver services to the people. In this regard, planning, governing and service delivery are more effective when involving community members. Maphunye (2009:9) avers that “planning is a critical tool for affecting development, with some authors pointing to its great value when applied in consultation with members of communities for whom development is intended”.

According to the United Nations (1995:48) “decision making in public administrative science is perceived as a problem solving effort to eliminate unnecessary bureaucracy in order to allow action”. In addition, “A central concept in decision making theory is measurability. The purpose of measuring is to be able to predict certain events. Measuring is done in terms of utility, normally defined in economic terms”. The United Nations Report indicates that decision making in governance and service delivery by public officials simply implies a mathematical decidability and the use of models” (United Nations, 1995:48). This study argues that a ‘process model’ is crucial as it allows government agencies to be well organised in order to achieve national development goals and Vision 2030. The United Nations Development Report (UNDP) (2011:81) indicates that for a vision to become a reality, institutions must be strengthened, capacities enhanced, policies reformed and democratic governance fortified.

As indicated in Fourth National Development Plan (NDP4) “without capacity, partnership and good governance there can be no sustainable development” (Republic of Namibia (2012:5). Central to the ‘process model’ is the fact that involvement and commitment of all stakeholders are important to good governance practices and service delivery. The government, corporate sector, civil society and ordinary citizens are all role players in the governance of public service delivery. By extension, human resources capacity plays an important role in governance and service delivery. UNDP (2010:1) argues that “people are the real wealth of a nation”. Therefore, to implement policies in a more effective manner requires institutional capacity, proper coordination and innovative human resources. The government of Namibia emphasises on

creating an environment which is appropriate to all stakeholders to coordinate efforts to promote socio-economic progress and harmony (Republic of Namibia, 2012:3). This can be seen through its social and economic policies. In essence this entails promoting partnership between government and other stakeholders in society in order to realise national goals. In the end, good partnership promotes good governance and the provision of quality services to society (Republic of Namibia, 2012:3).

It has to be emphasised that stakeholder partnership and coordination are the driving tools to equitable service delivery. The “process model” depicts that public institutions alone cannot succeed in addressing governance and service delivery aspects. They need stakeholder contribution – the hinted “stakeholder theory” (Damak-Ayadi and Prequeux, 2005:6). Rural areas setup provide a need to ensure that government resolves are made and actioned with full support of all those affected by service delivery. In the context of this study, the theory in question represents a symbiotic relationship between public institutions and community members or rather groups that influence and affected by state agencies’ resolutions (Damak-Ayadi and Prequeux, 2005:6). In actual fact, governance frameworks as discussed in section 3.7 signified the need for public officials to collaborate and coordinate with stakeholders in order to shape governance practices and service provision at sub-national levels. This is significant because it makes public officials to account not only to governance authority but also to stakeholders, as other stakeholders may take action against public institutions for non-delivery (Freeman, 2004). In figure 3.1, apart from government and its employees, other stakeholders include private sector, ordinary citizens and civil society. Therefore, the proposed ‘process model’, if correctly applied could improve governance and service delivery in Namibia.

To summarise, this process model pictures a sequential approach to good governance and service delivery. In this regard, good governance is about both performance and conformance (Briggs, 2007:1). Public service requires appropriate democratic frameworks to put into effect good governance practices and deliver services to society. The delivery of quality public services calls for effective public administration and good governance practices. In return, good governance practices promote rule of law, accountability, transparency and responsiveness. These are ingredients for proper decision making which results in effective and efficient service delivery. As indicated earlier in this chapter, the above-mentioned governance principles may only be realised in a well regulated political, economic and social environment.



### **3.6 THE CONTEXT OF GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN NAMIBIA**

Namibia is a state in transition in terms of institutional development and capacity building. Government institutions and civil service are still in the process of reform. Public administration literature shows that public service reform takes time. Therefore, in the case of Namibia, twenty-four years of independence might not be necessarily sufficient to successfully transform public institutions to provide comprehensive governance and deliver sustainable services to the people. In the above-mentioned context, transition means an on-going process of reform to improve governance and service delivery in Namibia. Transition and public service reform require both adequate financial and human resources. It also needs institutional capacities and stakeholders' involvement. It will be discussed later in this chapter; Namibia has in place good legal and institutional frameworks to facilitate good governance practices and service delivery. This provided the opportunity for public service reform and ultimately the creation of governance structures at sub-national levels. In other words, it created a situation in which government is able to reach the majority of people and provide the necessary services. It must be noted that the primary purpose of institutional transition and reform is to provide good governance and deliver services to citizens.

Pieterse (2002:3) states that “the business of the state in a transitional phase of reconstruction and development is to ensure effective service delivery so that all citizens can fulfil their basic needs and to enhance conditions of economic growth”. Therefore, if the current conducive political environment continues, Namibia has a greater opportunity to become one of the shining examples of democracy and good governance in Africa. This can be achieved if the government continues to establish functional public institutions, strengthen those institutions through respect of the constitutional provisions, application of good governance practices and accountability. Functional institutions and civil servants capacity are some of the prerequisites for effective and efficient public service and by extension Public Administration. It also calls for institutional capacity building. Ahrens (2011:12) indicates that “capacity building as a major mean to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of governmental activities, and includes institutional reform, organisational strengthening, and human resources development”.

As discussed in the ensuing *section 3.7*, Namibia has made a remarkable stride since independence to improve governance and service delivery. The extent to which citizens have benefitted is enormous. Chapter four discuss in detail the scope, nature and extent of service delivery in Namibia. In short, this study maintains that the context, in which governance practices are exercised at sub-national levels in Namibia, if improved, may address the problem of service delivery and subsequently improve the living standard of the people.

### **3.7 DEVELOPMENT IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY WITHIN THE NAMIBIAN CONTEXT**

This section deals with a brief history of public administration, governance and service delivery in Namibia. The purpose is to put into context the above-mentioned issues to enable readers to understand Namibia's governance history in order to contextualise and locate it within the governance model (process model) proposed under *section 3.4*. It is argued here that existing governance practices and the challenges faced by the Namibian government could be well understood if the governance history is put into perspective. This is the main reason behind the outlining of the under-mentioned brief background of public administration, governance and service delivery in Namibia. Furthermore, this section also discusses the governance framework available in Namibia which has a direct influence on the delivery of services to citizens.

Prior to independence in 1990, Namibia has been under the Apartheid South African colonial rule and oppression for decades. There were no properly constituted governance structures at sub-national levels, and governance practices were only applied to selected urban areas. Diescho (2010:24) calls this "a divide and rule" system. As such, the public service was not well equipped and developed to address the needs of the people, especially those at sub-national levels. Existed governance practices were exercised discriminately, based on colour and race. Democracy was regarded as a 'distant' concept in Namibia then. Accountability of the public institutions was upwards towards the central authority rather than downwards to citizens and communities. No human rights were guaranteed especially to black people. By referring to colonial history in Africa, Diescho (2010:24) states that "Africans were treated as non-persons and were continually dehumanised to the extent that they, in turn, internalised the feeling that they were not quite as human as their masters, unless the latter said so". This means that in Namibia too, institutions of governance and leaders were imposed on people. This resulted in the majority of Namibian people denied the rights to self-governance, and to partake in decisions

that are directly affecting their livelihoods. Totemeyer (2004:66) notes that before the independence of Namibia unfair treatment of indigenous people has caused suffering among them. People were treated on ethnic and racial lines. Government policies were applied discriminately. Only white people were accorded full privileges to participate in local governance, while 95% of the population was excluded. Fundamentally, good governance practices, full participation and inclusive delivery of services across all sectors of society in Namibia only gained momentum after independence in 1990.

Namibia inherited colonial laws many of which over-regulated the activities of government (Republic of Namibia, 2010:1). Such over-regulations have not only proved cumbersome but also caused delay in government programmes implementation. At independence in 1990 there were thirteen second tier of ethnic authorities, which was then transformed into one national government (Republic of Namibia, 2010:1). This transformation, however, has brought with it various political and administrative changes and the inclusion of previously marginalised society in the public service. As Geingob (2004:169) points out, in 1992 the Prime Minister's Office began with the restructuring of public service which was focusing, amongst others, on the following:

- making the public service representative of the diversity of population.
- ensuring that public service is manned by competent, skilled and dedicated personnel.
- introducing mechanisms for performance evaluation of the senior public service personnel.
- ensuring that government offices, ministries and agencies define their goals and set targets against which the performance evaluation of public service personnel can be measured.

Clearly, the above-mentioned restructuring strategies were aimed at public service reform in order to promote good governance and encourage effective service delivery to the people. Besley and Ghatak (2007:152) note that “unless the provision of public services is based on effective delivery mechanisms the resources will be wasted”.

It is imperative to note that the current governance system in the country is a direct product of the colonial history. Thirteen years ago, Diescho (2000:35) observed that Namibia was “still a nation under construction, and needed acceptable ethics in order to solidify and propel itself

forward”. The aforementioned observation by Diescho is still relevant to public service in Namibia. Public service and service delivery in the country continues with reformation to be able to address societal needs and demands.

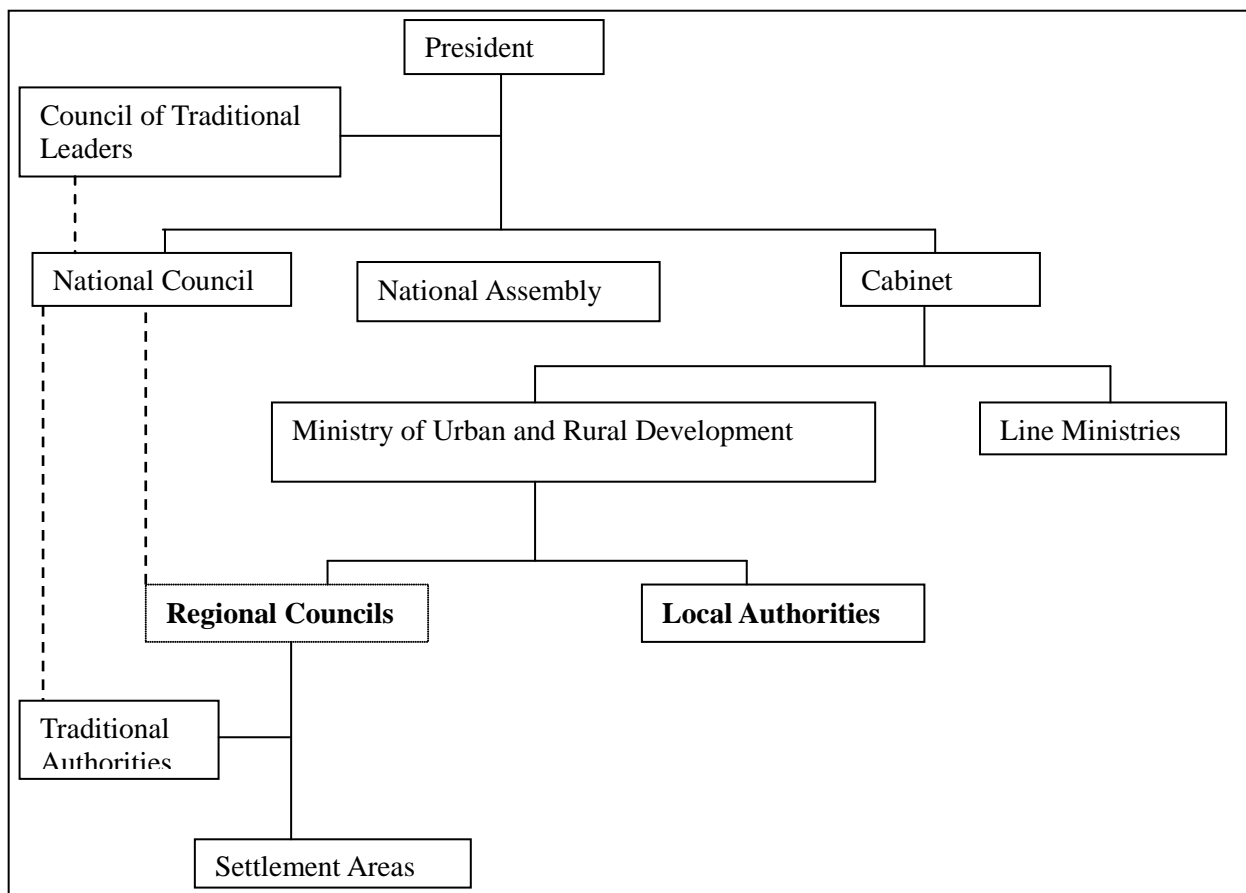
To put the constitutional provisions into effect, the state enacted various legal instruments to obligate the government to put in place governance structures, and by extension, good governance practices in order to provide much needed services to citizens. These laws, amongst others, include: the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992, Traditional Authorities Act 17 of 1995, and the Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000. The enactments thereof have culminated in the establishment of regional, local and traditional council structures at sub-national level in order to address the plight of the Namibian people.

Regional Councils, Local Authority Councils and Traditional Councils are structures of governance at sub-national level. These structures are aimed at bringing government services closer to the people. Government structures promote good governance and facilitate public service delivery at sub-national level. The question whether sub-national structures and practices are effective and efficient enough to address the plight of the people particularly the previously disadvantaged communities is central to this study. Equally, the manner how those structures coordinate and interact with central government and other stakeholders is fundamental to service delivery. Therefore, aspects of coordination, cooperation and agency-interdependence are important to understand governance and service delivery at sub-national level. Totemeyer (2004:66) rightfully points out; “it may not necessarily be fair to think that local government may exist without help from central government”. Regional and local governance in Namibia rely heavily on central government for financial support. However, they are part and parcel of the governance system of the State. In this regard, sub-national structures can only function properly if there is adequate support and commitment from central government and its agencies.

Before independence in 1990, there was no inclusive governance framework to serve the interests of all citizens (Totemeyer, 2004:68). As it was indicated earlier in *section 3.5*, governance and service delivery were done on racial basis. As such, the previously marginalised communities suffered from discriminatory distribution of government resources. Moreover, Totemeyer (2010:115) argues that during colonial era sub-national levels such as local authorities were only established for specific communities within determined geographical areas. Based on the above, the enactment of legal framework and creation of sub-national structures

were significant in addressing injustices of the past. These governance frameworks are discussed in the ensuing sections. It must be noted that the purpose of the ensuing sections is to highlight the link between legal framework and good governance and service delivery in Namibia. The Namibian Constitution, the National Development Plans (NDPs), the Regional Councils Act, Local Authorities Act, Decentralisation Policy and Decentralisation Enabling Act, Ombudsman, and Anti-Corruption Commission form the basis of good governance practices and service delivery at sub-national level in Namibia. The ensuing brief analysis is, therefore, aimed at demonstrating the significance of the legal frameworks in relation to good governance practices and inclusive service delivery.

**Figure 3.2: Structures of Government in Namibia since 1990**



*Source: Totemeyer (2010:121)*

Government structures are provided for in the Namibian Constitution. Article 102 provides for “the country to be divided into regional and local units of government” (Republic of Namibia, 1990:53). Legitimate governance structures encourage good governance practices by public officials. In return, good governance practices enforce the constitutional provisions of equitable

service delivery at sub-national. In this regard, this can only be possible when government structures and all necessary services are decentralised. Totemeyer (2010:112) regards decentralisation as equated with maximum sub-national levels participation, equity of opportunity, reform, and instil the feeling that even ordinary citizens have a role to play in decision making and policy implementation. Therefore, the creation of regional councils and local authorities was mainly for that purpose.

Having discussed the historical background of governance and service delivery, it is now necessary to put into perspective the current governance and service delivery frameworks in Namibia. The legal and institutional frameworks discussed underneath were put in place after independence in 1990. As it was mentioned earlier, the purpose was to improve good governance practices and increase service delivery. It also ensures that individual rights are respected and government resources are equitably distributed and therefore, shared by all citizens.

### ***3.7.1 The Namibian Constitution***

The independence of Namibia in 1990 has brought with it a number of significant institutional and governance structural reforms. Firstly, the Namibian Constitution was adopted, and culminated in rule of law and democracy. According to Horn (2010:63) the Namibian Constitution is a compromise document, due to the fact that it was not extensively discussed and debated between the two former military opponents. Sherazi (2011:16) notes that, “the business of writing the constitution was conducted at relatively fast pace”, and virtually all work on preparing the constitution was done in committee”. In the same line of arguments, Geingob (2010:84) states that, “the process of constitution was influenced by the vision and self-interest of various interest groups, parties, classes, sectoral interests, and individuals participating in the process”. Nonetheless, the Namibian Constitution provides the basis on which government mechanisms can be introduced and implemented to address the imbalance of the past. The Constitution guides policies formulation and implementation.

Sherazi (2011:12) argues that, the “Namibian Constitution can be said to be the product of a struggle for democracy and human rights”. Its enactment signifies the nation’s dedication to the principles of democracy, rule of law and preservation of human rights and dignity for which people have been denied for decades. This implies that the State and its agencies have committed protection of fundamental freedoms, respect and uphold the constitution at all times. Coleman

and Schimming-Chase (2010:201) maintain that the adoption of the Namibian Constitution altered the legal order. The Constitution becomes the supreme law of the land. In other words, all activities within the jurisdiction of Namibia's geographical area should be guided by the Constitution. Significantly, institutional governance practices and service delivery to the people should also be conducted within the spirit of the Constitution. In this regard, with the inclusion of the "equality clause" in the Constitution, Article 10 obligates not only public service but also the private sectors to ensure that all efforts are geared towards promoting equality and better quality of life. This means that services must be provided on equal basis. In particular, the State, as the custodian of the Constitution, should ensure that people's rights to service delivery are promoted and enforced. This might be realised through enactment of laws to regulate the provision of services, establishing proper structures, and designing good governance practices and applying them considerately. In this regard, the majority of people can benefit from service delivery.

One should argue that the spontaneous consensus and agreement made by the Namibian Constituent Assembly in adopting the constitution was aimed at, on one hand, the desire of getting out of colonial oppression, and on other hand, achieving constitutional democracy. Democracy in this sense means "popular power, representative democracy and rule by the majority of the people" (Du Pisani, 2010:4-5). However, despite the Namibian' constitutional democracy and good governance framework, it is not without challenges. The consequences of such a hasty process of adopting the constitution are still affecting governance structures and service delivery in Namibia today. This is due to some limitations. Among those limitations is the fact that the content of the constitution lack public input. Timeframe for transition to democracy did not provide space for members of the society to participate in the drafting of the constitution. Although these limitations might not necessarily overshadow the intended purpose of the Namibian Constitution, authors such as Sherazi (2011:18) notes that in the process of drafting the constitution "criticism was levelled at the fact that the proceedings of the Constituent Assembly were not open to the public or media and that work on the constitution was carried out in secrecy". Therefore, as it was indicated earlier, the above-mentioned shortcomings have undesired consequences on governance and service delivery.

To contextualise this discussion, the relationship between the Namibian Constitution and governance and service delivery need to be understood. Democratic constitution places more emphasis on democratic governance principles. In chapter one of this thesis it was indicated that democratic principles are very important because they serve as yardsticks towards effective delivery of services. In this regard, the constitution is the basis for good governance practices and service delivery. Erasmus (2010:83) argues that democratic or “modern constitutions are as a rule and technical legal frameworks for governance under law”. Similarly, Sherazi (2011:12) sees the “constitution is the basic law of a nation according to which all other laws have to be made”. In other words, the constitution forms the fundamental basis of all laws in the country. The State, therefore, has no choice than to ensure that the constitutional provisions are upheld, correctly interpreted and applied in a manner that serves the interests of all people. Erasmus (2010:98) claims that the constitution is a “yardstick for good governance”.

In the Namibian context, the constitutional clause on administrative justice was a deliberate attempt to ensure procedural and practical fairness in in governance and service delivery. State institutions must put in place governance structures and apply good governance practices to deliver services to its citizens particularly those in rural areas. From the constitutional standpoint, the researcher deemed it necessary to explore and examine the current governance practices and the manner they influence service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. This is important because service delivery in Namibia is a constitutional requirement.

Article 18 of the Namibian Constitution stipulates that, “administrative bodies and administrative officials shall act fairly and reasonably and comply with the requirements imposed upon such bodies and officials by common law and relevant legislation. Any person aggrieved by the exercise of such [administrative bodies] acts and decision shall have the right to seek redress before a competent court or tribunal”. In addition, Article 95 provides that, the “State shall actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people by adopting, *inter alia*, policies aimed at ensurance that every citizen has a right to fair and reasonable access to public facilities and services in accordance with the law”. Therefore, governance in Namibia is assumed on the above values.



Furthermore, Article 45 provides for representative nature, in that “members of the National Assembly shall be representatives of all people and shall in the performance of their duties be guided by the objectives of this constitution, by the public interest and by their conscience”. It means that laws passed by the National Assembly should aim at regulating and guiding the conduct of the State and its institutions. In other words, laws must form the basis of governance and service delivery.

According to Melber (2010:36), the adoption of the Namibian Constitution is symbolically and materially representing the end of foreign rule and the beginning of self-government by the Namibian people. It symbolises a new beginning, citizens’ involvement, accountability and transparency in governance and service delivery. In addition, it emphasises the inalienability of human rights and freedoms. The constitution culminated in the creation of recognised political and institutional system in the country. Totemeyer (2004:63) claims that independence, and, in fact, the adoption of the constitution “has done away with the incompatible values, preferences, and interests that marked Namibia’s road to independence and which caused dissent, suffering, instability, conflict and alienation in society at large. In essence, the constitution places an enormous responsibility on the state to enforce the constitutional provisions”. It is in this context that Wiechers (2010:55) warns that “if the government fails to fulfil its constitutional commitment and, furthermore, its governance is tainted by corruption, nepotism, the wasting of public resources and discrimination, the promised land of the constitution will not be realised and the high expectations raised by the constitution will be betrayed”.

Conversely, if regional councils and local authorities fail to design good governance practices, as explained in chapter one, the very people to who services are intended will be denied their constitutional rights. It is a towering decision on how to deal with governance and service delivery issues without necessarily impinging the constitutional provisions. Similarly, the trajectory focus of the government to meet the needs and demands of all people can be challenged by resources scarcity, and in fact insufficient strategies and practices to deal with services delivery aspects. However, it is incumbent upon public and private sector to device strategies to address community needs hands on. In that regard, regional and local government, as sub-national structures of governance, are strategically located to address those needs. What they need is proper framework, resources, support and commitment from all stakeholders. This will allow public officials to carry out their work unhindered and deliver much needed services.

According to Keyter (2007:190) the Namibian Constitution of 1990 made an important contribution to a new attitude amongst public officials and others regarding service delivery. Keyter (2007:190) says the intention of certain sections in the Constitution is to emphasise the importance of the narrative guidelines according to which public officials must deal with their clients. He further notes that the origins of these narrative guidelines are the body politics, societal value systems and legal rules. In addition, Keyter (2007:190) argues that “besides the Namibian Constitution, the guidelines on good governance have been laid down in the Namibia’s public service Charter, Customers Service Charter for each government office, agency or ministry and the Public Service Code of Conduct”.

The public service Charter rests on nine core general principles and values. These general principles include: Standards, courtesy and helpfulness, consultation and participation, accountability, transparency, non-discrimination, equality of service, information, accessibility, and value for money (Republic of Namibia, 2010:1). The effectiveness of these instruments (Public Service Charter, Customer Service Charter and Public Service Code of Conduct) is dependent on measures put in place by various government institutions, and the ethical behaviours of public officials. In this regard, the emphasis is placed on human resources training and capacity building in order to enable government institutions to provide quality and sustainable services to the people.

### ***3.7.2 Namibia’s National Development Plans (NDPs) and Vision 2030***

The post-independence era has seen various governance strategies and practices put in place to grow the economy to enhance the living standard of the Namibian people. According to Jacobs (1993:36) with the attainment of political freedom in Namibia, “the policy objectives of the new government changed directions completely”. Namibia has adopted many social and development strategies. Among these strategies is Vision 2030. Vision 2030 is defined as “a broad unifying vision that serves to guide the country’s five-year development plans” (Office of the President, 2004:15), starting from the Second National Development Plan (NDP2) through to Seventh National Development Plan (NDP7). It “provides directions to government ministries, the private sector, NGOs and local authorities” (Office of the President, 2004:15). The Vision’s dream is a well thought plan aimed at a better future. Its aim is to have “a prosperous and industrialised Namibia, development by her human resources, enjoying peace, harmony and political stability” in the year 2030 (Office of the President, 2004:15). In his foreword in the Namibia’s Vision 2030 document, the Former President of Namibia, Sam Nujoma said: “Vision

2030 presents a clear view of where we are, where we want to go from here, and over what time frame. It is a vision that takes Namibia from the present into the future, a vision that will guide us to make deliberate efforts to improve the quality of life of our people” (Office of the President, 2004:7).

Furthermore, Vision 2030 is a long-term vision upon which all government policies, programmes, projects and strategies should be focused. Vision 2030 is aimed at achieving sustainable development. It is closely linked to Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Republic of Namibia, 2004:6). The MDG has its roots from the Millennium Summit of the United Nations of September 2000 (Nayyar, 2012:3). Here, “heads of governments from member states have adopted specific goals to address social and economic as well as environmental challenges facing developing countries”. The MDGs are to be achieved within a timeframe of 25 years, that is, from 1990 to 2015. As indicated earlier, in the Namibia’s context, MDGs are linked to NDPs and Vision 2030. Therefore, the failure in achieving MDGs, by implication, means the failure to realise Vision 2030. As such, “MDGs are firmly rooted in the national development milestones of Vision 2030 and the objectives of National Development Plans” (Republic of Namibia, 2004:10). According to the Office of the President (2004:19) the concept sustainable development is the cornerstone on which development thinking worldwide is moving. Minnaar and Bekker (2005:31) emphasise that “sustainable development requires robust initiatives to develop the economy, preservation of the environment and promotion of social welfare”. This is important to ensure that the country fulfil its promise on sustainable development. Namibia is signatory to the United Nations Convention on Environment and Development (Office of the President, 2004:19).

It must be stated that Namibia was an active participant at the World Summit for Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002. The Summit was a follow up to the Rio Agenda 21 held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. What prompted the Johannesburg Summit was a concern regarding the implementation of the Agenda 21 resolutions. It was noted that little has been done to put into action the decisions taken during the Rio de Janeiro Summit (United Nations, 2002). Interestingly, the Summit placed an emphasis on sustainable development to improve the quality of life of all people in developing countries. Issues related to social and economic development, strengthen the role of stakeholders in development, capacity building and implementation means featured prominently in Johannesburg Summit declaration. The above-mentioned issues can only be realised if governments strengthen and improve governance practices at all levels (United

Nations, 2002:4). In other words, good governance practices must be strengthened to ensure effective implementation. As signatory to Johannesburg declaration, Namibia needs to improve her governance practices and means of implementation to ensure effective service delivery and eventually sustainable development.

Governance practices and policy implementation should be conducted in a manner that is conducive to service delivery in order to provide benefits to the people. The success in this area is dependent, to a certain degree, on the involvement of all sectors of society to achieve the intended outcomes. Kakaza and Ntonzima (2010:213) argue that the “whole concept of development is about improving services delivered to the community, and that development has a certain cost attached to it and that cost is in the form of resources”. Essentially, this means that government national development plans (NDPs) should be properly crafted in order to attract interest from all stakeholders. In this regard, Vision 2030 poses insurmountable challenges to the Namibian government, particularly in terms of achieving intended development targets set in the national development plans document. It should be noted that the development model adopted by Namibia calls for people’s involvement. This implies that the country requires all people to push forward towards meeting the objectives of NDPs and ultimately realise Vision 2030 (Republic of Namibia (2004:23).

It must be mentioned that the cornerstone toward realising Vision 2030 is Namibia’s meeting targets set in the NDPs. These medium-term goals are achievable if planning and development at three levels are done in a coordinated manner. In other words, proper planning and efficient resources utilisation at national, regional and community levels must be coordinated. The National Development Plans are the vehicle to translate the policies into action and make progress towards realising the Vision 2030 (Republic of Namibia, 2008:6). “National Development Plans are main instruments for implementing policies and programmes to achieve Vision 2030” (African Development Bank, 2009:8). A National Development Plan was adopted and implemented for the first time during the financial year 1995/96. It started with NDP1 which was the transitional development plan (Republic of Namibia, 2012:ix). NDP1 had marked the beginning of a five year national development plan. It also formed the basis upon which all future NDPs can be anchored.

As was indicated earlier, central to the achievement of the NDPs is the involvement of all stakeholders such as government offices, ministries or agencies, civil society and civic organisations (COs). In the context of Namibia, all stakeholders are obligated through NDP

framework to have in place a five year strategy plan that guides them towards goals that contribute to the success of National Development Plans, Vision 2030 and the Millennium Development Goals. This sectoral coordinated effort or partnership is well articulated in the Civic Organisations Partnership Policy of 2004. In particular, the Civic Organisations Partnership Policy (2004:7) provides the objectives of the policy as follows:

- *to create a greater commitment for civic participation through the promotion and encouragement of active citizenship.*
- *to enhance the environment for civic participation and partnership.*
- *to bring the Government closer to the people and create partnership opportunities that benefit the Government, COs and civil society*
- *to enhance the capacity of partners (the Government and COs) to enter into partnerships and jointly respond to development challenges and opportunities in an efficient, effective and sustainable fashion.*

These objectives link well with the Mercy Model. They emphasise the aspects of citizen participation, decentralisation and capacity building. By extension, they also call for adherence to the principles of good governance practices.

As mentioned earlier, the Namibia National Development Plans started with NDP1, which was referred to as ‘the transitional development phase’ in 1995/96 -2000/01. NDP1, focussed only on main goals (Republic of Namibia, 2012:6). These goals are as follow:

- *boosting and sustaining economic growth;*
- *creating employment;*
- *reducing inequalities in income distribution; and,*
- *reducing poverty.*

The Second National Development Plan was launched in 2001 and covered the timeframe between 2001/02-2005/06: As was spelled out in the NDP document, NDP2 focussed on the following main areas (Republic of Namibia, 2007:20):

- *reducing poverty;*
- *creating employment;*
- *economic empowerment;*
- *stimulating and sustaining economic growth;*
- *reducing inequality in income distribution;*
- *gender equality and equity; and,*
- *enhancing environmental and ecological sustainability.*

Although there were notable successes in the implementation and achieving some of the NDP2 goals, some challenges were experienced. Particularly, it was noted that there was a need to have “a strengthened and integrated national monitoring, reporting and evaluation system in order to measure progress on the implementation of laws, development policies, programmes and projects and evaluate the results and impacts” (Republic of Namibia, 2008:23). This and many other challenges informed the development of the Third National Development Plan (NDP3). NDP3 came into effect in 2007, covering the year 2007/2008-2011/2012. The NDP3 focussed on the key results areas, some of which transpired from NDP2 (Republic of Namibia, 2008:17). These areas are as follow:

- *knowledge based economy and technology driven nation;*
- *productive and competitive human resources and institutions;*
- *productive utilisation of natural resources and environmental sustainability;*
- *peace, security and stability;*
- *regional and international stability integration;*
- *equality and social welfare;and,*
- *quality of life.*

The NDP3 differed from NDP2 in a number of ways (Republic of Namibia, 2008:7). This difference can be summarised as follows:

- *it was based on the eight broad objectives of Vision 2030 as illustrated above;*
- *it was formulated by ten Thematic Working Group through team work utilising integrated results based management approach with central focus on development results, building on the ongoing initiatives on public service management and public financial management;*
- *it presented Namibia an overall resource envelop to implement the plan by all state and non-state stakeholders in order to achieve the projected plans; and,*
- *lastly, it spelled out the implementation arrangements and puts in place a monitoring reporting and evaluation system to continuously monitor and report on progress in achieving the targeted results.*

Despite its good framework, the overall performance of NDP3 was not as successful as anticipated (Republic of Namibia, 2012:9). In addition, Republic of Namibia (2012:9) identifies the following as contributory factors to poor performance of the NDP3: First, the economic growth was lower. For example, the targeted Gross Domestic Growth (GDP) was 5%. However, during NDP3 the GDP only grew by 3.6%. Secondly, unemployment increased. This implies that the economic growth during NDP3 did not really translate into job growth. Thirdly, inequality remained unacceptably high during NDP3 period.

It must be noted that though NDPs goals appear to be aspirational. However, the attainment of such goals remains a challenge to the government of Namibia. The attainability of such goals is constrained by various factors. As it was indicated in chapter one of this study, these factors include lack of means of implementation such as human and financial capabilities, lack of citizen participation, accountability and transparency. Another shortcoming is ineffective decentralisation process. NDPs goals can be attained if decision making and functions are decentralised to lower levels of government. This study acknowledges that there is peace and political stability in Namibia. However, economic means, institutional capacities and bad governance practices make NDPs goals not easily achievable.

Governance practices have direct impact on non-achievement of some NDPs' goals, and eventually service delivery. Bad governance has a negative impact on the performance and achievement of national development plans; thus, it affects the living standard of the people at sub-national level. Non-attainment of NDPs goals has not only delayed delivery of essential services, but it also increased inequality and unemployment. This was confirmed by the Republic of Namibia (2012:14-15) that there has been a general increase in the rate of unemployment, over the NDP3 period. Notwithstanding government's efforts to address inequality, the gap between the rich and the poor grew bigger during the NDP3 period (Republic of Namibia, 2012:15).

The failure to achieve NDPs goals is attributed to a number of reasons as outlined in the Fourth National Development Plan (NDP4). According to Republic of Namibia (2012:7) these reasons include the following:

- *improper implementation of public policies;*
- *lack of accountability; and*
- *poor allocation of resources.*

The deficiencies thereof are caused by human resources and institutional capacity. Since decentralisation policy was implemented, institutions at sub-national levels struggled to employ people in key areas. As indicated earlier, some areas such as regional town planning, engineering, quantity surveying, policy analysis and finance lack human resources capacity. Lack of qualified and skilled people in those areas in Namibia has attributed to this state of affairs. This can be testified by the recent agreement between Namibia and Zimbabwe in which the later seconded over ninety (90) qualified engineers to assist Namibia in various areas of engineering at national, regional and local levels. This study also argues that lack of human resources capacity has contributed to lack of institutional capacity and subsequently poor service delivery. In addition, the above-mentioned deficiencies are attributed to limited financial resources. Sub-national levels in Namibia do not have sufficient financial resources that enable them to effectively delivery services.



There are governance issues, which only require proper governance strategies and practices to be put in place and correctly applied. In this regard, policy implementation, accountability and equitable distribution of resources will be addressed. The launching of the NDP4 in 2012 has brought to the fore specific issues which the government has to consider in addressing the aspects of governance and service delivery particularly at sub-national level. Among these issues are “upholding the constitution and good governance, partnership, capacity enhancement, people-centred development and sustainable development” (Republic of Namibia, 2012:3-5). It was noted that “the failure of the government to achieve targeted results was due to “bottlenecks that hindered the success of previous plans”. Also, there has been a total absence of a formalised process for implementing, monitoring and evaluation of plans” (Republic of Namibia, 2012:7). When the performance of the NDP2 and NDP3 were evaluated, it was noted that “human resources development and institutional capacity building were some of the prerequisite strategic objectives for the implementation and achievement of the National development plans goals, and the realisation of Vision 2030” (Republic of Namibia, 2012:ii). These and other issues need to be properly addressed during the Fourth National Development Plan implementation.

In short, though Namibia has in place a good framework for national development plans, the successful implementation of the NDPs and the subsequent realisation of Vision 2030 are dependent on good governance practices by public and private sectors, civil society and ordinary members of society. Good governance practices facilitate coordination among government agencies; promote sectoral planning and implementation of government policies and strategies, and by extension, increase the delivery of essential services to society. In this regard, sub-national level of government plays a crucial role. Institutional capacity should be created. Commitment by public officials and active participation by citizens should be encouraged, if to successful implementation of national development plans is to be achieved. It must be stated that sub-national governments can only address the plight of the people if officials understand and correctly apply the Regional Councils Act, Local Authority Act, and the decentralisation policy.

### ***3.7.3 Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992***

The dawn of Namibia’s independence has culminated in the creation of three tiers of government. They are central, regional and local governments. Regional governments, here referred to as regional councils, are the second tier of government, and larger than local authorities in terms of responsibility and power. They were created by the Regional Councils

Act. Regional councils are government structures at sub-national level, and assist central government to fulfil its constitutional responsibility in terms of services delivery to society. Totemeyer (2004:64) states that “regions and their governing authorities were instituted as new entities in the political-administrative dispensation of Namibia”. Therefore, the promulgation of the Regional Councils Act brought to an end the system of homelands that were governed on racial boundaries. As noted by Totemeyer (2004:4) regional councils are incomparable to the despised ethnic homelands. In addition, Totemeyer (2010:123) states that regional councils “have to be viable and administratively governable, as well as constitute an area with which its inhabitants can consciously identify themselves”. This is important in terms of governance, citizens’ participation and service delivery. It also addresses the discrepancies of the past where governance in former homelands was characterised by discriminatory practices that were non-participatory and, to the extreme, non-existent.

As explained in the preceded section, the regional governments were established to bring government in the proximity of the people to whom service are intended. Regional councils provide an opportunity for people in Namibia including those in the Oshana Region to take responsibility of their own affairs, and partake in decision-making pertaining to governance and service delivery. In this regard, the delivery of services such potable water and sanitation, housing, electricity, education and health are done in consultation with people who are directly affected by such services. In essence, this government reform abolished discriminatory policy of divide and rule, and allows even ordinary people to own governance structures and services.

Significantly, the establishment of regional councils culminated in Namibia divided into 14 administrative regions to facilitate good governance and service delivery. Each region is further divided into constituencies. A constituency is a small geographical area which the region, intentionally demarcated to cater for the political and administrative needs of the communities of that particular area. In the case of the Oshana Region, there are ten constituencies. In terms of the Special Advisors and Regional Governors Act 15 of 2010, the President appoints Regional Governors to each of the 14 regions. Regional governor, hereto referred to as the governor, is political head of the region. According to Section 2(4) (a) of the above-mentioned Act the governor is a representative of the central government in the region. The Governor is intermediate between the central government and the region and report directly to the President who is an appointing authority. In addition to the Governor, there are also Regional Councillors who are political heads of constituencies. Unlike the Governor, Regional Councillors are elected

by popular vote, and form part of the regional council. According to section 8 of the Regional Councils Act, Regional Councillors are elected by popular vote after every six years. After being elected, Regional Councillors elect among themselves the chairperson of the regional council. The regional council is responsible for making political decisions on by-laws, budgeting, development programmes and service delivery and implementation thereof.

There is also an administrative component in the region, headed by the Chief Regional Officer. This component is responsible for administrative duties and functions of the regional council, and by extension, the implementation of regional council's policies and decisions. In other words, the administrative component ensures that proper planning, control and goods utilisation of public resources take place. Simply put, and in the context of this study, administrative officials tasked with the responsibility of designing governance practices to guarantee the delivery of effective and efficient services to communities. In summary, Regional Councillors and administrative officials constitute the regional council of a particular region. By and large, in the Namibian context, regional council plays a significant role in the life of people in the region. The Regional Councils Act states that the regional councils are responsible for transforming governance practices into action to deliver necessary services to communities. Regional council also acts as advisor to central government on socio-economic developmental needs and services delivery at sub-national levels. In particular, Section 28 of the Regional Councils Act provides for powers, duties, functions, rights and obligations of the regional councils (Republic of Namibia, 1992). The functions and obligations are, amongst others, to:

- “undertake, with due regard to the powers, duties and functions of the National Planning Commission referred to in Article 129 of the Namibian Constitution and any other law relating to planning, the planning of the development of the region for which it has been established;
- exercise, in connection with its region such powers, and to perform the duties and functions connected with such powers, as may be delegated by the President to the regional council in terms of section 29;
- subject to the provisions of Part VII, to establish, manage and control settlement areas;
- make recommendations to the Minister in relation to the exercise, in relation to a local authority situated within its region, of any power conferred upon the Minister under the Local Authorities Act, 1992, or any other law;

- advise the President or any Minister on any matter referred to the regional council by the President or such Minister;
- assist any local authority council in the exercise or performance of its powers, duties and functions;
- make, for purposes of the preparation of the estimate of expenditure to be presented to the National Assembly in terms of Article 126 of the Namibian Constitution, recommendations to the Minister of Finance in so far as it relates to matters concerning its region; and
- establish from time to time such committees as it may deem necessary to advise it in the exercise of any of its powers or the performance of any of its duties or functions and may appoint such members or such other persons as it may deem fit to be members of such committees”.

The above-quoted powers, functions and obligations indicate that regional government, as one of the tiers of government, carries an enormous responsibility in terms of political and administrative accountability, and by extension, democratic governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels. Also, it vindicates that the Namibian government has in place structures at sub-national level to help promote good governance and service delivery. As Sebudubudu (2009:250) avows, “good governance is credited for responsiveness to the needs of the wider population especially the poor and vulnerable sections who normally benefit from the pro-poor policies and programmes”.

### ***3.7.4 Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992***

Local authorities are the third tier of government in Namibia. As complementary structures to central and regional government, local authorities are located further closer to people. Local Authority Councils are creatures of Local Authorities Act, and comprise of municipalities, towns and villages. Like regional council, local authority council is also consisting of Local Councillors, of which the Mayor is the head; and administrative segment, under the leadership of the Chief Executive Officer. Local Councillors make by-laws to regulate governance and service delivery at local government levels while administrative officials implement those by-laws. These two components together constitute the municipal, town or village council. As third tier of government, local authorities are strategically positioned to deliver basic services to inhabitants of the towns, thus fulfilling the state constitutional obligations.

Local authorities, particularly big municipalities, are autonomous from central government. They do their own budgeting, and depending on available resources and existing priorities, they determine the type of services to be rendered by to communities. In other words, they are responsible for socio-economic development of their respective towns and people. In contrast, the autonomy of small town and village councils is compromised by lack of financial resources. This makes them to be dependent on central government for funding. It must be noted that local authorities are dependent on taxes and levies from their respective residents; thus, the economic base of a particular local authority is a determinant, to a certain degree, of the amount of financial resources a local authority can receive from its clients. The intention of the Local Authorities Act is to regulate and facilitate governance practices to ensure that services are brought and delivered to the needy. In this regard, the country's social and development agenda is realised. As Bwalya (2009:2) observes, "governments, and in particular sub-national governments, lie at the centre of driving the development agenda of any country". In the context of Namibia, local governments are regulated by Local Authorities Act. Section 30 of the Local Authorities Act, amongst others, provides for the powers, duties and functions of the local authority councils (Republic of Namibia, 1992) as to:

- "supply water to the residents in its area for household, business or industrial purposes;
- provide, maintain and carry on a system of sewerage and drainage for the benefit of the residents in its area;
- provide, maintain and carry on services to such residents for the removal, destruction or disposal of nightsoil, rubbish, slop water, garden and stable litter, derelict vehicles, carcasses of dead animals and all other kinds of refuse or otherwise offensive or unhealthy matter;
- establish and maintain cemeteries, or to take over any cemetery situated within its area;
- construct and maintain streets and public places;
- supply electricity or gas to the residents in its area;
- establish, carry on and maintain a public transport service; and
- establish, with the prior approval of the Minister and in accordance with such conditions as may be determined by him or her, a housing scheme, whether by itself or in conjunction with any other person".

The effective and efficient manner in which the above-mentioned duties and functions can be carried out contributes to improvement of communities' livelihoods. This is the intrinsic purpose of local authorities' existence. It is also evident that local authority councils carry a huge responsibility in ensuring that ordinary citizens' needs and aspirations are met, and that services are delivered to those who need them. Therefore, this study suggests that the effective service delivery can only be realised if there are good relationship between local councillors and administrative officials at local authorities' levels. Such relationship promotes good governance practices. In return, good governance practices influence other factors such as human capacity, correct and accountable utilisation of financial resources, and stakeholders' involvement. In that regard, local authorities, as public institutions closer to the people require public officials to take the initiative by acting rather than reacting to events. It should be noted that public institutions use public money, hence, it is essential to ensure that all resources at their disposal are effectively and efficiently put to good use, and benefit all people especially those who have been previously marginalised. Essentially, this can be achieved if governance structures are in place and good governance practices are employed.

### ***3.7.5 Decentralisation Policy and Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000***

According to Muriisa (2008:86) “decentralisation initiatives arose out of displeasure with the manner central governments deal with governance and service delivery at sub-national levels”. This means that central governments were found to lack capacity to satisfy the needs and aspirations of people because it is located far from the governed. In addition, Muriisa (2008:84) states that decentralisation in Africa emanated from the World Bank' recommendations to decentralise political and administrative decision making powers and functions to sub-national levels in order to promote service delivery. As further put by Muriisa (2008:84) the reason for this focus, is that central governments were failing to effectively provide “social services such as health, education, water and sanitation”.

In the context of Namibia, decentralisation policy has its roots in the South West Africa People Organisation (SWAPO) Election manifesto of 1989. SWAPO Manifesto (1989:20) states that, an “independent Namibia will have democratically elected local authorities both in rural and urban areas, in order to give power to the people at sub-national levels to make decisions on matters affecting their lives”. It further pronounces that, “for administrative convenience and development requirements the government will restructure and divide the country into regional,

district, municipal and village units of government”. This policy statement culminated in the formulation and implementation of the decentralisation policy. There are essentially three forms of decentralisation in Namibia (Republic of Namibia, 2009:2). These are:

- **Deconcentration:** This is a situation when public officials from central government are delegated to perform functions at sub-national levels under the auspices and control of central government. However, although functions are carried out at sub-national levels, no power is given to those institutions. Central government decides and direct all activities pertaining to service delivery. Though accountability may be high in this regard, participative democracy is very limited or non-exist at all.
- **Delegation:** Where central government delegates specific functions to lower levels of government to be executed on an agency basis. However, authority and accountability on delegated functions remain with central government.
- **Devolution:** It involves total transfer of “functions, resources and power to sub-national levels of government”. This kind of decentralisation gives decision making powers to sub-national levels to plan and perform functions, and also assume public responsibility of functions so performed. It promotes democratic participation by citizens and direct involve in governance and service delivery.

It is important to mention that in the context of Namibia, decentralisation is a constitutional requirement (Republic of Namibia, 1990:53). Decentralisation policy is provided for under chapter 12 of the constitution. Article 1 of the Namibian Constitution provides for the establishment of Namibia as a democratic and unitary state whose constitution guarantees, under Article 95, “active promotion and maintenance of welfare of all people by adopting policies aimed at social, cultural and economic development”.

In an effort to guarantee closeness and convenience of essential services to the people, the decentralisation policy was adopted in 1998. Subsequently, the Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000 was enacted and promulgated. The Act serves as a regulatory framework for decentralised activities at sub-national level. Regional councils and local authority councils as well as line ministries operate within such framework. By and large, the policy of decentralisation complements government initiatives on service delivery. In particular, it provides an opportunity for ordinary people to participate in decision making regarding social and economic issues aimed at enhancing communities’ wellbeing. In this regard, Totemeyer

(2004:74) maintains that the “objectives of decentralisation include political and administrative expedience, for example, government closer to the people, grassroots empowerment, and participatory democracy, enhancement of accountability and adaptability of governance”. The policy document spells out the aims of decentralisation (Republic of Namibia, 1998) as follow:

- “to transfer powers and functions regional and local governments based on national ideas and values;
- to enhance and guarantee participatory democracy;
- to improve the capacity of regional and local government councils to plan, implement, monitor and manage delivery of services for their constituents; and
- to ensure and safeguard rapid and sustainable development".

To sum up, decentralisation policy transferred political, administrative, and to a certain degree legislative authority from centre to sub-national institutions. What seems to be currently lacking as far as decentralisation is concerned is fiscal devolution. Lack of fiscal devolution has created a service delivery gap in regional and local councils as they do not have sufficient financial resources to meet communities. At the inception of decentralisation policy and subsequently its implementation in 2000 it was argued that sub-national government agencies had no institutional and human capacities to handle finance. However, even after capacity seems to have been created, for example, the appointment of Chief Regional Officers as accounting officers of regional council officers, finance continues to be decided and allocated from central government.

Regional and some local governments continue to depend on funds from the central government, particularly from the Ministry of Regional, Local Government and Housing and Rural Development. Due to limited government annual budget, sub-national governments continue to endure financial hardships, and cannot effectively provide services to citizens. In essence, this has a negative impact on the effectiveness of decentralisation policy. As it was alluded to earlier, decentralisation policy promotes participatory democracy and empowers communities to make decisions and determine their own destiny. In fact, the policy improves public service administration at sub-national level as public officials are afforded sufficient opportunity to plan, design and implement programmes and projects. Against the above-mentioned exposition, the lack of financial decentralisation places a huge burden on sub-national levels in terms of governance and service delivery.



Both decentralisation policy and the Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000 serve as frameworks that provide guidance and direction to central as well as regional and local government institutions at sub-national level. They are also guiding public officials and community members alike on how to deal with issues of services delivery. The study argues that if good governance practices are put in place and correctly applied, it can improve service delivery, realise national development agenda, and by extension contribute to Namibia's Vision 2030.

### ***3.7.6 Office of the Ombudsman and Anti-Corruption Commission (ACC).***

The Ombudsman's Office and the Anti-Corruption Commission (ACC) are constitutional requirements in Namibia (Republic of Namibia, 1990:46-48). It was discussed in chapter one of this thesis that Namibia has in place appropriate legal frameworks and structures to regulate, facilitate and direct the activities and performance of public service, and by extension, public administration. The challenge, therefore, is for governance structures to introduce and implement good governance practices to accelerate service delivery to promote the living standard of the people. Good governance practices ensure that public service officials adhere to norms, standards and rules guiding public service performance and service delivery. In this regard, the Ombudsman's Office and the ACC play significant roles in ensuring that governance structures live up to the rule of law, principles of democracy, and that public resources are effectively and efficiently utilised. This promotes accountability and transparency in the manner services are delivered in Namibia. Article 89 of the Namibian Constitution provides for the establishment by an Act of Parliament, the Ombudsman's Office. In addition, Article 91 provides for the functions of the Office, amongst others, as *“to investigate complaints concerning alleged or apparent instances of violations of fundamental rights and freedoms, abuse of power, unfair, harsh, insensitive or discourteous treatment of an inhabitant of Namibia by an official in the employment of the organ of government (central, [regional] or local) manifest injustice, or conduct by such official which would properly be regarded as unlawful, oppressive or unfair in a democratic society”*.

Essentially, the Ombudsman Office acts as watchdog of public institutions to ensure that they live up to the spirit of the constitution. As shown under *figure 3.3* the mandates of the Office include investigation against issues related to violation of human rights and freedom, environment, and maladministration (Office of the Ombudsman (2011:5). Maladministration practices against government and public officials may include unfair recruitment, promotion and dismissals. In other words, the Ombudsman's Office is authorised to investigate any administrative body or persons whose actions violate fundamental rights and freedoms. As it was alluded to in chapter one, if government institutions and public officials exercise bad governance and eventually fail in their duties to act fairly and deliver services to the people, in a way they deny those people their constitutional rights. So, it is imperative that all governance practices and procedures are exercised in a manner that promotes good governance and effective service delivery to all citizens. In that regard, the Ombudsman's Office bears a huge responsibility to advance the promotion of the plight of Namibian people by enforcing accountability, transparency and good governance practices. Similarly, this important government structure supports the government's efforts to ensure that government's meagre resources are utilised to provide maximum benefits to the people.

Despite numerous challenges, which include limited human and financial resources, the Ombudsman's Office has, over the years, contributed to an improved public service and effective service delivery to the citizens. Various complaints were reported to the Office and, to a certain extent, many of them were resolved. "The Office has also become accessible to the citizens" (Office of the Ombudsman, 2011:5). For example, during the period 2009 to 2011, the Office has received many complaints which fall into its mandate. These complaints range from maladministration such as violation of human rights by public officials in the process of delivering services to miscellaneous. Although mixed results of success were recorded in resolving these complaints, an improvement in performance by the Office has been noticed. The fact that the general public and private institutions lodge complaints with this Office, demonstrates public awareness of the Ombudsman's Office and its obligations. It also indicates the public's trust in the Office's performance.

**Figure 3.3: Office of the Ombudsman performance during 2009 to 2011 period.**

| <b>Complaints</b> | <b>2011</b> | <b>2010</b> | <b>2009</b> |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Maladministration | 1656        | 1397        | 1064        |
| Environment       | 5           | 4           | 6           |
| Human rights      | 211         | 236         | 165         |
| Miscellaneous     | 659         | 475         | 343         |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>2531</b> | <b>2112</b> | <b>1578</b> |

*Source: Office of the Ombudsman (2011:30).*

The Ombudsman Annual Report indicates that of the total cases reported to the Ombudsman Office in 2011, 58% of those cases were resolved. During the corresponding period in 2010, 74% of the cases were resolved. In 2009, 62% of the cases were resolved (Office of the Ombudsman, 2011:29). This statistics do not necessarily imply that the rest of the cases (unresolved) have not been attended to. The Office of the Ombudsman (2011:5) concedes that notable challenges have been experienced by Office within the scope of its activities. As indicated in this section, these challenges include lack of staff and funds. The above-mentioned challenges delay the speedy investigation of complaints. Nonetheless, the portrayed picture of success highlights the relevance of the Ombudsman's Office to governance and service delivery in the Namibian public service.

The Ombudsman's Reports read more into good governance practices in all sectors of society. It places emphasis on adherence to procedures and norms in order to shape service delivery. Similarly, correct appointment, proper training and promotion of public service officials promote good governance practices and eventually effective service delivery to citizens. According to the Office of the Ombudsman (2011:25-26) "issues regarding service delivery in the Oshana Region were reported and investigated, and recommendations were provided to relevant institutions". This has resulted in the situation being addressed by the relevant authorities particularly at Oshakati hospital and Oshakati Town Council respectively. For example, during floods of 2010 situation in the Oshana Region, the Ombudsman's Office conducted investigation into the alleged irregular distribution of relief aid to beneficiaries. The findings by the Ombudsman's Office have resulted in the Prime Minister's office being advised to tighten control measures (Office of the Ombudsman, 2011:26).

Regarding Anti-Corruption Commission, Article 94A of the Namibian Constitution states that the “State shall put in place administrative and legislative measures necessary to prevent and combat corruption” (Anti-Corruption Act 8 of 2003). This implies that the Namibian Constitution makes provision for the establishment by an Act of Parliament, the ACC “to provide for the prevention and punishment of corruption, and to make provision for matters connected therewith”. In other words, issues that do not fall within the scope of the Ombudsman Office’s power and functions, *supra*, can be analysed and investigated by the ACC.

The main constitutional obligation of any government is to take care of its people by providing effective and workable mechanisms to ensure fair allocation of resources and deliver wide-ranging public services to citizens. In so doing, it improves the living standards of the people and their livelihoods. Such exercises should happen and prosper in a democratic and corrupt-free environment. In other words, public servants should act fairly and account for every state resource entrusted to them. Deviation from set governance principles, standards and norms may result in disciplinary action being taken, and to the extreme prosecution and possible sentencing. This is where ACC comes to play. The scope of the activities of the ACC is guided by core values such as “integrity, accountability, courage, transparency, excellence, fidelity to the law, fairness and impartiality” (Anti-Corruption Commission, 2012:2). Similarly, the above-mentioned values also form the key principles of good governance practices and service delivery in Namibia.

In accordance with the law, the core functions of the Anti-Corruption Commission include; “investigation of conduct which constituting or conducive to corruption, public education on corruption related issues, and prevention of corruption behaviours and practices” (Anti-Corruption Commission, 2012:7). There is a linkage between Anti-Corruption Commission’s activities, governance and service delivery. It must be understood that “corruption is a governance issue” (Anti-Corruption Commission, 2010:8). Poor governance practices may result in corrupt practices and eventually poor service delivery. In this regard, the ACC plays a vital role in investigating alleged corrupt practices and ensures that public and private sector officials who make themselves guilty of this unethical and dishonesty behaviours are prosecuted. The legal duties and responsibilities of the ACC cannot be achieved without challenges. The ACC faces challenges of lack of human and financial capacities. The above - mentioned shortcomings hinder speedy investigations and resolutions of reported cases.

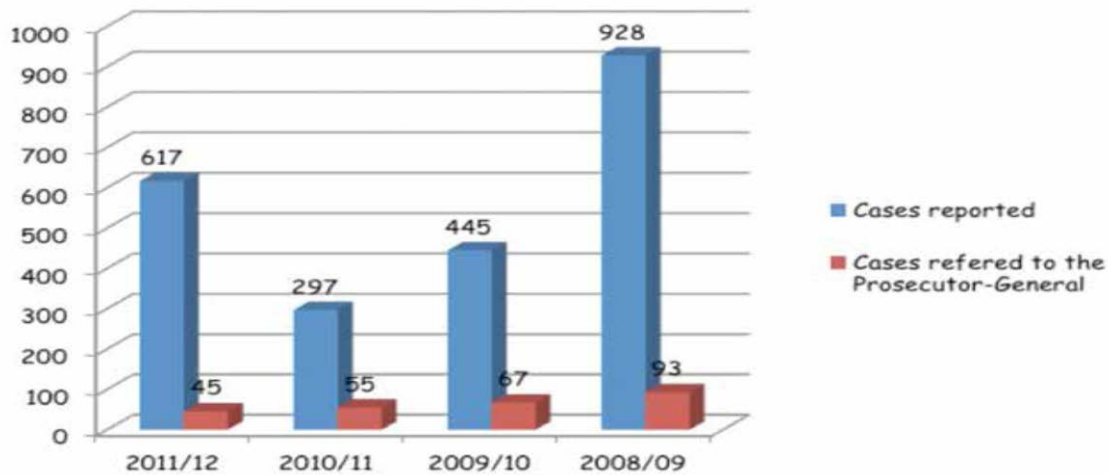
The ACC (2012:26) acknowledges that corruption prevention exercise is “not a quick-fix”. It requires the involvement of all public and private institutions, as well as transparency and accountability. In addition, continuous monitoring and strict institutional oversight are important in the fight against corruption. To improve governance practices and accelerate service delivery, the ACC (2012:26) further indicates that public service should “develop meritocratic appointment, promotion and remuneration of public officials”. The ACC Report also notes that while decentralisation policy is applauded for making needed services available to the people, this good government intention might be whitewashed if those appointed in positions of authority, the Regional and Local Authority Councillors, Chief Regional Officers and Town Chief Executive Officers, “do not commit themselves to the effective and efficient standard of service delivery” (ACC, 2013:27).

As a state agency, the Anti-Corruption Commission promotes democratic governance within public institutions. It prevents corrupt practices, and indirectly coerces public officials to abide by rule of law and democratic governance principles. The ACC also inculcates professionalism, royalty and ethics among public officials when dealing with members of the community. In short, it encourages public institutions to make sure that the right people are hired and appointed to deliver services to the people. It should be noted that good governance practices and effective service delivery can only be realised in a conducive and well governed environment. Well constituted and regulated public administration practice is a prerequisite to effective and efficient performance of public institutions. It promotes good governance and enhances service delivery. Therefore, if public officials lack the necessary skills and job knowledge, it may contribute to bad governance, misuse of state resources and subsequently poor service delivery to communities. For this reason, ACC exists to deal with the above-mentioned unethical practices.

Since its inception in 2003, the ACC actions have significantly contributed to the reduction of corrupt practices. Some improvements were noted in the “government schools and education - related offices, the Police and Home Affairs Ministry amongst other government owned institutions” (ACC, 2011:47). As one of its core functions, the Anti-Corruption Commission receives and investigates corruption cases reported to it. “The cases are reported either through ACC Report Centre in person, or in writing via post, email or facsimile or telephonically” (ACC, 2012:9). During the four-year period, that is, (2008/09 to 2011/12), a number of corruption

practices related cases were reported to the Commission for investigation as shown under *figure 3.4*.

**Figure 3.4: Anti-Corruption Commission’s Performance (Cases reported and referred to the Prosecutor-General for decision)**



*Source: Anti-Corruption Commission (2012:11)*

The success of the ACC in dealing with corruption cases varies. A National Urban Corruption Perception Survey conducted in 2011 indicated that the success of ACC is attributed to a number of factors. These factors include effective anti-corruption laws, public education and awareness, and accountability and transparency mechanisms that various institutions in Namibia put in place (ACC, 2011:27).

Through its public education function, the ACC has contributed significantly towards creating awareness among citizens of the danger of crime and corruption practices. Creating awareness among citizens and information dissemination are central to the notion of corruption prevention. According to ACC (2012:29-30) citizens have the rights “to know how they are governed, to participate in economic, political, cultural and social decision making processes that ultimately determine their destinies”. Ordinary members of society have the rights to be informed on how the public resources are being utilised to improve their living standards. Similarly, they have the constitutional power to demand that public service officials avail information on any issues of public concern. Against the above-mentioned exposition, ACC (2012:29-30) underlines that access to information is a requirement under the regional and international treaties that Namibia has signed and ratified. Among these treaties are “Article 9 and 12 of the African Union

Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption, and Article 13 of the United Nations Convention Against Corruption”.

Significantly, the above-mentioned instruments obligate States Parties to take proper “measures to promote the active participation of individuals and groups including the civil society and non-governmental organisations in the prevention of and the fight against corruption and also to raise public awareness regarding the existence, causes and gravity of and the threat posed by corruption”. In addition, “States Parties are also required to ensure that the public has effective access to information and enhance the transparency of and promote the contribution of the public to decision making process” (ACC, 2012:30). The challenge, as noted in the ACC annual report, is that Namibia does not have a law on access to information. Effectively, this poses a huge challenge not only to the ACC but also to other public institutions in the execution of their duties and responsibilities. In other words, it complicates investigations by ACC, and also makes accountability and oversight mechanisms unrealistic. If the above-mentioned mechanisms are not effective, bad governance may occur and as a result corrupt practices may develop and consequently poor service delivery. Therefore, Anti-Corruption Commission plays a vital role in promoting democratic governance principles and fast-tracking equitable service delivery.

The ACC has conducted a number of seminars and workshops in the Oshana Region to create awareness and educate people on the impact of corruption in society. For example, a youth leaders’ seminar was conducted in Oshakati in March 2012; Church leaders’ seminar was held at Ongwediva in August 2011, and translated version of the Anti-Corruption Act into Braille was handed over to Eluwa, a school of the Visually Impaired learners in Ongwediva. These efforts were made to ensure that the people of Oshana Region know and understand the impact of corruption. It also affords the members of the community an opportunity to demand accountability from public institutions and public service officials respectively.

It was pointed out earlier in this section, that the mandate of the Commission as provided for by the Anti-Corruption Act is to investigate alleged corrupt practices, to create awareness through public education of the danger of corruption in public institutions as well as general prevention of corruption. Despite operational challenges as indicated at the beginning of this section, the scope of the ACC’s duties and responsibilities enjoy support from Namibian society. This can be explained by a number of corrupt practices cases reported to the Commission (ACC, 2013:8). It must be noted that the effectiveness of the ACC is not necessarily attributed to the high number

of cases being reported. In contrast, low rate of reported cases may also indicate that public officials are cognisant of the impact of corruption on society, thus, employ good governance practices to deliver effective services to the people. In this regard, the ACC should be provided with human and financial resources to enable it to fulfil its mandates in a more effective manner. Training of personnel, especially investigators is very critical in achieving its objectives. Significantly, effort should be made to put in place whistle-blowers protection law. The lack of this law discourages people to report corrupt practices for the fear of victimisation. ACC (2013:29) also acknowledges that the creation of “a legal whistle-blower protection system” will provide a conducive environment for people to report corrupt practices without fear of being sidelined in terms of “employment opportunity, promotion or even disciplined for breach of confidence or secrecy”. This study therefore argues that the existence of ACC is necessary for the promotion of good governance and adherence to acceptable governance principles; thereby increase service delivery to the people.

To sum up, the Office of the Ombudsman and the Anti-Corruption Commission play a very significant role in shaping public sector officials to dedicate their efforts in the interest of the people. These state agencies contribute to good governance practices and effective public service delivery. In so doing, they contribute to social and economic development of the country and the realisation of Vision 2030.

### ***3.7.7 Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management***

In order to fulfill their mandate sub-national governments need adequate support. Human resources capacity needs to be created to promote good governance practices and improved service delivery. For this reason, the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM) was established in 2010. NIPAM was established by an Act of Parliament, NIPAM Act 2010 (Act 10 of 2010). The aim is to transform public service through training of public officials to create and improve the capacity, professionalism and competence of both junior and senior management. “It also aims at fostering a climate of purpose, values and professional traditions amongst public sector employees” (NIPAM, 2012:1). These functions are carried out in terms of section 5 of the Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management Act 10 of 2010.



In particular, the Act spells out the mandates of NIPAM as “to provide administration and management training, instilling a performance culture in the Namibian public sector through capacity development, consulting and research, operational excellence, capacity development evaluation and strategic partnerships” (NIPAM, 2012:1). Essentially, since its inception, NIPAM has adopted a five-strategic plan which guides and spells out its operations. The document indicates that NIPAM offers training and development programmes in the following areas (NIPAM 2012:14):

- Senior Management Development Programme (SMDP);
- Middle Management Development Programme (MMDP);
- Middle Management Development Programme for Regional and Local Government (MMDP-RLG); and
- Foundation Programme (FP).

Moreover, NIPAM (2012:23) clarifies that the “MMDP-RLG programme is aimed at building skills, knowledge, competences and the capacity for middle public managers in regional and local governments, to enable them to provide effective leadership in governance and policy implementation at sub-national levels. According to NIPAM (2012:23) “the main goal of the MMDP-RLG is to contribute to the process of decentralisation, the improvement of regional and local service delivery, and the strengthening of regional and local economies, by developing the capacities of middle managers in regional and local authorities”. Furthermore, the programme deals with six areas of governance and service delivery (NIPAM, 2012:23). They are as follows:

- democratic decentralization realisation;
- financial resources management;
- provide good leadership and management;
- performance improvement;
- continuous development; and
- communication.

Statistics shows that since the establishment of NIPAM, about 226 regional and local government officials were trained in areas as indicated above (NIPAM, 2012:22). This, notwithstanding, the effectiveness of this MMDP-RLG programme is yet to be known, as the NIPAM has only been in existence for the past four years. No evaluation has been conducted to

determine the impact of the NIPAM's training of regional and local government officials' performance. In essence, this is a serious shortcoming that needs to be addressed. Evaluation of NIPAM trainees is imperative to ensure that trainings offered by the institution make a significant impact on regional and local governance and service delivery. Thus, it is important to conduct impact evaluation to determine the effectiveness of these important training programmes. In contrast, this study argues that regional and local governments stand a good chance to strengthen the capacity of public officials through these kinds of training by NIPAM. This will improve governance practices and service delivery at sub-national level.

### **3.8 SUMMARY**

Service delivery in Namibia is a constitutional requirement. The State is duty-bound to come up with policies and strategies aimed at addressing social and economic challenges. This improves the living standard of citizens. The colonial past indicates segregated governance practices and imbalanced distribution of resources and services. There was also no 'check and balances' in place. In this respect, chapter three has discussed the essentiality and value of public administration, good governance and service delivery in society. The relationship thereof and the governance framework model have been discussed in this chapter.

The ascension to democracy in 1990 has seen various reforms of public service in Namibia. The creation of sub-national government structures to address social and economic problems was noted as a major step towards improved quality of life at sub-national levels. Similarly, decentralisation policy helped bring services and decision making power closer to people. In addition, the Ombudsman's Office and Anti-Corruption Commission were created to address maladministration and corrupt practices respectively. This was done to ensure that public service is properly regulated. It is also aimed at ensuring that state resources are utilised in a manner as prescribed by law, and without corrupt intention. In this regard, good governance, transparency and accountability can be enhanced.

This chapter has also revealed that even though administrative reform has taken place and governance strategies have been introduced and implemented, more still needs to be done to improve the Namibia's public service. Issues such as institutional arrangements, capacity building, acceptable public ethics, accountability and active participation by citizens remain

challenges to the public sector. Therefore, the researcher has suggested that a 'process model' of governance can help improve public service in Namibia.

Having concluded the chapter on the conceptual framework, the subsequent chapter four will deal with literature review in order to provide a deeper understanding of governance and service delivery in a broad perspective.

## CHAPTER 4

### AN OVERVIEW OF GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The field of governance and service delivery, and the characteristics of good governance have been extensively discussed in existing Public Administration literature. Various Public Administration scholars discussed and contextualised the afore-mentioned concepts and made numerous useful constructive recommendations which could be adopted by public and private institutions to enhance service delivery. Despite the above-mentioned exposition, best practices to promote and support good governance and effective service delivery, particularly, in the developing countries remain an issue of continuous debates and discussions. This is so because developing countries differ from each other in terms of political, economic and social environment. In addition, resources in developing countries also differ. Evidently, the body of literature which was reviewed and analysed in this chapter exemplified the above claim.

Against the backdrop of the above-mentioned exposition, chapter four examined the theoretical underpinning of governance, good governance and service delivery in general and in Namibia in particular. It looked at different approaches and practices utilised by the public service to promote good governance and enhance equitable service delivery to improve living standard of the people especially those residing in rural areas. Significantly so, more emphasis was attached on different governance and service delivery models, and best practices that are being utilised nationally and internationally. In other words, to explain and discuss governance and service delivery in a broad perspective, this chapter carefully considered and reviewed both national and international governance and service delivery approaches and practices.

In particular, chapter four discussed the fundamental characteristics and principles of good governance, taking into consideration the provisions of the Namibian Constitution and other governance frameworks. In the same vein, this chapter reviewed literature on service delivery approaches at sub-national levels, and analyses best practices utilised both in developed and developing countries to promote effective provision of essential services and amenities to citizens.

Principles such as the rule of law, accountability, transparency, citizen participation, and efficiency and effectiveness were analysed and discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, chapter four discussed the decentralisation model as a vehicle that drives good governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels. This Chapter also discussed three phases of governance in Namibia. They are as follow: German rule 1884-1915, South African Apartheid rule 1915 - 1988, and the post- independent Namibia from 1990 to date. Comparatively, literature on both global and regional governance and service delivery was carefully examined, analysed and contextualised to the Namibian perspective in order to support the governance and service delivery model (process model) discussed in chapter three of this thesis.

#### **4.2 PERSPECTIVES OF GOVERNANCE AND GOOD GOVERNANCE**

Best governance practices and inclusive service delivery have become catchphrase in public administration literature. Government institutions and organisations, particularly in developing countries, have reviewed and adapted the way they operate in order to address the needs, demands and aspirations of the people, especially those at grassroots level. In the context of this study ‘grassroots level’ refers to sub-national institutions and people located farther away from central government. For example, regional and local government, and people who reside in those areas and their peripheries respectively. Kauzya and Balogun (2005:2) note that recently many countries in Africa have adopted reform measures aimed at improving public service and governance practices. According to Kauzya and Balogun (2005:2) “these measures” cut across all aspects of political life, be it the manner governments are elected in power and changed, the way three organs of government work, to the role civil society hold public institutions to be accountable for their actions. In this regard, governance models, approaches and practices should be adopted and aligned with government decision-making and policy implementation in order to benefit society. As such, a gradual but careful reform of public services in many developing countries was required in order to facilitate service delivery. In addition, Kauzya and Balogun (2005:3) claim that “public reforms” have not only expanded political space, but it has also revived public institutions, and eventually enhanced service delivery. The question, however, is what is governance and why is it important in the process of service delivery?

According to Storey, Bate, Buchanan, Green, Salaman and Winchester (2008:5) the term 'govern' derived from the Greek word which means 'to steer'. Contemporary meanings of governance variously denote the 'rule with authority', 'direct and control', or to 'regulate'. Methods of governance may vary from the tyrannical style of leadership, to democratic, bureaucratic or other alternatives. Storey, *et al* (2008:5) maintain that the contemporary understanding of governance can be equated to structures created by decentralised authorities adopting 'bottom up' variety of duties and 'subject to top-down oversight, scrutiny and regulations'. In essence, it is a kind of centralised control system, but is equally accountable to members of society to whom services are provided. Furthermore, Storey, *et al* (2008:5) substantiate that there is a strong consensus that the present notion of governance implies that authority is shared and coordinated to achieve common objectives. Governance avoids despotic and arbitrary way of management.

Indeed, governance has progressively been utilised as mechanism of oversight to ensure that executive powers do not misuse the responsibility entrusted in them by members of society. Therefore, governance builds anticipations and sets limitations of the public institutions. Similarly, it provides rights to take decisions and places conditions on the manner authority make those decisions. This ensures realistic performance that culminates in attainment of targets within a possible limit of time. Storey *et al* (2008:5-6) argue that governance comprises many processes organised in numerous organisational arrangements and purposefully crafted to achieve set objectives. Achieving these objectives is significant to improved quality of life among citizens especially the rural people.

Fundamentally, governance, and particularly good governance is indispensable in modern Public Administration, *i.e.*, New Public Management. Cheema and Rondinelli (2007:6) reveal that in the 1990s the United Nations helped conceptualised the concept governance, by defining governance as the practice of administrative, economic and political power to administer the affairs of the state. Moreover, Cheema and Rondinelli (2007:6) assert that the UNDP perceived the term governance as those institutions and procedures under which all stakeholders interact with one another to influence public concerns, and through which members of the community communicate their needs and demands, articulate their different views on governance and service delivery, and demonstrate their social, economic and political expectations.

Essentially, according to Cheema and Rondinelli (2007:6), the broader concept of governance regarded policymaking to be not only the responsibility of the government but it is an essential rights of all citizens. In this respect, contending societal issues can be resolved amicably without necessarily putting pressure on one particular institution. The authors said that decision-making process is the responsibility of citizens acquired through democratically exercised electorate action. In other words, in order to provide effective public services, all sectors of society must be involved in the way state resources are dispensed and utilised. Basically, this implies that the state must create a conducive environment in which public and private sectors, civil society and ordinary members of the society can interact and partake in decision-making processes pertaining to governance and service delivery. In effect, this enables government to achieve its goal of inclusive service delivery to improve the wellbeing of the people. In the context of this study the afore-stated goal may be realised in the presence of democratic governance practices and effective service delivery models and approaches.

In their view, Malomo and Somolekae cited by Mavhivha (2007:113) state that “unlike the understanding of the term government, governance connotes managing “with the people”, but not necessarily "by the people”. In addition to the conventional practices, governance strives to establish corporation with all stakeholders in governance and service delivery. Governance considers private sector, labour unions, civil society associations, non-governmental organisations and many other interest groups that are not part of government. In other words, it needs active involvement of the entire spectrum of community. In short, the role of governance is to set standards and procedures that guide the affairs of the state, and not simply “to rule”. In this regard, governance can be considered as “a truly democratic process of governance” (Malomo and Somolekae cited by Mavhivha, 2007:113).

The above arguments hold that governments that exercise good governance practices are likely to achieve their objective of socio-economic growth which, if considerably applied, provides social benefits to the people. Therefore, this study argued that the Namibian government can only achieve its national development plan goals, and eventually realise Vision 2030 if good governance models and practices are adopted and correctly applied. In order to address the demands and needs of the people especially the rural communities, government policy implementation should involve community members. Governance strategies and practices should be formulated based on social and economic reality on the ground. In this regard, public participation and involvement are indispensable in addressing social and economic problems at

grassroots level. This approach can augment the purpose of Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992, and Decentralisation Policy of 1998. In the same vein, it promotes representative democracy at sub-national levels.

Cheema and Rondinelli (2007:6) explain that representative governance implies “the power for government to establish and reinforce means and instruments of citizen participation to partake in decision-making, to respect the rule of law, and to enhance accountability and transparency among officials in dealing with public affairs. Furthermore, Cheema and Rondinelli (2007:6) hold that representative governance may be argued from two viewpoints: Firstly; “it offers an organisational framework that allows citizens an opportunity to be involved in the social, economic and political affairs; and secondly; it upholds fundamental and collective human values that encourage citizens to realise the intrinsic role in state affairs. In the same vein, Storey *et al* (2008:6) clarify that the contemporary understanding of the term governance may be viewed as the action-reaction to increasing societal and institutional ‘complexity’. It suggests the ‘*cul-de-sac*’ from the side of the state in coping and managing societal affairs alone without direct engagement and commitment by other stakeholders in society. In other words, the state realised that power and decision-making needs to be shared, an approach described by Kooiman (2003) as ‘shift to co-arrangements’ (Storey *et al*, 2008:6)

Notwithstanding the above advanced arguments different governance models were received with mixed perceptions especially by some African political leaders. This was because most African countries were colonised, and upon attaining independence, different countries have adopted deferent governance models and theories. For example, Hyden (2007:214) analyses that, “independent African states have different interpretation of governance, which is in fact an influence of colonisation history. Newly independent nations in Africa followed their respective colonisers’ way of governance. Hyden (2007:214) argues that while “the French and the Portuguese introduced state machinery that reflected a Napoleonic model of central control, the Belgians and the British preferred decentralised approach of governing their colonies”. Arguably, this clearly explains why different African leaders were sceptical to adopt broader governance models and practices. Leaders of developing countries opted for what can work for their respective governments.



However, as Hyden (2007:214) further concedes that the above-mentioned governance differences are less manifested in contemporary African governance because of two over-arching arguments. These arguments are as follow:

- First, is the need that African government leaders have felt to centralise power in the name of political stability and national development. This was due to the fact that these states are generally multiethnic and too culturally fragmented to warrant a federal solution. Thus, states in the region have become increasingly similar, with a preference for the integrated prefectoral model of governance. In other words, some former French colonies chose to delegate functions to lower levels of government while retaining decision making powers and control of such functions at the centre. This means the powers of local government institutions was curtailed to such an extent that it produced dependence of local institutions on central government.
- Second, is the integration of the African states into international development community after independence of their growing dependence on the external funding sources. This has created a preference for adopting approaches designed by foreign consultants and funded by donor agencies.

The above-mentioned scenarios have a direct implications on governance practice models and the extent to which essential services is delivered at lower levels of governments. In essence, the historical background of public service made some African leadership to roll-out and implement decentralisation on a gradual basis, due to perceived lack of institutional capacity. Actually, this is evident in the Namibia's situation. Governance and service delivery are dented because the pace of implementation of decentralised functions is very slow. Some key functions are not yet decentralised. In the same vein, government is reluctant to devolve key functions such as finance and decision-making. This affects effective service delivery in Namibia in a sense that decisions on what service and the extent to which such services are delivered are made at central government levels, causing unnecessary delays and inconveniences. As indicated earlier, lack of functions devolution relegated regional and local governments to coordination and advisory capacity only. Therefore, continuous effort should be made to find a practical approach to address service delivery in Namibia.

As it was noted earlier in this chapter, the last fifteen years or so has seen the subject on governance being conceptualised and expanded in public administration literature. Lynn, Heinrich and Hill cited by Fredrickson (2004:2) define governance as the “regimes, laws, rules, judicial decisions, and administrative practices that constrain, prescribe, and enable the provision of publicly supported goals and services”. In essence, this holds strong interest for public administration scholars. It provided a wide-range scope of further analysis and research by scholars. Supporting the same view, Fredrickson (2004:2) argues that the current theoretical and academic thinking of the term of governance in relations to Public Administration is influenced by amongst others, the following notions:

*“It is substantively the same as already established perspectives in public administration, although in a different language; It is essentially the study of the contextual influences that shape the practices of public administration, rather than the study of public administration; It is the study of inter-jurisdictional relations and third party policy implementation in public administration; and, It is the study of the influence or power of non-state and non-jurisdictional public collectives”.*

According to Fredrickson’s (2004:2) analysis of the above-cited approaches to public administration and governance, it is the third and fourth approaches to governance that form the fundamental basis of a congruent theory of governance in public administration”. Frederickson (2004:2) reveals that it was Harlan Cleveland (1972) who first used the word “governance” as an alternative to the phrase public administration. In the mid-1970s, one of the themes in Cleveland's particularly thoughtful and provocative speeches, papers, and books went something like this: “What the people want is less government and more governance”. Explaining this phrase, Fredrickson (2004:2) says what Harlan Cleveland meant by governance was the following cluster of concepts.

*The organisations that get things done will no longer be hierarchical pyramids with most of the real control at the top. They will be systems—interlaced webs of tension in which control is loose, power diffused, and centers of decision plural. Decision-making will become an increasingly intricate process of multilateral brokerage both inside and outside the organisation which thinks it has the responsibility for making, or at least announcing, the decision. Because organisations will be horizontal, the way*

*they are governed is likely to be more collegial, consensual, and consultative. The bigger the problems to be tackled, the more real power is diffused and the larger the number of persons who can exercise it - if they work at it.*

Lynn, Heinrich and Hill cited by Frederickson (2004:6) said it best: The term ‘governance’ is widespread in both public and private sectors, in characterising both global and local arrangements, and in reference to both formal and informal norms and understandings. Because the term has strong intuitive appeal, precise definitions are seldom thought to be necessary by those who use it. As a result, when authors identify ‘governance’ as important to achieving policy or organisational objectives, it may be unclear whether the reference is to organisational structure, administrative processes, managerial judgment, systems of incentives and rules, administrative philosophies, or a combination of these elements.

In the context of this study, governance implies proper management of government affairs, and adherence to all principles necessary to enable government to promptly and considerably answer to the aspirations and needs of the society. In this regard, governance should constitute functional machinery and strategies at central, regional and local government level to facilitate effective delivery of services. Essentially, governance implies designing and applying ‘good governance’ principles and approaches by public and private sector institutions. Governance entails mutual governing of state affairs, proper coordination, and stakeholders’ participation and involvement. The question that various scholarly analyses posed and attempted to answer is, what good governance is, and when are governance practices considered to be ‘good’.

Ladi (2008:11) avers that the “term good governance has been extensively researched and analysed within the international community over the last fifteen years and has acquired the characteristics of a container concept which incorporates a variety of principles and is as general as concepts of globalisation and global governance”. In this regard, Ladi (2006:11) agrees that “good governance is a term different to governance which is mainly a political and technocratic term without normative aspirations and suggests that governance should be good and not bad”. Ladi (2008:11) argues that most international organisations provide definitions of governance rather than good governance. The World Bank, for example, outlines three aspects of governance: “the type of the political regime; the public management of economic and social resources; and the capacity of the government to design, formulate and implement policies”. Ladi (2008:11) clarifies that recently the use of the term good governance has been expanded to

include more than multiparty elections, judiciary and the parliament. The areas of interest are numerous; universal protection of human rights non-discriminatory laws, efficient, impartial and rapid judicial processes, transparent public agencies, accountable decisions by public officials, devolution of resources and decision making to local level from the central government, and meaningful participation by citizens in debating public policies and choices.

According to Diarra and Plane (2011:6) “the concern is that good governance is to be seen as synonymous with sound development, thus extending beyond public sector management to the principles of accountability and the legal framework”. Furthermore, Diarra and Plane (2011:7) posit that good governance concept was initially limited to public management reforms and later to the building of the free market economy then becomes a more complex phenomenon with the introduction of the political values. In Ladi’s (2008:11-12) view, good governance thus becomes an elastic term rather than a concept in its own terms. It is used like a flexible carrier that conveys a varying combination of messages which remain, though, in the same general logic. Moreover, good governance can be understood as a mechanism of capacity building for states that despite being independent are not capable of making and implementing their own decisions. In this regard, Ladi (2008:12) notices that the quality of goals to be achieved by public sector has led to the introduction of ‘good enough governance’, that suggests that not all government deficits can be tackled at once and that they should be prioritised. In this sense, good governance is a product of time and the individual history, political and economic conditions of each country has to be taken into account when reforms are prioritised.

In the context of Namibia, the Constitution forms the basis of good governance. Article 18 makes provision of fair and reasonable administrative justice, The Constitution, in chapter 10, makes provision for the Ombudsman Office and its functions; chapter 10A provides for the Anti-Corruption Measures; and, Article 95 provides for the advancement of the people’s well-being (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990). Importantly, chapter 11 of the same Constitution provides for the creation of governance structures at regional and local authority levels to regulate issues related to governance at sub-national levels. Based on these provisions, rules, regulations and norms were put in place to ensure that public officials respect the rule of law and adhere to good governance principles. International Federation of Accountants - IFA (2013:7) expounds that the good governance practices have been established to encourage public service to delivery good services and to improve transparency and accountability in the public sector. Furthermore, the IFA (2013:11) concludes that the main purpose of good governance,

particularly in the public sector, is to make sure that government agencies performance is conducted in the interest of the people. These, amongst others, are summarised as follow:

- commitment to rule of law, ethical values and integrity;
- stakeholder involvement through transparency and openness;
- sustainable social and economic benefits that define clear outputs;
- applying interventions needed to achieve intended outcomes;
- Create institutional capacity to promote effective leadership;
- Introducing vigorous internal control to manage risks and promote strong fiscal management.
- Utilising good governance practices to promote transparency and accountability.

In the context of the above definitions and explanations, this study argues that good governance practices and approaches are fundamental contributing factors to effective service delivery particularly in rural areas where the majority of communities need services and amenities. This study also maintains that Namibia has in place the governance qualities matching the characteristics advanced by the IFA. For example, as it was indicated in chapter three of this thesis, proper governance frameworks are in place to regulate and direct the activities of public service. The governance frameworks referred should be appropriately applied and implemented. Institutional and human capacities should be created. This will ensure that Namibia live up to the standard needed to enhance socio-economic wellbeing of all people.

Over the years, it was proven that good governance promotes social and economic conditions which enhance the living standards of the people. Countries that adopted and applied good governance practices have flourished in terms of socio-economic development. For example, Botswana is presently regarded as the shining example regarding governance and stable economic development in Africa. In this regard, it is argued that good governance practices can only prosper if there is functional management and effective public sector leadership that are committed to serve the needs and aspirations of the people. Kets De Vries (2006:165) notes that leadership requires an “interactionist approach” to be able to address societal problems. In other words, it requires proper coordination and constant consultation and communication with stakeholders. Noteworthy, this leadership model promotes transparency, participation and accountability, thus, supports good governance and accelerates delivery of public services.

Governance approach at sub-national level in Namibia is viewed in terms of regional and global accepted practices and standards. Public service reforms that took place since Namibia's independence in 1990 have aligned government practices with the constitutional provisions. As indicated earlier, good governance practices are likely to flourish in an environment where there is respect for rule of law, social justice and equal treatment of all people. In this regard, public sector leadership are expected to be innovative and action-oriented if central, regional and local government structures are to achieve their constitutional goals. By implication, public service must adopt good governance practices and be accountable to the people they are serving.

#### **4.3 PRINCIPLES OF GOOD GOVERNANCE AND EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY**

Various models on governance, good governance and service delivery such as those advanced by Hyden, (2007); International Federation of Accountants, (2013); Diarra and Plane (2011); Ladi (2008), and the World Bank (2010) indicate that there are fundamental governance principles. These principles, when correctly applied and implemented, make it possible for democratic governments to govern and provide services to society in a more effective and efficient manner. Essentially, these principles form the basis for good governance practices and effective service delivery in any democratic society.

Joseph Schumpeter's theory of innovation-generates growth, the so-called 'creative chaos' theory provides a contemporary understanding of the way the public service works to fulfil the constitutional requirements regarding service delivery (Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:35). It implies that both political and administrative officials as well as other stakeholders bear equal duties in terms of accountability to society. To this end, public officials are expected to be creative and innovative in their approaches if they are to deliver tangible services to society. Furthermore, Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:45) concede that Adam Smith's concept of the '*invisible hand*' is a cornerstone towards shaping governance practices and promoting service delivery particularly at sub-national levels. This view implies that a society which is guided by self-interest is more prosperous because, in order to satisfy their desires, individuals will be propelled to create new activities and new opportunities that can be profitable to others. In fact, these governance approaches, complemented with innovative and proactive leadership, can help public service to live up to the expectations and aspirations of the people. In this respect, it creates a sense of transparency and responsiveness.

From constitutional perspective, good governance and equitable service delivery are human rights issues. In Namibia, in particular, Article 18 of the Constitution, ‘administrative justice’ and Article 95, ‘principles of state policy’, draw the parameters within which state agencies must exercise authority to satisfy the constitutional requirements. In the same way, the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights provides for political, social, economic, civil and cultural rights at regional and local level, (Horn, 2009:173-176). Namibia is a member state of the above-mentioned body. Consequently, government plans and objectives should be geared towards promoting human rights. In other words, effective service delivery by government institutions improves the people’s living standard, thus, fulfilling government’ responsibility towards ensuring constitutional rights for all people. According to Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:175) many development objectives such as health, education, nutrition, safe-drinking water, sanitation and work have been incorporated in major human rights apparatuses, for example, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenants on Civil and Political Rights, and the Economics, Social and Cultural Rights. This implies that the Namibian government has to respect these instruments because the government ratified them.

This study argues that the observance to human rights issues *vis-a-vis* governance and good governance necessitated public service reforms in many developing countries, including Namibia. McCourt (2013:1) describes ‘public service reform’ as essential interventions that affect public officials at central, regional and local government levels in their quest to deliver services to the public. McCourt (2013:1) takes a problem-solving approach, viewing different public service reform interventions as ways of dealing with different problem situations. Amongst these is to ensure that people’s rights are respected and equal treatment is accorded to all citizens regardless of their status in society or where they live. In fact this will ensure that all citizens including the previously marginalised communities in rural areas receive proper government services. Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:177) argue that the 1990s has seen an intensification of strategies to address citizens concern, which eventually has culminating in awareness of governance issues. In their arguments, the search to adopt good governance practices has profoundly increased after the ‘end of the Cold War’. Furthermore, good governance practices were borne out of upsurge regional conflicts, religious and ethnic division as well as continued disengagement of citizens from the government in many developing countries. The development and increased civil society organisations have also been considered as contributing features, in addition to growing realisation that social and economic benefits increase under good governance environment. According to Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and

Lapeyre (2004:177) the importance of governance issues in international thinking is reflected in the documents issued by the world conferences in the 1990s and in the official statements of bilateral donors and the Bretton Woods institutions.

However, according to McCourt (2013:2) the reforms listed in *figure 4.1* have taken place in recent years as an attempt to deal with policy making and administrative problem situations in developing countries. McCourt (2013:2) therefore rejects the tendency of some international reform brokers to treat reform as approaches that can be transferred unaltered without regard to the environments that they are transferred from and to. In this regard, this study can locate McCourt models of reforms in the context of Namibia's public service reforms since 1990. For example, Kauzya and Balogun (2005:7) note that only after the attainment of Namibia's independent the public service started addressing service delivery in earnest. This was because at independence appropriate legal frameworks were enacted. In this regard, the government created the necessary enabling environment by crafting suitable legislative frameworks to promote good governance practices and inclusive service delivery. Notable reforms on decentralisation, public ethics and integrity, bottom-up administration and capacity building and all other institutional arrangements have taken place in Namibia. Essentially, this remarkable effort was aimed at improved governance and equitable delivery of services to the people. As was indicated earlier in this chapter as well as in other chapters of this thesis, public reform in Namibia has not been without challenges. Some of the challenges may be explained by understanding those given by McCourt in figure 4.1. It must be noted that figure 4.1 does not depict the challenges of public reform in Namibia, but it can be used to understand the Namibian situation. Therefore, McCourt used the diagram to explain and illustrate problems and approaches of public reform in general.



**Figure 4.1: Public Service Reform Problems and Approaches**

| <b>Problem</b>   | <b>Approach</b>  | <b>Main action period</b>                                     |
|--|--|---|
| How can we put government on an orderly and efficient footing?       | ‘Weberian’ Public Administration and Capacity Building | Post-independence period in South Asia and sub Saharan Africa |
| How can we get government closer to the grassroots?                  | Decentralisation                                       | 1970s to present  |
| How can we make government more affordable?                          | Pay and Employment Reform                              | 1980s to 1990s  |
| How can we make government better and deliver on our key objectives? | New Public Management                                  | 1990s to present  |
| How can we make government more honest?                              | Integrity and Anti-corruption Reforms                  | 1990s to present  |
| How can we make government more responsive to citizens?              | Bottom-up Reforms                                      | Late 1990s to present   |

*Source: McCourt (2013:2).*

It should be noted that the purpose of providing the above-mentioned reform models is to demonstrate the link between administrative reforms, governance and service delivery. Introducing new public management approach in the public service improves performance and thus enhances service delivery (Mccourt, 2013:3). Similarly, decentralisation and capacity building encourage state institutions to deliver and, at the same time, promotes integrity among employees. In particular, decentralisation encourages bottom-up approach of decision-making and programme implementation, as well as active participation of citizens.

Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:3) advance the following questions which are closely related to governance: “Is the process of development assessed primarily as economic advance in terms of countries becoming economically richer, their populations enjoying rising living standards, the countries becoming economically stronger or less vulnerable to natural disasters or to financial shocks? Is the process to be judged in terms of social achievements, fulfilment of human rights, or expansion of freedoms?” “What weight is to be given to issues of distribution – the extent to which economic and social advancement, even democratic benefits, are

concentrated on some rich or better-off segment of the population or are distributed more evenly among the population as a whole?” Conversely so, Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:18) advice that well thought development objectives fulfil two important requirements. First, it provides tangible things, and secondly, it produces access that can be reinvested in production. In other words, the objective of development is to establish a social structure that enables individual to contribute to general societal interest through the pursuance of own interest. In this regard, developmental objectives can be achieved if government institutions put in place good governance practices that encourage individual contribution, deal with public service delivery, and strictly observe good governance principles.

McCourt’s (2013:2) public service reform problems and approaches provide a useful hint on the benefits and challenges of public administration reforms. In his view, the type of reform to be undertaken should depend on the economic and social environment of a specific country. For the reform to address both economic and social problems, it must be adapted to the needs of the country. Therefore, McCourt (2013:2-3) notes that the success of any public service reform depends on the procedure and strategies being utilised to realise the intended objectives. Various public service reforms that have been undertaken in Namibia since independence have achieved some of the intended objectives. For example, the creation of 13 political and administrative regions through enacting of Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Act enabled government to bring services and decision-making power closer to the citizens at sub-national level. Decentralisation Enabling Act also made it possible for deconcentration and subsequently delegation of power and services to sub-national levels of government. It also contributed to capacity building at both regional and local levels in the country. However, this does not necessarily mean the above-mentioned reforms were without challenges. The aspects of unnecessary bureaucratic hindrances, resources constraints (financial and human resources), resistance to change, unethical staff and mistrust between political and administrative officials have slowed down the reform processes. In this regard, McCourt’s reform models should be cautiously approached if government is to succeed in its reform endeavours. Ladi (2008:37) reminds us that no country has undergone an easy public administration reform process. Public reform can only succeed if it is tailored depending on an individual administration environment. Yes, Ladi argued, universal philosophies do exist, however, government social and economic conditions vary. This influences public reform.

#### **4.4 APPLICABILITY OF GOOD GOVERNANCE PRINCIPLES ON SERVICE DELIVERY**

Fundamentally, the principles of good governance form the underlying factors in addressing political, economical and social issues. Contemporary literature on governance not only places an emphasis on those principles but it also demonstrates that such principles are indivisible to democratic exercises and promotion of living standards of the people. By implication, such principles are critical to effective public administration and public service delivery. Cheema (2007:32); Bovaird and Loftor (2003:18); Rondinelli (2007:7-8); Punyaratabandhu, (2004:1); Albritton, (2009:6) assert that in order for good governance practices to exist certain principles must be met. In the context of this study those principles are: public participation, rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, accountability and decentralisation. This therefore argues that many governments in developing countries have enjoyed successes because they put in place good governance framework to regulate the activities of governments. In other words, they implemented political and administrative reforms that are conducive to their respective environment, and more importantly those countries adhered to good governance practices they put in place. One of those countries is Botswana. Sebudubudu (2010:250-251) and Robinson (2009:10-12) noticed that Botswana enjoyed rapid growth in terms of economic and social development because the state institutions established stable and accountable governance system.

In the following sections, this study briefly analysed and discussed each of the good governance principles as identified in preceded discussions above. As indicated earlier good governance principles, when correctly exercised, can lead to economic and social development, and subsequently improve the living standards of the people especially those at residing at grassroots levels. In other words, good governance principles contribute to better service delivery.

##### ***4.4.1 Rule of law***

Contemporary public administration calls for legitimate public institutions which are answerable to the people they serve. Shivute (2008:213) describes rule of law as an intrinsic value that denotes that the authority of the government and that of the state can only be legally exercised within the parameters of appropriate laws and set procedures. In addition, Shivute (2008:213) states in a democracy the 'hallmarks' of abide by the rule of law considered and encourage

division of authority that circumvent undue influence. Contributing to the question of rule of law in Namibia, Amoo and Skeffers (2008:21) add that the principle of division of authority takes into account the existence of three branches of state, as stipulated under Article 1(3) of the Constitution. In other words, this means that the executive, legislature and judiciary should have clear and defined mandate to enable them to effectively operate. Furthermore, Amoo and Skeffers (2008:21) state that the Namibian Constitution provides clear line of authority to allow each of the three branches of state to operate independently of the other. However, this does not necessarily imply that there are no 'checks and balances'. This demarcation of authority facilitates better governance of state institutions, and accelerates service delivery to society. It also provides an opportunity for citizens to hold state institutions and officials accountable for their actions.

This study maintains that the rule of law encourages governments' to hold regular elections so that electorate can decide and elect whom they want to govern. Basically, rule of law promotes good governance practices and consequently gives power to the people. In the same vein, Punyaratabandhu (2004:1) argues that good governance is described as the striving for rule of law. Furthermore, rule of law discourages maladministration, dishonest and corruption among state institutions. In this regard, rule of law is important than the rule of will of the people (Geingob, 2004:118).

One best way of promoting adherence to rule of law is when government institutions comply with good governance practices and respect legal frameworks. It is when government officials treat laws, rules and procedures as tools that guide officials' conduct. Very important, government officials should set highest standards that include integrity, honesty, ethics and good political and administrative behaviour. Setting the above-mentioned standard improves public officials' performance while at the same time earns them respect from the public. The United Nations (1998:13) states that some studies on governance and service delivery show that there is an increase in a number of people in many countries around who are disapproving the law when they see that public officials too do not respect the same law. It must be said that this situation is not conducive to governance and service delivery.

Kaapama *et al* (2007:92) could not put it better by saying that the foundation of democracy in Namibia are constitutional supremacy, guarantee of rule of law, demarcation of authority and respect of the human rights and freedom of all people as per internationally accepted standards . In this regard, Kaapama *et al*, (2007:91-92) suggest that democracy in developing countries needs to concern itself with pertinent social and economic aspects that are central to human rights dignity and values, adding that appropriate strategies must be taken to address social issues.

This can materialise if both government institutions and public officials have respect for the rule of law, exercise good governance practices such as honesty, accountability and transparency. It must be emphasised that more needs to be done in these areas in Namibia. By saying this, this study does not ignore the fact that Namibia has done a lot in terms of promoting peace and democracy. Also, Kaapama, *et al* (2007:4) agree that Namibia has done a lot in terms of promoting and respecting democratic political processes. This has been manifested through continuous multi-party elections, peaceful hand-over of power, free media which are all signs of rule of law and respect of the constitution. However, as it was indicated in this study, good governance practices at sub-national levels including the Oshana Region still need more attention in order to improve service delivery. In this regard, constant governance and respect of rule of law must be maintained at all levels of society to guarantee good governance practices and improved service delivery in Namibia.

#### **4.4.2 Public participation**

While voice in the shape of citizen participation in governance can be traced back from ‘Athenian direct democracy’, its present dominance in developmental governance derives ‘from James Wolfensohn’s restoration of poverty to the centre of the World Bank mission of the late 1990s’ (McCourt, 2013:13). The milestone opinions of the Poor Report, with a preface co-authored by Wolfensohn, found that public institutions were among the most important but also the least effective in addressing the poor’s needs. The Report called for an organised civil society which can play a crucial role in decentralised governance arrangements in order to hold lower levels of governments more accountable (McCourt, 2013:13). According to McCourt (2013:13) it was this aspect of the Report that went on to make a distinction and controversial contribution to World Development Report 2001/1. The World Development Report in question advocated empowerment of poor communities through participation in public service delivery, and making governance agencies answerable to the public either through court, civil society institutions’

advocacy and media. Furthermore, McCourt (2013:13) notes that public administration also departed from the notion of public administration accountability which asserts that the quality of service delivery can be decreased when government officials provide accountability more to the high authority than to members of the public whom they are expected to serve.

Public participation promotes “the principle of *ubuntu*, a collective consciousness that involves notions such as universal brotherhood and sharing” (Prinsloo, 2000:41-46) which in simple term is a social view of cohesion. The principle of *ubuntu* means public service should contribute to the wellbeing of all the people. Public officials should focus on the needs and aspirations of the citizens. Similarly, governance practices should be people-centred to ensure equitably sharing of public resources and effective service delivery. Sharing, in this sense, implies participation which brings society together and identifies itself with what is being done collectively. In essence, participation of citizens in governance affairs augments service delivery especially at sub-national levels. Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:182) add that the world conferences of the 1970s which also revived in 1990s put particular emphasis on effectively mobilising and energising civil society to participate in the government affairs that address society needs and aspirations.

These conferences evoked active participation of constituencies as diverse as women, ethnic groups, corporations, churches, unions, farmers’ associations, local authorities, youth and professional groups and voluntary development agencies. Furthermore, Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:183) conclude that the above-mentioned world conferences also “influence domestic policies through a wide variety of national channels”. The preparatory process, which involves meetings, workshops, and organisation of country papers, stimulates interest in the issues, and provokes debate about policy options. Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:183) comment that this facilitates the participation of diverse constituencies with contending views in drawing up of policy and programme priorities.

Discussion on the subject of participation was also advanced by Hunter and Shah (2005:40) who explained that participation by citizens encourages consistent delivery of services in accordance with public demands and preferences as well as public service responsibility. Therefore, public participation is only possible in politically stable environment in which political freedom prevails. Analysis by Cheema (2007:49) reveals three fundamental forms of public participation. These include:

- political participation that promotes and guarantees rule of law, individual rights, multi-party democracy and freedom of all citizens to partake in decision-making processes;
- economic participation which encourages citizens to use their capabilities, skills and knowledge to maximise income in order to sustain their livelihood; and
- cultural participation that gives opportunity to people to exercise their cultural rights comprising of art, language and music.

The above-mentioned forms of participation, though might be existed in any country, are only guaranteed in a democratic setting in which rule of law and good governance prevail. Therefore, this study argues that these forms of citizen participation can flourish in an environment where democratic governance practices are in place and consistently applied. Essentially, active public participation in political, economic, social and cultural environment advances the country's development and improves the living standard of the people.

Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:316) quote Max Weber as saying that “interaction creates ideas, imposing kills them”. In other words, as Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:316) phrased it, in social sciences; *ideas rarely come to the isolated individual shivering in the cold of his or her room in the attic. They rather come through the interaction of many individuals and groups in the warm rice fields of Asia*”. In this regard, citizen participation must be democratic in order to promote participatory governance practices and accelerate public service delivery to society. Contributing to academic discourse on public participation, Satterthwaite (2007:272) comments that ‘participatory governance’ calls for inclusion, in the mainstream economy, of citizens particularly the marginalised members of society who were previously excluded in ‘conventional governance’. Public participation denotes the creation and reinforcement of measures that promote active engagement of citizens who in one way or another could not participate in governance structures and processes. Satterthwaite (2007:273) cites Arnstein's citizen participation ladder to illustrate the extent and the nature to which people can participate in decision-making of state institutions. In earnest, this confirms that citizen participation may vary depending on the government and governance practices. For example, citizen participation in a centralised authority might not necessarily be the same as in a decentralised state. However, what matters most is their contribution to governance and service delivery in society. Following is Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation.

**Figure 4.2: Arnstein’s eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation.**

|                          |   |
|--------------------------|---|
| <b>Citizen Power</b>     | 8. Citizen control: Where citizens can govern a programme or institution, be in full charge of policy and management, and negotiate the conditions under which outsiders may change this.   |
|                          | 7. Delegated power: Where citizens achieve dominant decision making authority over a particular programme.  |
|                          | 6. Partnership: Through agreements to share planning, decision making and other responsibilities, power is redistributed between citizens and power holders. This works best where there is an organised power base in the community that is accountable to community members and has financial resources.  |
| <b>Tokenism</b>          | 5. Placation: Citizens begin to have some influence but provision for this by power holders is still tokenistic. For instance worthy representatives of the poor are put on a board where they are in a minority and where they are not accountable to a constituency in the community.   |
|                          | 4. Consultation: The extent of participation depends on how much the consultation influences what is done and how it is done (and with whom). Surveys may be carried out with little provision to ensure that their findings influence anything. Governments often use measurements of consultations (How many people attended meetings or answered surveys) as measurements of involvement when they do not actually measure real participation. |
|                          | 3. Informing: Informing citizens of their rights, responsibilities and options can be the most important first step towards legitimate citizen participation. But this is a tokenism when the emphasis is on a one way flow of information from officials to renegotiate. Examples include organising community meetings dominated by officials’ presentations with little opportunity for questions and discussions.                             |
| <b>Non participation</b> | 2. Therapy: The real objective is to change those attitudes and behaviours of participants that local government officials do not like under the guise of seeking their advice - for instance getting resident groups to help clean up their neighbourhood rather than question the lack of government services.  |
|                          | 1. Manipulation: For example, citizens placed on advisory committees that have no power, or where the citizens have no power [to influence the outcome].  |

Source: Satterthwaite (2007:273-274).

In the context of Namibia, citizen participation and involvement in decision making is evolving but not yet at the level where citizens determine what government programmes should be undertaken, and how much resources should be used. Decisions regarding government programmes are taken in the form of top-down with a tokenistic approach to citizens (Totemeyer, 2010: 26). Matters pertaining to budget and policy making are decided and



formulated at central level respectively. Only implementation process is taking place at sub-national levels. Even that citizens' participation is minimal. The problem with this top-down approach is disproportionate distribution of state resources, skewed development at sub-national level and consequently low level of citizen participation and poor delivery of services. In this regard, this study argues that while the Namibian governance system does not make provisions for budget and policies to be decided and made at sub-national levels, citizens at grassroots levels should first be widely consulted before decisions are taken. This will ensure that their inputs and needs are considered during budgeting and policy making processes. In addition, it will also create a sense of ownership and compliance during implementation.

Geingob (2004:216) confirms that low level participation of the majority in the economy resulted in significant disparity between the rich and the poor. As alluded to earlier, citizen participation does not only mean participating in elections to elect political leaders. It goes beyond politics, to include economic, social and cultural participation. This allows citizens to evaluate government activities and question government decisions on programmes and projects intended to improve society wellbeing.

Though decentralisation is in place in Namibia, as pointed out earlier, policy making and budgetary powers are not devolved to lower levels of government. This is in fact making it difficult for regional and local authority to solicit community involvement. Practically, this makes citizen participation ineffective. The Namibian government should consider putting in place mechanisms to facilitate devolving of economic power to the citizens in order to improve public participation. The government should also create a conducive environment in rural areas to facilitate economic development. Services such as electricity, water, proper roads should be expanded and made available to all corners of the country. This may encourage potential investors to invest in rural areas. In this regard, the national economic base might be bridged to reach even the previously economic disadvantaged people.

### **4.4.3 Transparency**

Public administration literature review revealed that transparency in government institutions is accepted as one of the fundamental features of good governance. When people are properly informed and able to see what public officials are doing they can articulately interact with their state institutions to build up dialogue on social and economic issues in society (Pope, 2007:116). It is inevitable in all dealings of the government. As discussed by Ladi (2008:29), in order to realise transparency in public service, good institutional arrangements are needed, openness and honesty should be promoted and functional measures of internal and external control must be instituted correctly applied. Furthermore, Ladi (2008:29) acknowledges that effective information and technologies sharing and usage at all levels of public service are regarded as imperative toward realising transparency. Consequently, the above leads to improved services delivery to the people and support functional democracy. Transparency among public institutions ensures information accessible to citizens. This provides an opportunity for them to demand accountability for public officials' action.

Cheema (2007:32) notes that transparency promotes openness of the democratic process through reporting and feedback, clear processes and procedures, and the conduct and actions of those holding decision-making authority. It makes understandable information and clear standards accessible to citizens. In the same vein, Pope (2007:132-135) argues that the right to information is a fundamental aspect of transparency. Access to information, free, independence and pluralistic media is essential to a free and open society.

The issue of transparency in government's dealings with the public is indispensable. Citizens have the constitutional rights to information on what the government does and what it cannot do. For free flow of information to citizens, free and independent media is needed. Pope (2007:132) finds that an open society recognises that no one has a monopoly on the truth. Citizens are able vigorously to debate government policies and the future direction of their country, and freedom is maximised, but the weak and the poor are protected. In addition, Pope (2007:132) argues that an open society is not a function of culture or history, but of a genuine commitment to government transparency and civil rights. To this end, Pope (2007:132) stresses that the purpose of access to information is clear: to build public trust, which in turn safeguards against corruption. According to Pope (2007:133) there exists an assumption that all information

belongs to the public. Unless there are compelling reasons why it should be withheld, information is held in trust by a government to be used in the public interest.

In the Namibian context, access to information forms the basis of chapter three of the Namibian Constitution. Freedoms of expression and sharing of information are provided for in the Namibian Constitution. Article 18 of the Namibian Constitution also makes it clear that “administrative officials must act fairly” in executing their duties. Similarly, Namibian government expressly committed to the principles of openness and transparency in dealing with issues affecting the public. For example, the Namibian Customer Service Charter, as indicated in chapter three of this study, can justify the above claim. However, the drawback in this regard is often caused by poor governance practices by public service officials. More often than not, governance and service delivery related information does not reach the people especially those residing in rural areas. This is because of lack of communication facilities. Similarly, both print and electronic media are not readily available in rural areas. Long distance between government offices and some rural communities may also contribute to lack of information in rural areas since public officials are far from the people they have been appointed to serve. Decisions are sometimes taken without proper consultation with society (Office of the Ombudsman, 2012). In other words, some of these communities remain uninformed, particularly, on aspects of budgeting and policymaking. Against the above exposition, the issue of transparency and access to information remains a contentious issue in Namibia, specifically when it comes to governance and service delivery. Addressing these areas will improve governance and service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia.

#### ***4.4.4 Accountability***

“Accountability is regarded as the basis of public service” (Rondinelli, 2007:21). In this regard, accountability is the pillar of democracy and good governance that compels the state, the private sector, and civil society to focus on results, seek clear objectives, develop effective strategies, and monitor and report on performance (Cheema, 2007:32). According to Andrews and Shah (2005:78) the word accountability is most often used in relations to governance processes as it refers to political accountability to citizens. In terms decentralisation, local-level representatives are meant to become more accountable to their constituencies. This theory assumes that local constituents have the ability to call such representatives to account for their actions and for their performance, and to discipline or reward them accordingly. In addition, Andrews and Shah

(2005:78) caution that accountability is only possible where political representation is highly localised, and citizens have information about government performance and voice, and exit channels that can effectively be used to ensure the accountability of their representatives. The same view expressed by Diale, Maserumule and Mello (2007:638) that those with power must answer to those they serve.

For Cheema (2007:32), accountability has three dimensions. They are as follows:

- Firstly, financial accountability which implies an obligation on the part of the person(s) handling resources, or holding public office or any other position of trust, to report on the intended and actual use of the resources.
- Secondly, political accountability which means regular and open methods for sanctioning or rewarding those who hold positions of public trust through a system of checks and balances among the executive, legislative and the judicial branches.
- Thirdly, administrative accountability which implies systems of internal control by the government, including civil service standards and incentives, ethics codes, and administrative reviews.

These dimensions, particularly administrative accountability, tie well with the purpose of this study. For good governance practices to be effective it requires reform of administrative rules and procedures to allow public officials to carry out their duties in the manner acceptable to society. It requires effective control mechanisms that not only direct procedures but also ensure that services are reaching the intended beneficiaries.

Prenzler (2009:9) argues that accountability is a slightly awkward word that is probably best translated as ‘responsibility’. It denotes a relationship between at least two people. One delegates a task. The other receives the task. The process entails an obligation, or contract, on the second person to fulfil the task in the way intended. The second person is accountable to the first. Prenzler provided a classical example of an employer giving an employee a task that will be performed out of sight of the employer. This entails a grant of power, an assumption of responsibility and usually some discretion. But because the person delegating the task is not omnipresent there needs to be mechanisms for checking the work of the employee and correcting any errors (Prenzler, 2009:10).

In the context of regional and local governance, citizens delegate power to public officials (politicians and administrative officials) by means of electing the government into power. Citizens' expectations are that public officials carry out their work diligently and provide services to society. In other words, public officials are accountable to the government and citizens for their actions. Therefore, as indicated in chapter three, if government institutions fail to put in place good governance practices that are conducive to service delivery in a way they deny citizens their constitutional rights to access to services. Namibia is not exception in this regard. Accountability is very crucial element of governance. Namibia is democratic country where political leadership is elected by the people; therefore, they are accountable to the electorate. Similarly, administrative officials use public resources which they must account for at the end of the day. The Namibian government has made a tremendous effort by establishing the Namibia Institute for Public Administration and Management that assumed responsibility of training public officials in order to create human resources capacity both at national and sub-national levels.

As it was discussed in chapter three, training public service officials improves officials' performance to deliver services to citizens and ultimately develops accountability. Again, as in the case of transparency, appropriate frameworks are in place to enforce accountability. The Anti-Corruption Commission, Office of the Ombudsman, Parliamentary Committee on Account and Finance and various mechanisms being utilised by public institutions are some of the accountability instruments in Namibia. However, the above mechanisms may not be effective if officials lack public service ethics, dignity, honest and norms. In this regard, the Namibian government seems to do the best it can, to instil and encourage a sense of accountability among public service officials.

#### ***4.4.5 Decentralisation***

The post-independence Africa has created a system of decentralised state functions and decision making at sub-national level. According to Kiwanuka (2010:45) decentralisation as both a concept and policy has recently emerged as a highly popular strategy for improving public service efficiency, responsiveness, and accountability in the developing world. In addition, Kiwanuka (2010:44) notes that concerns regarding central administrative capacity, fiscal constraints and the limited accountability at all levels of government have led African states to place increased emphasis on the importance of decentralisation and developing capacity for

effective local governance. In the same vein, Caldeira, Foucault and Rota-Graziosi (2010:1) argue that decentralisation has recently been embraced by a large number of developing countries especially in Africa, since it has been presented as a powerful tool to reduce poverty and improve governance. Decentralisation is perceived as a way to ensure political stability, to improve accountability and responsiveness of local leaders to increase efficiency of public policy and ultimately to reduce poverty.

Katorobo (2007:238) states that most governments have embraced decentralisation concept and put in place strategies to promote it. For example, Ribot (2002:1) observes that many African countries such as Namibia, Ghana, Mali, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa and Uganda have constitutions that are explicitly pro-decentralisation and formally recognise the existence of local governments. Ribot (2002:1) further states that there is no single country in Africa in which some form of local government is not in operation. According to Ladi (2008:30) decentralisation constitutes one of the good governance principles in the sense that it brings democratic and effective governance close to the citizens. The aim of decentralisation, as Ladi (2008:30) added, is the strengthening of local and regional authorities in order to be able to satisfy citizens' needs and to respond to the changes of their external environment.

In the Namibian context, decentralisation is a state's approach that guarantees democratic participation and achieves sustainable development. As is indicated earlier, it is provided for in Chapter 12 of the Namibian Constitution. Nevertheless, Namibia is a unitary state; hence the implementation of decentralisation is carried out in terms of the provisions and spirit of the unitary state. The unitary state in this sense implies "the principle of democracy, the rule of law and justice for all". It also means that "all power shall be vest in the people of Namibia who shall exercise their sovereignty through the democratic institutions of the state" (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:2). In this respect, decentralisation effort should respond to the needs and aspirations of the people.

According to Caldeira, Foucault and Rota-Graziosi (2010:1) two principal and non-exclusive arguments might explain the desire to embrace decentralisation in developing countries. The first one is what is called 'proximity principle', which implies that decentralisation brings government closer to citizens. In essence, this theory emphasises that decentralisation improves preference matching by offering a greater diversity of heterogeneous populations. In this regard, decentralisation induces a high accountability of government and in fact is a better efficiency in

public spending. The second main argument in favour of decentralisation dates at least from Tiebout (1961) theory, and may be called ‘competition principle’. It implies that “decentralisation is supposed to induce some interjurisdictional competition among political powers” (Caldeira, Foucault and Rota-Graziosi, 2010:1). The “interjurisdictional competition” concept was coined to indicate a fair and beneficial effort by state institutions to develop their respective social and economic conditions in order to promote the social welfare of the people. It is appropriate to a federal system of governance where states compete for economic development by utilising the available “taxes, services and regulations as competing tools”. Caldeira, Foucault and Rota-Graziosi, (2010:2), however, advise that the Tiebout model of ‘competition principle’ cannot be applied in developing countries due to population mobility that appears to be strongly limited, and some administrative capacity constraints. In this regard, Caldeira, Foucault and Rota-Graziosi (2010:2) note that the above-mentioned pitfalls have induced literature on decentralisation in developing countries to the effectiveness of the ‘proximity principle’. In other words, developing countries need to establish public institutions at sub-national levels and decentralise functions. Proximity of institutions and functions will improve service delivery.

Nevertheless, the favoured argument by Caldeira, Foucault and Rota-Graziosi (2010:2) might not entirely be the only reason in which developing countries can achieve decentralisation goals. It is not only the proximity of governance and functions that increase efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery. Other factors might also come to play. For example, at independence Namibia has adopted a free market economy principle. This allows competition to take place among service delivery sectors. In a situation where resources are limited, government sectors may not compete against each other, other than complementing one another. However, the nature and scope in which governance takes place and services are provided, is done in such a way that best efforts are made to create a favourable conducive environment to attract investment. Different governance approaches can be introduced to attract investment. For example, these approaches may include institutional reform, policy harmonisation, good intergovernmental relations, creating good relationship between local government and business community, and providing incentives for investors in order to entice them to consider investing in a particular local authority. At regional levels, availability of electricity, road infrastructure and telecommunication facilities are crucial tools for investment. The above requires local government to be proactive and innovative. Where local governments are more innovative and

creative in attracting investors, employment opportunities are likely to occur, and service delivery increases.

Nyiri (2000:5) states that the rationale for decentralisation is manifold. “One type of reasoning uses normative and inherent arguments. In this respect, decentralisation promotes citizen participation. A decentralised state apparatus provides more access and control over the bureaucracy for its citizens than the centralised one; therefore, it makes democracy and participation a reality”. In addition, Nyiri (2000:5) argues that another normative benefit of decentralisation in public administration is that it, “instead of forcing a unified way of life; it recognises the autonomy of the grassroots”. Another argument is that of instrumental line (Nyiri, 2000:6). Decentralisation facilitates the performance of specialised functional tasks by utilising local resources and services. Bringing services closer to the people prevents system overload and service disruption because decisions pertaining governance and service delivery are sub-national levels. Decentralisation also prevents power monopoly of central government. The following *figure 4.3* illustrates the above mentioned two main arguments on decentralisation.

**Figure 4.3: Arguments in favour of decentralisation of political power**

| <b>Normative/Inherent Arguments</b>   | <b>Instrumental Arguments</b>  |
|---|--|
| Increased citizen participation in public affairs                                     | Greater efficiency and effectivity of the management of public affairs |
| Minority rights protection against majority rule                                      | Prevents system overload and breakdowns                                |
| Increases the acceptance of grassroots diversity such as local customs and traditions | Prevents abuse of central government<br>“bulwark against tyranny”      |

*Source: Nyiri (2000:5)*

In terms of decentralisation of administrative power, Ribot (2002:2-3) contends that decentralisation can be constructively thought as the strengthening of local institutions to play a more representative, responsive and constructive role in the everyday life of the local populations and the countries in which they live. Such strengthening usually involves the transfer of financial resources and decision making power from central government. In essence, “decentralisation is about creating realm of local autonomy defined by inclusive local processes



and local authorities empowered with decisions and resources that are meaningful local people” (Ribot, 2002:2-3).

According to Robit (2002:2-3) in the colonial, period decentralised government called association by the French and indirect rule by the British were set up as means to penetrate and manage the developing countries. These systems were created to manage Africans under administrative rule rather than to empower them. Therefore, at independence African governments inherited a system in which local governments were tools of foreign administrative management. Under this system, Robit (2002:3) says, customary authorities were privileged as representatives of the developing countries and the prefects, *commandants des cercles* (in French), and district officers were the appointing supervising managers. *Commandants des cercles* connotes an administrator appointed by the colonial master to administer a particular colony. Such administrator is given more power to direct and impose decisions on the colony as he/she deems appropriate. The coercive nature of the colonial state delegitimised local governments and customary authorities. The benefits of this system were that the colonial policy set up the infrastructure for the central state to continue managing rural affairs. They did not leave the infrastructure as they found them, but reformed them to strengthen the state roles (Robit, 2002:3). This system created dependence that took time to reform.

Democratic decentralisation only becomes prominent after independence in many African states. During colonial era the majority of the people were denied essential services such as health, housing, education, clean water and sanitation. In many developing countries, colonial laws made it impossible for citizens to access the afore-mentioned services. Kiwanuka (2010:48) contends that many African states were centralised during colonial rule and local authorities were inspired by local government systems in operation in the time of the respective colonial masters. Ojambo (2012:71) argues that the principal objectives of decentralisation have historically included the promotion of accountability, transparency, efficiency in governance and service delivery, the empowerment of the masses from grassroots through the participation of individuals and communities in their governance. Therefore, Ojambo (2012:71) emphasises that decentralisation is the effective mechanism of extending and deepening the democratisation process to the grassroots in order to promote people-based development in the context of high regard of human rights. As was explained in chapter three of this thesis, Namibia went through the same experience during colonial era. The majority of the people in the country were denied access to basic services and amenities. It is against the backdrop of the above-mentioned

explanation that public service reform is crucial in addressing the needs of the people in Namibia, especially the previously marginalised rural communities.

Ojambo (2012:77) contends that when the people involved in their own governance through decentralisation, accountability on the part of office bearers is enhanced, hence leading to more efficient utilisation of resources, which in turn promotes development. Ojambo (2012:77) further critiques that while formal legal framework and structure of any given decentralised system is important in determination of its success, other extraneous factors such as level of people's awareness, availability of necessary resources and the commitment of the central government are usually critical in determining degree of success.

Kiwanuka (2010:50) highlights what various public administration literature pointed out regarding governance and service delivery, by stating that the fundamental principles of good governance include “respect for the rule of law and human rights, political openness, participation and inclusiveness, equality and non-discrimination, effective and efficient process and institutions, transparency, and accountability” (Kiwanuka, 2010:50). Therefore, the above-mentioned principles offer an enabling environment in which decentralisation might take place, and responsibilities are transferred from the central government to lower levels of government so that citizens can participate in decision-making to improve their livelihoods. In this respect, Kiwanuka (2010:50) notes that decentralisation “offers partnerships between local government institutions, civil society organisations and the private sector for attainment of good governance”.

#### **4.4.6. Effectiveness and efficiency**

Effectiveness refers to the success or otherwise the rate of achieving objectives (Jones and Pendlebury (1996:10). It concerns with performance outputs regardless of the amount of resources used. Effectiveness relates to goal achievement. However, the central question in this regard is whether goals and objectives have been achieved within the limitations of allocated resources? The issue of scarce resources and the manner they are managed to meet the needs and aspirations of the people is central to governance and service delivery. Minnaar and Bekker (2005:128) asked; what and how much value was created in the process of service delivery?” Cohen (1993:49) quotes Lynn as saying; “success in public management is a product of the interaction of personality and circumstances, that is, the skilful use of many approaches such as

structural, political and symbolic in order to produce movement towards goals in specific situations.” Cohen (1993:49) further states that the definition of effectiveness varies with different organisational environments, different organisational types and different organisational goals. Each of the functions and the attributes needed to perform those functions vary in different organisational settings. Gaertner and Rammarayan accentuate that effectiveness is not a characteristic of organisational outputs but rather a continuous process relating the organisation to its constituencies. It is negotiated rather than produced. An effective organisation is one that is able to create accounts of itself and of its activities that relevant constituencies find acceptable. The accounts may be for various purposes to various audiences and for various activities (Mouzas, n.d).

Efficiency refers to the relationship between the cost and the expedience of transforming inputs into outputs. The cost of quality of the management process is a major consideration in this regard (Minnaar and Bekker, 2005:128). According to Grandy (2008:1) the notion of efficiency envisions managers pursuing the least means of achieving given ends. Efficiency dictates that choices of alternatives which produce the largest result for the given application of resources need to be made.

Two early public administration authors who held a broad view of efficiency were Morris Cooke and Frederick Cleveland (Van der Meer and Rutgers 2006). Cooke and Cleveland’s that efficiency is a mean of promoting public responsiveness to citizen demands in a democracy. These authors interpreted their perspective as implying that efficiency is secondary rather than primary value. In this regard, one might instead note that the viewpoint of Cooke and Cleveland implies that efficiency is a basic value –one that undergirds and supports the broader values of government activity. In the context of this study, efficiency consideration allows governance structures to properly plan and distribute resources accordingly to ensure that communities receive and benefit from limited government resources.

Generally speaking, efficiency describes the extent to which time, effort or cost prudently used for the intended task or purpose. It is often used with the specific purpose of relaying the capability of a specific application of effort to produce a specific outcome effectively with a minimum amount or quantity of waste, expense, or unnecessary effort. Efficiency has widely varying meanings in different disciplines. While public institutions are expected to be efficient when dealing with public resources, such efficiency should not overshadow effective delivery of

services to the citizens. Therefore, public managers must consider every effort and implement policies and programmes which address the plight of the people.

#### **4.5 GENERAL TRENDS, PROCESSES AND DYNAMICS OF GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN NAMIBIA**

Public administration literature reveals that the fundamental purpose of public service is to provide efficient and effective services to the people (Totemeyer, 2010; Cheema and Rondinelli, 2012; Diescho, 2010). Governments are elected into power by the people; hence, they should answer to the needs and aspirations of the electorate. In this regard, governance approaches and practices being employed by public service play a meaning role in promoting social and economic sustainability. This enhances the living standards of the people. Ching Yuen Luk (2013:193) advances governance models constructed based on existing literature on the ICTs, politics and democratic theory. These include:

- Managerial model, which is a ‘push model’ focussing on faster delivery of public services online and provision of a simple and unilinear flow of information that ignores democratic communication.
- Consultative model, which is a pull model which facilitates the communication between the government and citizens and greater democratic participation through e-voting and online opinion poll. But communication is limited to direct question-asking activities by the government to generate quantifiable and comparative responses to particular policy issues.
- Participatory model, which involves complex and multidirectional interactivity that constitutes democracy by utilising line discussion forum, bulletin boards, chat rooms and file sharing that create a new cyber civil society. This model might work well in developing countries, provided, infrastructure are put in place to facilitate citizens’ participation. In the Namibia context, participatory democracy is encouraged through councillors-communities meeting at constituency levels, attending regional council’s meetings and radio chat programmes.

The above-mentioned models are relevant to Namibia in the context of existing governance and service delivery. Good governance requires effective management to ensure smooth running of managerial practices and procedures. Effective management also ensures effective control and supervision. Consultation with stakeholders and public participation in the governance processes and service delivery are significant in realising the benefits of decentralisation. Thus, it will be suggested and explained in chapter six that the above-mentioned models are relevant and significant in improving the living standard of the people.

Jolly, Emmeriji, Ghai and Lapeyre (2004:314) advise that translating thinking into practice, specifically policy implementation, is important to governance and service delivery. It is one thing to lunch ideas, but it is quite another to translate those into doable policies and projects. Thus, public officials at sub-national levels in Namibia are expected to be conversant with the Constitution, Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992 and the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992. In the same vein, they should possess skills and competences necessary to interpret and apply the constitutional provisions to the letter, particularly, provisions on human rights and service.

It has to be noted that governance practices and service delivery system in Namibia need to be analysed and explained within a broader context in order to understand their historical development. Of particular note is that, governance is not new to Namibia. Governance has not come into view at independence in 1990. Formal governance in Namibia started way back with the arrival of the Germans in the then South West Africa territory in the early 1880s. Formal governance continued during the South African occupation of Namibia. However, the first and second phases of governance were far way beyond meeting the requirements illustrated in Ching Yuen Luk's (2013) governance models. This was so because there was no democratic constitution, and governance principles such rule of law, accountability, transparency and openness have been disregarded. As was explained earlier in this chapter, what is important to mention in this respect is that colonial administrations were not working in the interest of the local people.

To contextualise the above arguments, this study analysed and discussed three phases of governance in order to provide a clear view of public service transformation in Namibia. These phases include: the German rule from 1884 to 1915, the South Africa apartheid regime administration from 1915 to 1989, and the post- independence governance in Namibia since 21 March 1990 to date. The purpose of this analysis is to illustrate that public administration,

governance and service delivery have evolved and reformed over the years in order to attain political and social justice of Namibian people, and significantly to enhance social and economic sustainability.

#### ***4.5.1 Governance under German rule: 1884-1915***

In social sciences, the understanding of governance has been coined as the question of power and application of such power over the governed (Friedman, 2011:81). Even within the current democracy setup power remains a highly debated concept. The issue of power and exploration from the side of Europe have led to colonies annexation in several parts of Europe and Africa. According to Friedman (2011:81) sociologist Max Weber (1964) defined power as “the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite resistance”. Related to Weber’s definition, a political scientist, Robert Dahl (1957) defined the concept power and provided a scenario that “A has the power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do” (Friedman, 2011:81).

Furthermore, Hobbes (1641) said that power is understood as present means to obtain some future apparent good, while Giddens (1991) described power as ‘the ability of individuals or groups to make their own interests count, even where others resist (Friedman, 2011:81). Although, the above - quoted authors did not necessarily deal with the issues of governance, their respective arguments indicate a closer link between power and governance. It must be noted that governance is a question of power. The only difference is that governance power is applied legally and imposed by legitimate government institutions. Conceptually, this demonstrates a picture of dominance by colonisers when they annexed the then South West Africa and declared it a colony in the early 1880s. In the context of this study, it is argued that although German colonial occupation had atrocious consequences to Namibia and its natives, it has marked the beginning of official public administration in the country, upon which the current government has been built.

As it was indicated earlier, occupation of many African countries by the Europeans in the early 1880s was a question of power. This dominance has resulted in exploitation of African economy at that point in time. Sandima (1995:13) reveals that the main reason for the scramble for colonies in Africa was economic. Ferkiss cited by Sandima (1995:13) clearly explained this theory as follows: Once European power had conquered Africa they had to find means of ruling and exploiting it. The system they created for this purpose is usually called colonialism but it is a misnomer. From this point of view, one can locate the basis of governance in Africa. In Namibian context, it is argued here that formal public service administration got its roots from the colonial occupation of the then South West Africa (now Namibia) by the Germans in the early 1880s.

It should be noted that, this study does not way imply that Namibia has been without governance prior to 1884. Neither were no values and norms that guided the natives of the land before that period. Namibian natives have been in existence since time immemorial, and they had their nomadic way of doing things in order to ensure an organised society. Traditional governance such as cultural norms and values existed. Wallace and Kinahan (2011:15) confirms that “the history of South West Africa, now Namibia, extends deep into the past, well beyond reach of memory and written record”. However, this informal rule was modified through colonialism. Neather (2008:xvi) states that “colonisation has always been the daughter of trade and commerce”. This illustrates that the Europeans, including the Germans, had entered many countries around the world including Namibia under the pretext that they were there to do business.

However, as Neather (2008:xvi) notes, apart from their business activities, the Germans had indeed succeeded in colonising, not only South West Africa, but also a large part of Eastern Europe and the Baltic states. This commercial association’s exploitation was influenced by the Hanseatic League. Hanseatic League was a commercial organisation created to coordinate and facilitate trade activities in Germany cities and the Baltic. Because of the risk associated with business at that time the League ensures that its members explored to travel together and coordinated merchant activities. As such Europeans entered countries in Africa and some parts of Europe, and, in addition to exploitation, they also established colonies. In view of this study, and as it will be discussed in the ensuing paragraph, this is how Namibia became a German colony. According to Neather (2008:xvi) the “League dominated the commerce of the North of Europe

for three centuries until superseded by the growing power of rising nation states, England, Sweden and Russia”.

Exploration by missionaries and the discovery of Lüderitz by Adolf Lüderitz have led to occupation and declaration of South West Africa as the protectorate of the Reich in 1884, as was East Africa under the leadership of Carl Peters (Neather, 2008:xxiv). In essence, this was the start of Western formal governance in then South West Africa Territory. This overshadowed the African ancient ‘administration’, the way ancient Africans organised and did things in their respective communities. The reason for this being that at that time there were no written records of doing things. Kruger (2008:3) notes that the history written from the point of view of European discovery and colonisation pushes into the background the dynamic within African societies. “Members of tribes who have presumably pursued for eras their activities as nomad herdsmen, farmers, fishermen or hunters do not appear as the subject matter of their own history but only as the objects of a conquering power, which destroys their ancient world” (Kruger, 2008:3).

In the context of this study, the above explanation is provided to illustrate that governance in Namibia from the earlier history can only be understood and discussed from the viewpoint of European history. Europeans, particularly Germans were the first to put up formal administrative rules in their protectorate, South West Africa. Zimmerer (2008:25) claims that “in 1885 Reichskommissar Heinrich Goring and just two other colleagues had arrived in South West Africa formally to set up a German administration, thereby establishing the internationally formulated claim to ownership of the land between the Kunene and Orange River which marked the boundaries with Portuguese Angola and British Cape Colony”. At first this was nothing more than a symbolic occupation of German South West Africa. Nor was it intended to be more than that as Chancellor Bismarck favoured an administration by private colonial companies, a concept developed from the British Model. This implies that administration established by groups of merchants in an effort to advance their interests was more favoured than a formal colonial state administration. In the preceded discussion it was indicated that Germans entered colonies under the pretext of conducting business. In the process, they created “formal administration” to facilitate their business activities. In essence, that was the “private administration” favoured by Bismarck in order to create an impression that such countries were not formally occupied (Zimmerer, 2008: 25).



The systematic establishment of German rule and the systematic construction of a German administration began with the arrival of Theodor Leutwein who replaced Curt von Francois as provincial administrator in 1893 (Zimmerer, 2008:25). According to Zimmerer (2008:26) to facilitate proper administration by the Germans in 1894, South West Africa was divided into three districts, then six districts in 1903 and later in 1904 there were sixteen districts and autonomous divisions subordinate to which were also police posts. The highest authority was the government in Windhoek, which received instructions from the Department of Colonial Affairs, and later in 1907 from the Imperial Office for Colonies. Only the north of the colony, the so-called 'Owamboland' was separated from the German administration.

In addition, Zimmerer (2008:28) notes that after the establishment of the formal administration in South West Africa, every African individual was subject to German laws and decrees and subordinate to a bureaucratic and centralised administration. In addition, measures to impose forced labour were systematised and brought into force for the whole police zone. Central to these administrative processes, three native ordinances were introduced in 1907; the Control Ordinance, the Pass Ordinance and the Master and Servant Ordinance (Zimmerer, 2008:28). Interestingly, an attempt was made to control all aspects of African life and to allow the administration an overview of how many and which Africans were present at a particular time in a given district or section, where they lived, whether they were employed, and if so, where (Zimmerer, 2008:28).

This study therefore argues that governance practices under the German rule were not intended to provide services to the people on an equal basis. It was aimed at serving the interests of the minority Germans who were in Namibia at that time. This situation led to hardship and suffering of the natives. Zimmerer (2008:29) remarks that the native ordinances introduced by the Germans have, in fact, established a racist and interventionist state within the legal framework. As a result, the colonial Germany administrative rules had an adverse effect on the lives of the native people in South West Africa, the situation that led to inequality and subsequently poor service delivery in independent Namibia. As discussed above, public administration under German rule was a mere strategy to prolong and justify German occupation of South West Africa. This study argues that the German administration has not made any effort to improve the life of the native people in the then South West Africa. People in the former homelands were marginalised and endured difficulties in term of governance and service delivery. It was also explained in this thesis that no public service reform strategies were put in place to deliver basic

services such as clean water, sanitation, electricity, education a health and facilities to native black people.

#### **4.5.2 Governance under South African colonial rule: 1915-1988**

When World War I broke out, the newly independent dominion of South Africa rallies to the British cause. Because of the fact that Britain was at rivalry regarding colonies expansion against the Germans, the only German target in the immediate region was South West Africa. Therefore, in February 1915 the South African President, Louis Botha, with the assistance of the British, led an invasion in person against the Germans in South West Africa. In July 1915 the German forces in the South West Africa colony surrendered. Subsequently, at the end of the war, the League of Nations placed South West Africa under a British mandate, with the administration of the territory entrusted to the apartheid government of South Africa. There, thus, begins the gradual process by which South West Africa becomes more and more closely integrated with its larger neighbour (Namibian History; accessed from:

<http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/plaintexthistories.asp?historyid=ad32#ixzz2mdSRKR3Y>).

Against the backdrop, this begins the formal process of governance in Namibia by the South African apartheid government.

Wallace and Kinahan (2011:205) indicate that in 1921 South Africa, representing Britain, began to govern Namibia on the new legal basis of a League of Nations mandate, and there followed two decades in which the South African administration systematically applied its policies of racial segregation to Namibia, seeking as the German Government before it had done, to extract as much wealth from the colony as possible. Various researches such as one by Wallace and Kinahan ( 2001:217), and Friedman (2011:39) record that South Africa was given category 'C' mandate .This mandatory power provided for governance of Namibia as a 'sacred trust' of civilisation and to promote to the utmost the material and social moral wellbeing and social progress of the inhabitants. However, as it was documented by the afore-mentioned authors, contrary to the provisions of the League of Nations, South Africa introduced more racial segregation and bitter laws to govern people in South West Africa.

To put this into perspective, the League of Nations was an international organisation which was created after the World War I in 1919 during the peace talk of Versailles in order to resolve disputes among states, thereby, keeping peace among nations (United Nations, 2012). This was specifically done to avoid repeat of atrocities committed during World War I. Colonies were therefore placed under the authorities of other countries on the basis of the League of Nations' categories of mandates. South West Africa was then considered as falling under category C mandate. This means that the South West Africa territory was considered not having the capacity to sustain an independent state. Therefore, there existed a need to place it under the supervision of South Africa in terms of politics and administration. However, this was not a permanent arrangement. South Africa was required to prepare the territory to become politically and economically stable in order to be able to sustain an independent state.

As part of its administration, the South African Apartheid Regime constituted a Native Reserves Commission to look into the issues of administration and governance of South West Africa. The Commission made recommendations on several aspects. Among them were: Proclamation 3 of 1917 dealt with labour on the mines, Masters and Servants Proclamation 34/1920, and the Vagrancy Proclamation 25/1920 (Wallace and Kinahan, 2011:221). In fact these proclamations guided the South African Apartheid Government dealing with blacks in South West Africa. Wallace and Kinahan (2011:221) state that South Africa implemented its segregatory policies, by introducing a body of new law mostly derived directly from legislation passed in South Africa at the same period or slightly earlier.

According to Wallace and Kinahan (2011:221), "1922 saw the introduction of the Native Administration Proclamation, which established the reserves. The legal basis for the administration of reserves rested on the Native Reserves Regulations of 1924, and the Native Administration. Proclamation of 1928 has also made the Administrator a 'supreme chief', with the power to appoint chiefs and headmen. Control of Africans in urban areas was imposed through the Natives (Urban Areas) Proclamation of 1924 and the introduction of a night-time curfew for Africans in white areas of the towns – Proclamation 33/1922"

Friedman (2011:51) argues that during apartheid era black Namibians were forced to reside in any of the eleven homelands, geographically demarcated areas founded upon ethnic or tribal categorisation. These Bantustans were administered by traditional leaders under the employ of the South African regime. The Apartheid State relied on custom as a way to legitimate these local leaders. Friedman (2011:51) states that a twelfth region, reserved for Europeans as Police Zone, was demarcated under a centralised system of governance that was founded in statutory law and civil rights. Effectively, two systems of authority existed within one single apartheid state.

The governance system of divide and rule and homelands were a direct creation of the colonial regime of South Africa. At independence in 1990, the new government of Republic of Namibia inherited a governance system as discussed above. Such governance system was not compatible to the spirit of the Namibian Constitution. Similarly, it did not promote the service delivery that addresses the needs and aspirations of people in equitable manner. Therefore, public service had to be reformed in order to be in line with the democratic constitutional principles and objectives of the Namibian government.

Public administration under South African rule had a different ideology. The former colonial master's intention was to accumulate wealth than servicing improving the living standard of the Namibian people. Du Pisani (2010:74) "argues that another feature of Namibia under South African rule was the attempt by that country to institutionalise a system of indirect rule based on the invention of tradition and the co-optation of 'traditional leaders'. The South African State transmuted the Namibian social formation in an attempt to create favourable conditions for the further accumulation of capital through an ideological and political project."

The indirect rule mentioned above made it possible for South African colonial government to exercise different governance systems and service delivery in different parts of Namibia. Public administration and public service reform under South African rule benefited the minority white at the expense of the black majority in Namibia. Apartheid laws were enacted and applied against black people. In this respect, Du Pisani (2010:74) stated that "under South African rule, public space in Namibia was fractionalised along a double divide: race/ethnicity and urban/rural. Through this, the former South African Administration in Namibia exercised social control over both the mobility and the demographic pattern of the local population". Against the above-mentioned exposition, a need existed to transform both the state and government into a system

that is conducive and accommodative of the demands and aspirations of the Namibian people. Thus, the attainment of independence and the adoption of the democratic Namibian Constitution have brought forth the long awaited relief and eventually the necessary reform in governance and service delivery as discussed hereunder.

#### ***4.5.3. Governance in Post-Independent Namibia: 1990 to date***

Namibia was the last colony in Africa to become independent on 21 March 1990. Comparatively, it “remains the only modern nation in the Sub-Saharan Africa to have ever been colonised by another African country” (Friedman, 2011:48). The independence has followed a protracted struggle against apartheid and social injustice, which was finally resolved through peaceful negotiations and the signing of the New York Accords in December 1988. In other words, “the agreement ended the foreign occupation of Namibia, and the UN Resolution 435 was adopted to facilitate the independence of Namibia” (Freeman, 1992:27). As such, it is assumed that being the last colony in Africa, Namibia has learnt from governance experiences of other countries in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) and internationally. Such experiences mean that the State could be able to put good mechanisms in place to facilitate governance and service delivery in the country. According to Economic Commission of Africa – ECA (2010:7) public administration literature shows that there are innovations and best practices in some African countries. The ECA rates Botswana as good example of good governance with good institutions, prudent macroeconomic management, political stability and efficient civil service. In addition, the country has had good economic policies and enjoyed economic success over the years due to good governance practices (Robinson, 2009:5). It is the embodiment of enviable constitutional order, law-based state and respect for the rule of law, which have strengthened state legitimacy, leadership succession and political stability.

Therefore, Namibia being the last colony in Africa had ample opportunity to develop a good governance system. Effectively, that is what happened at independence. It has to be mentioned that public service reforms in Namibia were benchmarked from countries such as South Africa, Ghana and Uganda. Particularly, decentralisation policy was implemented after a study visit to Ghana and Uganda respectively (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1998). South Africa as a neighbouring country and a former coloniser has been a strategic focal point regarding Namibia’s public service governance and reform. Even though at Namibia’s independence South

Africa was not yet a democratic State, Namibia's direct economic link to her former colonial master dictated that some governance and reforms are done in a way that does not jeopardise the two countries' economic relationship. In addition, the democratic nature of the Namibian Government could not allow public service reform to be made in way that contradicts the values and principles of the Namibian Constitution. Therefore, the Government of Republic of Namibia needed to strike a balance between economic and social development in order to ensure that the previously disadvantaged people benefit from service delivery.

Sandima (1995:xv) argues that the struggle for independence in Africa was basically for people's attempt to reconstruct their societies. In other words, in order to reorganise their society, people have to become the subjects of history, which implies taking control of their destiny by controlling their own life and inserting themselves in the world (Sandima, 1995:xv). Independence brought the desire to create a new government well represented and structured to serve the needs of the people. As described in the previous sections, during the colonial era, governance catered only for the few minority whites, ignoring the inhabitant natives and condemned them to suffering. Friedman (2011:59) discusses Foucauldian's ideas and insights on the art of government. This idea denotes the manner policies are designed, institutions are arranged and how citizens are shaped to understand the direction the government is taking to produce public goods suitable for the promotion of social welfare.

In essence, this leads to proper governance structures and practices being put in place to ensure effective service delivery. For Foucault, as noted by Friedman (2011:59), "government can be best captured through the notion of governmentality". It signifies an emergence of a new way of exercising power, a transformation that began in sixteenth century Europe, the shift towards population as the subject of government, and the state's incorporation in the arenas of rule. On the other hand, the way we think about governing and to the different mentality associated with government. Furthermore, Friedman (2011:50) states that existence of highly bureaucratic state structures attest to the fact that Namibia's colonial legacy does not constrain post-colonial state processes in anyway. The South Africans administered the territory as one of its own provinces and thus invested in it by building a state bureaucracy with extensive administrative capacity. Hence, Friedman (2011:50) says the new Namibian State inherited this set of government structures and continues to benefit from it.

“Although some governmental services had to be curtailed at independence due to the withdrawal of apartheid South African government’s subsidies, the South West Africa People Organisation (SWAPO) government has been able to build on colonial inheritance through international donor support, especially during the early 1990s when development agencies considered Namibia as a most favoured country for investment” (Friedman, 2011:50). The South West Africa People Organisation was a liberation movement which later became the governing political party in Namibia. At independence several government institutions were reformed and many more were established. An institutional framework was created to facilitate good governance and service delivery. For example, regional and local governments were established, and decentralisation policy was formulated and implemented. In addition, the new government established the Office of Ombudsman, the Public Service Commission, and the Anti-Corruption Commission. The purpose to establish and reform government institutions was twofold: On one hand it was aimed at bringing government decision making and services closer to the people. On the other hand, it was done to promote good governance practices, to ensure transparency and accountability, and to increase government’s efficiency and effectiveness in dealing with issues related to public administration.

As it is discussed under chapter three of this thesis, the Namibian Constitution forms the basis of good governance and service delivery. It provides for the enactment of Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, and the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992. These two Acts of Parliament culminated in the creation of thirteen administrative regions, of which the Oshana Region is one of them. As one of the sub-national levels in Namibia, this study deems it essential to evaluate governance practices in the Oshana Region to determine the extent to which those practices can contribute to service delivery to citizens, especially the previously disadvantaged communities.

#### **4.6 GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN OSHANA REGION**

In 1992 after the promulgation of Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Act Namibia has been divided into thirteen administrative regions. As it is explained in chapter one, the Oshana Region is one of the thirteen regions in the country, and the smallest (8653km<sup>2</sup>) of all in terms of geographical size. From the onset, this study indicates that Namibia is currently divided into fourteen administrative regions which resulted from the 2013 recommendations of the Namibia Delimitation Commission. The fourteenth region is called Okavango-East, and was established in 2013. However, at the time this thesis was written, Okavango-East had no formal structure,

offices and staff compliment. It must be noted that the region referred to above has recently been created hence arrangements were being made to set up a practical governance structure. Against the above-mentioned exposition, the newly established Okavango East Region is not discussed in this study as there was no data available.

The Oshana Region is part of the vast Owambo basin which shares the borders with Angola and is dominated by an extensive and intricate network of Oshanas or shallow channels, known as the Cuvelai system. Owambo forms part of the former Bantustan called 'Owamboland' which was created and has been ruled for decades by the colonial regime of South Africa on a discriminatory and segregation basis. The Oshana region was established on 31 August 1992 as per section 2(1) of the Regional Council Act, 1992 (Act 22 of 1992). Oshana Regional Council became operational after the 1992 regional and local government elections in November of the same year. Oshakati is the regional capital of the Oshana Region. The mission of the Oshana Regional Council is that the region is committed to govern, plan and coordinate social, economic development programmes and projects in partnership with all stakeholders towards the improvement of the living standards of the community and realisation of sustainable development (Government of Republic of Namibia. 2013:1). This implies that the fundamental purpose for Oshana Regional Council's existence, as second tier of government at sub-national level, is democratic governance, planning and coordination of service delivery.

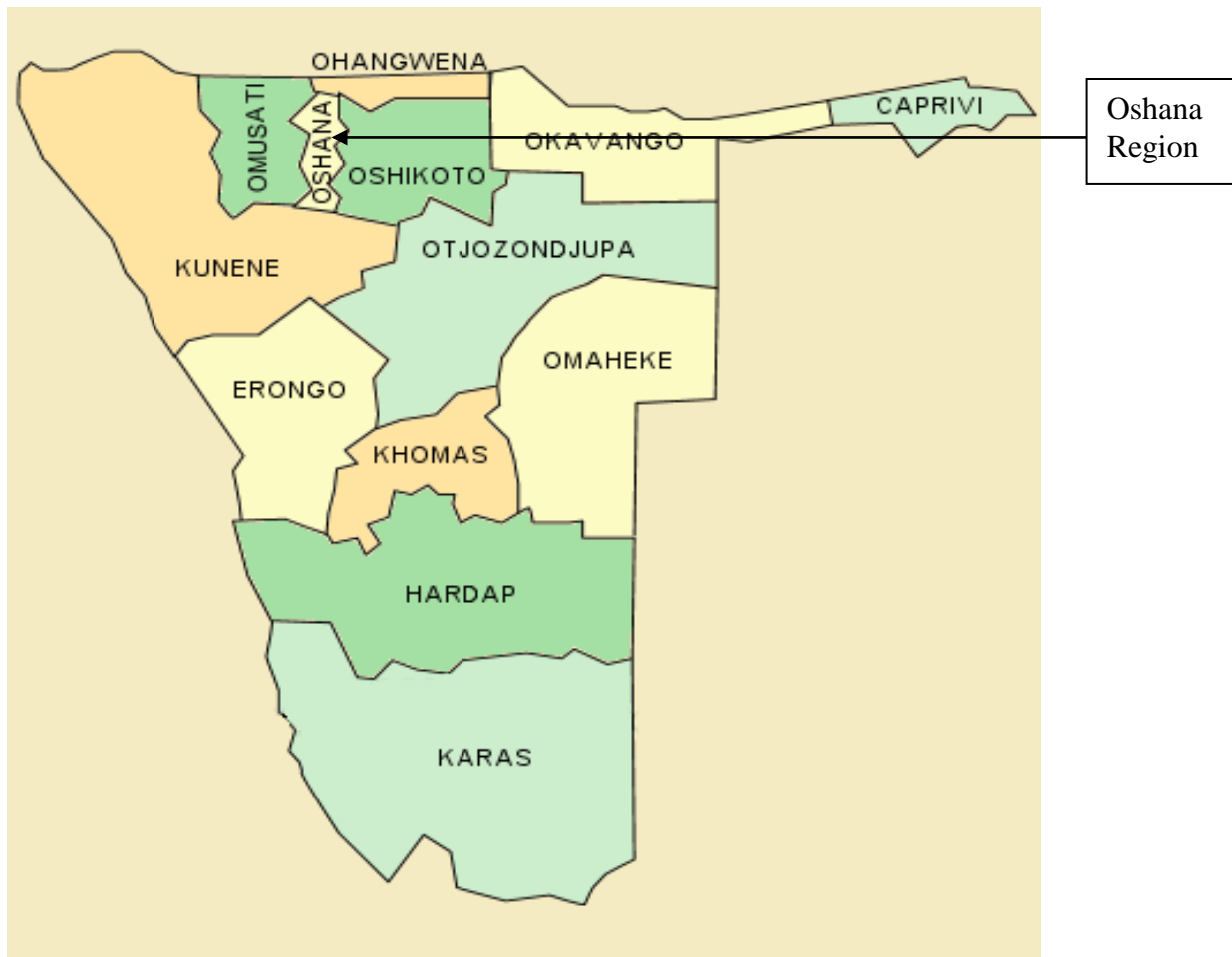
Oshana Region is located in north-central Namibia. As discussed in chapter one, the Oshana population currently stands at 176 674 inhabitants (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:22). The northern part of the region is the most densely populated due to urban centres that are found there. Politically and administratively, the region is divided into eleven constituencies, namely, Okatana, Okaku, Okatjali, Ompundja, Ondangwa Rural, Ondangwa Urban, Ongwediva, Oshakati East, Oshakati West, Uukwiyuushona and Uuvudhiya (National Planning Commission, 2011:17). Each constituency is headed by a Constituency Councillor as a political leader of that particular constituency. According to Sinvula (2009:4) administratively, each constituency is staffed with administrative component headed by a Senior Administrative Officer. Furthermore, Sinvula (2009:4) states that "through coordinating the development of the region, the Oshana Regional Council facilitated the construction of offices in all ten constituencies". In addition, the Oshana Region is also home to three main towns in northern Namibia, namely, Oshakati, Ondangwa and Ongwediva, and one settlement called Eheke. This means that there is high concentration of people particularly in the central part of the region due to urbanisation.



Therefore, this poses a huge challenge to the Oshana regional council and local authorities in terms of governance and service delivery.

Due to colonial history of the Oshana Region, governance practices and service delivery are not on standard that allows all people to benefit. The Oshana Region has experienced poor governance of institutions and poor service delivery in the past. The majority of inhabitants, especially blacks, were denied access to basic services. Such colonial legacy still exists today, and, as a matter of fact, subjecting people to poverty. Such is the historical past that the Namibian government and its institutions are now trying to reverse, so that previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities can be brought into the economic mainstream, and enjoy the fruits of independence. According to Sinvula (2009:1), in the past the development of the Oshana Region was neglected especially in-terms of rural infrastructure, education, health and institutional facilities. The infrastructure sector of the rural areas has largely been neglected in the past, for example; access to roads which are needed to create linkage with the neighbouring regions. In addition, communal land is not privately owned. So, any activities to be carried out on a particular piece of land need to be negotiated and mutually agreed upon with communities concerned. Therefore, this absence of land ownership in the rural areas hampers economic development while the available urban services such as sewage, electricity and water need to be expanded. Significantly, these shortcomings deny affected people the necessary services. It also poses a challenge on existing governance practices. Government has systematically addressed this issue targeting rural development programmes especially the provision of portable water and rural electrification. In other words, government put in place governance structures at sub-national level, to regulate, coordinate and facilitate services delivery to people, and addresses social and economic imbalances. An example of such governance structure is the Oshana regional council.

**Figure: 4.4: Namibian map indicates 13 administrative regions**

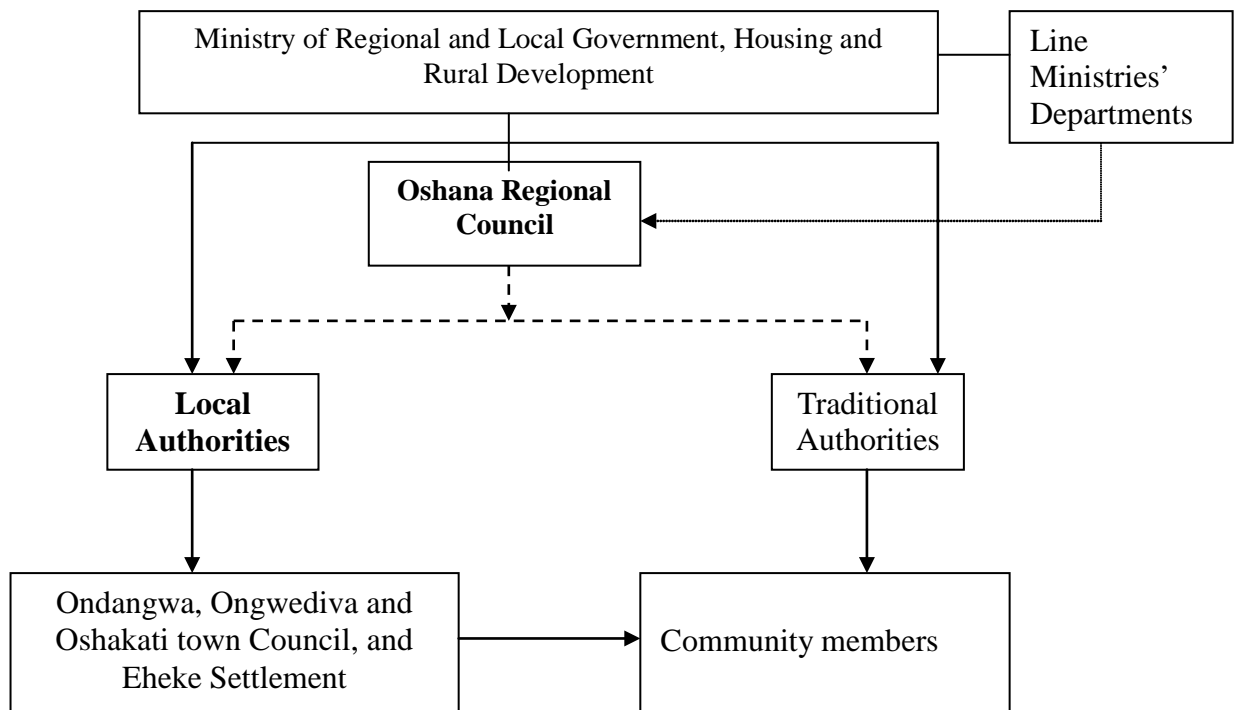


*Source: Government of Republic of Namibia (2010)*

The Government of Republic of Namibia (1992:1) states that, as governance structure at sub-national level, “the primary purpose for Oshana regional council’ existence is to advise and also serve as coordinating arm of central government on issues related to governance, public service delivery and economic development in the region”. In this regard, the overall national development plans will be achieved, and in a broader perspective, Namibia’ Vision 2030 will be realised. Arguably, significant progress in terms of political, social and economic development has been made; however, more still needs to be done to ensure that basic services reach all people in the Oshana Region. Literature review indicates that there is a huge backlog on essential services in terms of housing, education, health facilities, water, sanitation and electricity (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012, Totemeyer, 2000). The pace at which basic services are delivered requires the regional council to fast-track the process if regional development goals are to be achieved. In a workshop held at Otjiwarongo on 19 August 2013 on regional

development and national development plans, the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Regional, Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, Ms. Sirrika-Hausiku, expressed concern over the delay in capital projects implementation by regional councils. According to Sirrika-Hausiku, Regional councils are not effectively utilising funds meant for capital projects.

**Figure 4.5: Governance structures in the Oshana Region**



*Source: Helao (2013), own illustration*

The above-mentioned figure depicts the governance structures at sub-national level in Namibia, including the Oshana Region. It underscores a symbiotic relationship between the central government and sub-national levels of government. In essence, proper coordination among the above-mentioned governance structures promotes good governance that eventually increases service delivery. As discussed in chapter three, the Oshana Regional Council and its local authorities are dependent on the central government particularly the Ministry of Regional, Local Government and Rural Development in terms of policy making, regulations and funding. Also, because of the nature of decentralisation in Namibia, other line ministries play an important role in funding of government development programmes to ensure that basic services such water, sanitation, health, education, electricity and social grants have been provided and made available to the people. *Figure 4.5* also illustrates that governance and service delivery at sub-national levels may not be effective without active involvement of stakeholders. This has been explicated

in chapter 3 under section 3.5. In addition to government institutions, traditional leaders and ordinary members of the community are important elements of governance and service delivery. Traditional leaders are an important link between government institutions and community members. This allows government services to reach the intended beneficiaries. Basically, traditional leadership, though might have limited administrative competences, they play a significant role in promoting development. Totemeyer (2010:132) states that traditional leadership are key advisory institutions that could expedite development both at regional and local government levels. They may assist local authorities to acquire land. Certainly, town expansion, as discussed under section 4.7 of this chapter requires land to be made available. This can be realised through proper coordination with traditional authorities as they can educate and inform their subjects living in the peripheries of towns to make the land available to pave way for construction of formal housing and provision of other basic services. Another competence of traditional leaders is regarding allocation of land in rural areas to regional councils to allow for development projects to take place. Development projects are part of service delivery and provide needed benefits to the rural people. This intergovernmental relation is fundamental not only in terms of governance but also to improved service delivery at sub-national levels. In short *figure 4.5* shows that the governance structures in the Oshana Region consist of various governance institutions that work together to address the needs and plight of the people. These include central government, regional and local authorities, traditional leaders and ordinary members of the community.

It has to be noted that governance in the Oshana Region is not necessarily different from other regions in the country. However, the scope and extent to which services are provided might differ due to varied environmental conditions. As reflected in *figure 4.5*, as being the main funding sponsor of regional and local government, Central government plays an important role in terms of regulation, direction and shaping governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels. Central government ministries, after consultation with regional councils, are responsible for providing services especially in rural areas. Therefore, the services being provided are dependent on the budget of the ministry concerned, and the priority set by the regional council. In the Oshana Region, for example, water, education, health, electricity and sanitation are provided by line ministries. Oshana regional council does not provide services apart from coordination of those services with line government ministries.

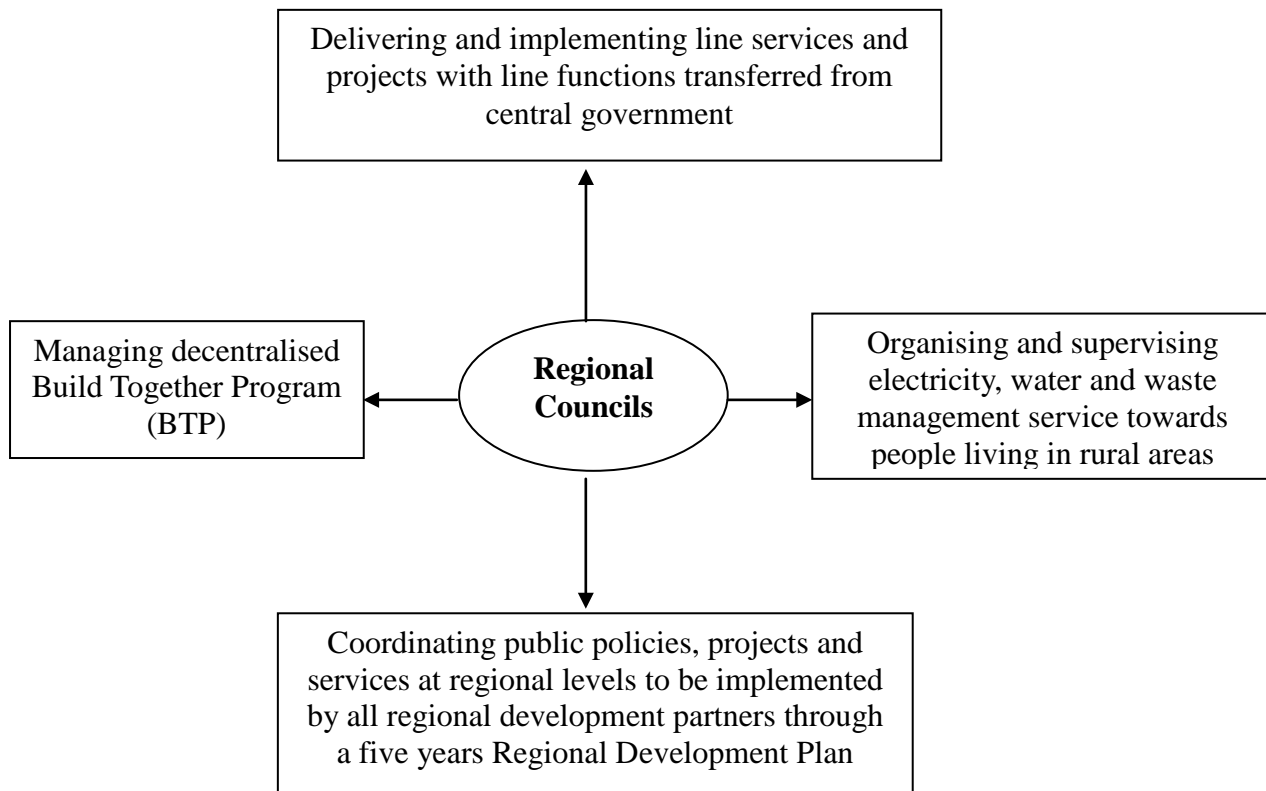
Local authorities in the Oshana Region also buy essential services such as water and electricity from Namibia Water Corporation (NAMWATER) and regional electricity distributors like Northern Electricity Distributors (NORED) respectively. These services are provided to communities on a cost recovery basis. In other words, communities can only access these services once they pay for them. Yet, limited budget and source of revenue of local authorities dictates the degree to which services are provided. The worrying aspect about governance structure at sub-national level is the fact that regional government does not have direct authority over local authorities and traditional authorities, apart from a symbiotic relationship (*see figure 4.5*), making governance a compromised authority. In this regard, governance, town development and service delivery are dependent on the resources and capacity of local authorities. Regional councils cannot interfere in issues of governance and service delivery of local authorities.

Generally, the Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development (MRLGHRD) bears responsibility to guide, advise, control and, to a certain extent, allocate sufficient funds to sub-national levels of governments. The Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, empowered the Minister of MRLHRD to:

- prescribe correct ethical behaviours and principles of good conduct for members of the council;
- approve funds, for regional councils and local authorities, received from international partners;
- authorise street closure, diversion or construct waterworks;
- downgrade local authorities which fail to render their functions and duties in accordance with Local Authority Act; and
- set guidelines and procedures that regulate regional and local tender boards.

Governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region is interconnected, thus, they should be approached within the broad context of overall government development agenda. Governance and service delivery are done in accordance with the Namibian Constitution and other guiding laws. The fact that sub-national governments are situated closer to the grassroots people makes it realistic for them to coordinate services in communities. The MRLGHRD (2010:7) provides that the core functions of Regional Councils are as illustrated in figure 4.6 hereunder:

**Figure 4.6 Core functions of Regional Councils in Namibia**



*Source: Ministry Of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development (2010:7)*

Figure 4.6 indicates the role of regional councils in Namibia with regard to governance and service delivery. Basically, service delivery particularly in rural areas can be sustained if regional councils properly manage, coordinate and organise such services based on aspirations and needs of the people. Therefore, the Namibian government can achieve its NDP objectives and realise Vision 2030 if there is sufficient commitment from sub-national levels of government. Regional councils including the Oshana Region play a major role in this regard because they are located closer to the people to who services are intended. Provision of housing, education, electricity, water and sanitation can be sustained if the Oshana Regional council have the necessary capacity and resources to complement national government efforts. Chapter five of this thesis provided an outlook of performance of the sub-national levels of government in terms of governance and service delivery in Namibia. In essence, this demonstrates the importance of sub-national governance in delivering essential services and amenities in rural areas where the majority of people live.

According to Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:14), “about 94% of the total population in the Oshana Region speaks *Oshiwambo*”, the vernacular language spoken in the region. Coincidentally, without necessarily drawing from ethnicity borderline, all constituency councillors in the region are “Oshiwambo” speaking persons. In this regard, they can properly communicate with communities in their respective constituencies and solicit support to facilitate service delivery. This makes it practical for the Constituency Councillors to communicate with communities and coordinate service delivery-related issues. Councillors are also familiar with the environment in which services are to be delivered. Basically, this institutional arrangement becomes conducive for effective service delivery. Charbit (2011:3) concludes that the capacity of regional and local governments to function and deliver effective policy interventions is largely dependent on institutional arrangements and the manner good governance practices are exercised. In addition, Charbit (2011:3) argues that sub-national institutions and central government are jointly dependent; hence, they are required to coordinate efforts. Maheshwari (2007:313) maintain that governance is essentially a value-laden normative concept, defined as ‘how well do governments govern’ or ‘does the government serve the people well.’

This study argued that the challenge faced by the Oshana Region is, to a large degree, the capacity to coordinate and facilitate service delivery in sparsely populated constituencies. Constituencies such as Okatjali, Ompundja and Uuvudhiya have a small population size. These people also live far from each other, making it difficult to provide community water points, health and education facilities and electricity. National surveys, for example, the Namibia Statistics Agency (2012), and Namibia Labour Force Survey (2010), find that these constituencies also lack education and health facilities. Inhabitants have no easy access to clean water points, and rural electrification. Therefore, people in those constituencies travel long distance to access much needed services. Implications for delivering services such as health and educational facilities in constituencies with smaller population are discussed in chapter five of this study.

**Figure 4.7: Population distribution in the Oshana Region**

| Constituency   | Population   |               |               | Area in sq. km | Population density |
|----------------|--|---------------|---------------|----------------|--------------------|
|                | Total  | Female        | Male          |                |                    |
| Okaku          | 18,900   | 10,400        | 8,500         | 224            | 84.3               |
| Okatana        | 14,700   | 7,900         | 6,800         | 425            | 34.6               |
| Okatjali       | 3,200  | 1,700         | 1,500         | 557            | 5.7                |
| Ompundja       | 4,600  | 2,500         | 2,100         | 465            | 10.0               |
| Ondangwa rural | 36,800   | 19,600        | 17,200        | 209            | 176.3              |
| Ondangwa Urban | <i>No data, this constituency was established in August 2013</i> |               |               |                |                    |
| Ongwediva      | 33,700   | 18,500        | 15,200        | 221            | 152.3              |
| Oshakati East  | 26,700   | 14,600        | 12,100        | 187            | 143.1              |
| Oshakati West  | 20,200   | 11,200        | 9,000         | 240            | 84.2               |
| Uukwiyu        | 12,100   | 6,600         | 5,500         | 299            | 40.6               |
| Uuvudhiya      | 4,000  | 2,100         | 1,900         | 5819           | 0.7                |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>174,900</b>   | <b>95,100</b> | <b>79,800</b> | <b>8647</b>    | <b>20.3</b>        |

Source: Namibia statistics Agency (2012:22)

Figure 4.7 indicates population of the Oshana Region per constituency. As can be seen, some constituencies are sparsely populated while others have a high concentration of people particularly in the northern part of the Oshana Region. Constituencies with a high concentration of people are Ondangwa Rural, Ongwediva, Oshakati West and Oshakati East. These are also the same constituencies in which regional towns are located. As confirmed by Population and Housing Census Report of 2001 and 2011 respectively, people migrated to urban areas and the majority settled in the peripheries of towns. Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:330) shows that urban population has increased by 14% since 2001. The reason for this increase is that people moved to urban areas in search of employment opportunities, better living standards, and to a certain degree, to access much needed services such as clean water, sanitation and electricity.



Thus, this study suggests that the non-availability of services in many parts of the rural areas in the Oshana Region draws inhabitants to urban areas.

Compared to other northern regions, for example, Omusati, Oshikoto and Ohangwena, the Oshana Region is infrastructurally and economically well developed. This has been the case since independence. This is true because the region houses three main towns in northern Namibia, thus, potential investors choose Oshana Region for investment purpose. Since its establishment in 1992, the region has experienced speedy economic development. Housing, especially in Ondangwa and Ongwediva, has increased. Development of infrastructure has taken place. This includes shopping centres, a railway station, the proclamation of Eheke settlement, the establishment of the University of Namibia' Technology and Engineering Departments and construction of the fresh produce hub in Ongwediva town. All these mark remarkable socio-economic development in the Oshana Region. The notable challenge to the Oshana Regional Council is the fact that the above - mentioned development is only taking place in the northern part of the region, enticing inhabitants to move to urban areas. The above brings to question whether such development benefits all inhabitants including rural people. Notably, most of the recent developments in the Oshana Region have taken place in urban areas and their peripheries respectively. People in the remote areas seem not gaining direct benefits from such development. A visit to rural areas provides a different picture on development in the Oshana Region. The following illustrates the researcher claim.

According to Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:64), about 49.7% of the population in the Oshana Region live in traditional dwellings. Those are traditional homesteads that are not connected to electrical grid; have limited or no clean water, no proper sanitation, and in most cases shopping centres are far away from people's homesteads. In other words, this category of people lives in remote areas where basic services are either limited or not available. This study also argues that while clean water is available in most communities in the Oshana Region, affordability thereof is a problem. Most communities are forced to drink unsafe water because they do not have money to pay for clean water.

**Figure 4.8: A typical rural dwelling in Namibia (digital aerial photo)**



*Source: Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:18)*

The water supply and sanitation crisis in rural areas has prompted the government to draft and adopt Water Supply and Sanitation Policy in 2008 in order to lessen the situation. As Shinovene (2013:1) reported, “the Cabinet has approved plans for the government to subsidise water costs to about 84000 poor households starting from 2014”. This follows a proposal presented to Cabinet in 2013 by the Minister of Agriculture, Water and Forestry as part of the National Development Plans (NDPs) and the Water Supply and Sanitation Policy of 2008. In particular, the policy states that there is need for mechanism for subsidies and/or cross-subsidisation by means of rebate for those who are unable to pay for water supply and sanitation. With regard to scarcity (in terms of affordability) of clean water, the water subsidisation initiative will go a long way in assisting communities in the Oshana Region to access clean water. In that regard, “it is important that consumers should know the amount of the subsidy, why the consumer is subsidised and by whom” (Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry, 2008:11). However, this decision is yet to be effected, perhaps due to the lack of application strategies to make the Cabinet directives implementable. Equally, this is a governance issue that should be addressed in order to deliver services to the people.

In the Oshana Region, “4.5% of rural population travels 5-10 km to access clean water” (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:84). This, however, does not necessarily imply that the remaining percentage of rural people in the Oshana Region have access, and can afford to pay for clean water. As it was earlier indicated, despite availability of water infrastructure in many communities in the Oshana Region, some people still use polluted water from earth dams and wells. Therefore, subsidising water to poor householders will have a far-reaching significance in improving the living standards of people, including poor rural people in Oshana Region.

The importance of clean water to grassroots communities cannot be overemphasised. Provision of clean water has been at the centre of government priority since independence in 1990. Government has spent substantial amount of money to supply clean water to rural people particularly the previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities. For example, the 2011 Population and Housing Census Report reveals that 84% of the households in the Oshana Region have access to clean water (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:330). The Directorate of Rural Water Supply in the Ministry of Agriculture, in coordination and collaboration with regional councils, is tasked with the functions of providing clean water to rural people.

Statistics obtained from the Directorate of Rural Water Supply in the Oshana Region indicates that there are 637 water points in the region (Namibia Broadcasting Corporation News, 5 July 2013). These water points cater for about 54% of the rural people. Although statistics do not provide the exact number of water points per constituency, it is apparent that the accessibility and affordability of clean water to rural poor is a matter of concern. The 637 water points do not necessarily benefit every member of the community in the Oshana Region. Speaking in the National Assembly, the Minister of Defence, Nahas Angula said that despite government’s huge investment in the rural water supply programme in the northern regions, villagers continue to consume unpurified water because they cannot afford to pay for clean water (Namibia Broadcasting Corporation News, 5 July 2013). In this regard, the government Water Supply and Sanitation Policy is very critical in addressing water delivery issues. The policy acknowledges that there is a need to develop support mechanisms to provide sustainable water service delivery to assist poor people in rural areas (Sasman, 2010:8). Therefore, to realise the target set by government in national development plans in terms of water provision, there is a need for commitment by the state and involvement of stakeholders in the design, implementation and water resources management. In essence, it requires that the Oshana Region puts in place good

governance practices to ensure proper coordination, facilitation and information sharing between the council and line ministries.

With regard to health services in the Oshana Region, both central government and regional council face a mammoth task to ensure that health facilities are provided, and accessible to all citizens. “The latest Population and Housing Census Report of 2011 indicates that 79% of the population in the Oshana region travels between 5 to 40 km to access health facilities” (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:87). In other words, the dearth of health facilities, particularly health clinics, is evident in most of the constituencies. There is one referral hospital in Oshakati town that caters not only for the people in the Oshana region, but also people from other regions like Kunene, Omusati, Oshikoto and Ohangwena.

Also, the Population and Housing Census Report shows that 27.7% of children in the Oshana region travel between 5 to 50 km to access the nearest primary school, while 60.9% travels between 5-50 km to access the nearest high school. Furthermore, 83.5% travels 5 to 50 km to reach the post office services, while 78.6% of the population travels 5 to 50 km to reach the nearest police station for police services while 74.5% of the pensioners travels 5 to 50 km to reach pension pay points (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2010:90-96).

Although the 2010 Population and Housing Census Report does not specify constituencies in which such services are lacking, generally, this is a matter of concern and calls for total commitment by regional and local governments in the Oshana Region to ensure that essential services reach all people. Therefore, despite significant developments that have taken place in the Oshana Region since independence in 1990, the situation on the ground, as demonstrated above, shows a different picture.

Poor service delivery at sub-national level in Namibia has been a concern even to the State President. In his State of the Nation address in 2008 the President of Republic of Namibia, President Hifikepunye Pohamba, was on record saying that the government is committed to encourage quality of service delivery, decrease bureaucratic impasse and rigid procedures to fast-track public policy implementation (Office of the President, 2008). Similarly, in 2009 in his State of the Nation address, the President emphasised on ‘cautious and meticulously implementation of public policies in order to deliver quality services to the people’ (Office of the President, 2009). Also, in 2011, commending on TIPEEG (read chapter one), the President stressed that it is the responsibility of public officials to ensure that the state resources are

utilised for intended purposes and within the timeframe provided in the budgetary provisions. Pohamba (2009) further cautioned that TIPEEG is a challenge to the nation; to the government, the private sector, the labour movements, the farmers and indeed all sectors of society to work harder in order to roll back poverty, unemployment and under-development in the Namibian society. In this respect, the President assured the Namibian people that the government is committed to improve and expand people's access to health care, education, clean potable water, electricity, housing and other public goods and amenities (Office of the President, 2011). In his foreword in the Namibia's Fourth National Development Plan (NDP4), President Hifikepunye Pohamba advised that the implementation of NDP4 requires a number of things from the Namibian people (National Planning Commission, 2012:vii). These are as follow:

- the need to have a mindset that sees opportunities and possibilities rather than obstacles;
- full participation of all Namibians; and
- the ability and commitment to implement NDP4.

In a nutshell, the Oshana regional council is aware that their actions, decisions and performance are not only benefiting the communities in the region but also contribute towards achieving national development plan goals and the realisation of Namibia Vision 2030. The President statements appear to have been received seriously, gauging from TIPEEG programmes being implemented in the Oshana region since 2011. The widening of main tarred road between Ongwediva and Oshakati is not only creating employment to the locals, but also provide the necessary communication linkage between the two towns. Construction of new houses in Ondangwa town, extension 17-21, will go a long way by alleviating accommodation backlog in the region. Similarly, the opening of the Okatana-Ongwediva-Onamutai rural gravel road adds value to transportation network. Communities can now easily access towns such as Ongwediva and Oshakati within reasonable time. All these form part of the TIPEEG efforts to provide services in order to improve the life of the people in the Oshana Region. However, as indicated earlier in this study, economic and infrastructural development seems to have been concentrated in the northern part of the region. In other words, it takes place in towns and their respective peripheries, thus, contributing to high urbanisation in the Oshana Region. It must be noted that governance involves planning and coordination. Therefore, this study argues that skewed development and unequal distribution of infrastructure and resources is a governance issue. In the same vein, concentration of economic development at one place may also be as a result of

poor planning and coordination as well as lack of effective implementation of policies in some areas.

#### **4.7 URBAN EXPANSION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE OSHANA REGION**

Urbanisation is one aspect that impacts directly on governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Yatta and Vaillancourt (2010:25) note that the African continent is currently faced with rapid urbanisation rates. Rural people migrate to urban areas because they feel life is better there than the experience of rural traditional village. According to Fjeldstad *et al* (2005:14) urbanisation in northern Namibia has increased substantially since independence. In the context of the Oshana Region, since the enactment of Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Act in 1992, and subsequently the proclamation of towns, the Oshakati, Ondangwa and Ongwediva towns have immensely expanded in terms of population growth and infrastructural development. This expansion influences the nature and the extent to which the regional council and local authorities in the Oshana Region deal with governance and service delivery issues. In this regard, the local authorities have to make sure that proper planning is done and available resources are prudently utilised to provide maximum results in order to cater for growing population numbers.

Urbanisation in the Oshana Region is not an isolated case as many African governments experienced the same trend since independence. Development of large cities and towns is accompanied, to varying degree, by grave service deficits and shack expansion. United Nations (2008:154) estimated in 2007 that 72% of the urban population in the Sub-Saharan Africa lived in slums. Similarly, Christensen (2005) cited by Niikondo (2010:2) observes that poor people who migrated from rural to towns with an expectation to secure job opportunities find it difficult to get land to settle. As a result, shacks and improper dwellings increase in urban areas. In this regard, local authorities should adopt mechanisms to promote economic development and strengthen social setting in order to improve the quality of life of their urban dwellers.

According to Fjeldstad *et al* (2005:14) rapid urbanisation in Namibia has occurred largely as a result of high rates of population growth, drought, and a decline in the ability of the land to support the growing population. Fast growing infrastructure and economic development in towns have also enticed rural people to move to urban areas. The main reason for this continuous migration, one must say, is due to the availability of essential services in urban areas. Fjeldstad

*et al* (2005:14) argue that as is common in most developing countries, urban areas are perceived by rural population to have better educational and medical facilities, better employment and economic opportunities than rural areas. There, people can access clean water, electricity, proper sanitation, better education, and health facilities, and even shopping convenience because of the proximity of shopping centres. This study, therefore, argues that although Article 21 of the Constitution provides for free movement of people throughout Namibia, and that person can reside and settle in any part of the country, moving to urban areas by rural people often creates human suffering. It also puts pressure on sub-national government resources. Fjeldstad *et al* (2005:15) state that urban migration increase financial burden of municipalities and town councils. Therefore, in the absence of central government subsidies, local authorities have to carry a lion's share from their internal resources when developing and upgrading poor informal areas through the instalment of infrastructure and provision of basic services.

Urbanisation poses enormous challenges to town councils in the Oshana Region. The population growth and economic development have direct impact on governance and service delivery and vice versa in the Region. The challenge of urban expansion can be addressed if local authorities do appropriate planning, coordinate as well as work hand-in-hand with national government and all other stakeholders in the region. It requires regional council and local authorities to possess sufficient capacity in terms of financial and human resources to serve urban inhabitants, including large numbers of influx by migrants. As pointed out in chapter one, urban expansion has also lured many people to move from remote areas and settled alongside the main national road between Ondangwa and Oshakati particularly in areas that are in the proximity of towns.

**Figure 4.9: The rate of urbanisation in Oshana Region for the period 2001 to 2011**

| <b>Oshana region</b> |              |             |
|----------------------|--------------|-------------|
|                      | Population % |             |
| <b>Year</b>          | <b>2001</b>  | <b>2011</b> |
| Urban areas          | 31           | 45          |
| Rural areas          | 69           | 54          |
| <b>Total</b>         | <b>100</b>   | <b>99</b>   |

*Source: Namibia Statistics Agency (2012)*

The 2011 Population and Housing Census Report indicates that more than half of the population in Oshana Region consists of persons between the age of 1 to 45, the majority of whom are youth (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:220). Accordingly, urban areas expansion brings with it

diverse social problems that have negative implications on youth development. Lack of social cohesion, unemployment, peer pressure and juvenile delinquency are but some of the social problems regional and local government have to deal with. Therefore, to respond to these social challenges sub-national governments need appropriate and sufficient resources to address the afore-mentioned unintended consequences of urbanisation. It must be noted that it is not the objective of this study to extensively discuss urbanisation in the Oshana Region. The purpose of this section is only to illustrate the impact of urbanisation on governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. As indicated earlier, the unintended consequences of high rates of urbanisation put tremendous pressure on the already stretched regional and local government resources in the Oshana Region. In this regard, concerted efforts are required.

#### **4.8 GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY CHALLENGES FACED BY THE REGIONAL COUNCILS AND LOCAL AUTHORITIES IN NAMIBIA.**

Public administration and governance literature review revealed that Namibia is doing remarkably well in terms of governance and service deliveries. Governance structures are in place, political power, and administrative powers have been devolved to sub-national level. The country is demarcated into 14 administrative regions to facilitate governance process and decentralise decision making power to citizens. Furthermore, decentralisation policy was rolled out in 2000, and most public services are now coordinated at sub-national level.

Despite the afore-mentioned prospects, sub-national governments including the Oshana Region still face governance and service delivery challenges. These challenges derail government national development plan goals; hold back the realisation of Vision 2030. The 2011 Population and Housing Census Report reveals that Namibia has backlogs in terms of service delivery in all regions in Namibia (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012,). This ranges from lack of housing, sanitation, health facilities, communications infrastructure, electricity, and, to a certain extent, insufficient education facilities. Obviously, these pose inevitable challenges to Oshana Regional Council. It requires both national and sub-national governments to design relevant interventions to arrest this undesirable situation. By and large, the literature reveals that regional governments in Namibia face many challenges emanating from colonial past (Diescho, 2010:34; Hopwood, 2005:4; Kuusi, 2009; ALAN, 2013:1). A cautious approach should be followed in terms of governance and service delivery if regional council and local authorities are to address the needs



and aspirations of the people head-on. The challenges include, but not limited to those analysed hereunder.

There is lack of financial and human resources and the capacity to provide basic services. Government services are provided by line ministries and agencies at sub-national level. This makes it difficult for citizens in the Oshana Region to take them to task as they are not accountable to the communities. Line ministries are extension of central government therefore they report directly to the central government. For example, rural water supply is done by the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry, Health services and facilities are provided by the Ministry of Health and Social Services, while rural electrification is the responsibility of the Ministry of Mines and Energy. In this regard, line ministries budget and provide resources for services in question. The Oshana regional council is only coordinating and facilitating those activities to reach the intended beneficiaries.

Local authorities that have the capacity to generate funds through taxes and rates are in better position to provide more services to communities. However, most small local authorities in Namibia are dependent on transfers and subsidies from the Ministries of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development. This is so because some local authorities, for example, Eheke settlement in the Oshana Region, have no capacity to generate sufficient financial resources from its own base. When central government provides funds, at the same time it also attaches conditions to ensure that the funds so provided are utilised as planned. In order for regional and local authorities to attract sufficient subsidies from central government, they are required to have proper administrative capacity. They must have the capacity and competency necessary to plan and draw up a persuasive budget plan. Mizell and Allain-Dupre (2013:26) note that “intergovernmental transfers represent an important source of financing for public investment but tapping them frequently requires substantial administrative capacity of sub-national government”. In the Oshana Region, regional council and local authorities face the same challenges due to limitations on service delivery. The issue of cost recovery is also a hindrance to service delivery since sub-national levels lack capacity to effectively collect those levies.

Another challenge noted through literature review is the vastness of the Oshana region, and sparsely populated constituencies such as Okatjali, Ompundja and Uukwiyu. Limited resources make it difficult to deliver sufficient services to communities in these constituencies. Dax (2008:1) observes that “in sparsely populated areas the costs for basic services tend to be considerably higher than in more densely populated regions”. For example, to provide education and health facilities closer to each community requires government to build more schools and clinics and improves on the availability of clean water to every community. These challenges have resulted in some community members in constituencies travelling long distances to access much needed services. The rapid expansion of urban areas in terms of infrastructural development and population growth (Niikondo, 2010:2), is another challenge. This urbanisation poses insurmountable challenge especially to local authorities. Resources at the disposal of local authorities cannot meet high demands and expectations by town inhabitants including migrants. Urbanisation results in squatting, high unemployment rate and poverty in urban areas in the Oshana region. This put further strains, on people who already get it difficult to honour their town council financial obligations, for example, paying municipal rates. These challenges and other related aspects were analysed in detail in chapter five in order to come up with well-grounded and thus credible findings of the study.

#### **4.9 INTEGRATION OF GOVERNANCE APPROACHES, THEORIES AND MODELS FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY**

To contextualise public service and its role one has to understand the theories, models and approaches adopted to enhance the provision of public services and goods. In other words, governance practices being used are crucial to understand the nature and scope of service delivery. The United Nations (1998:6) states that “to understand public administration correctly, one has to know the forces which shape it and the environment in which it functions”. Public administration represents the authority system for government in action, which is the product of political dynamics. In addition, United Nations (1998:6) argues that “public administration is instrumental in its operation, and is expected to carry out politically determined goals and values”. In this regard, public administration is part of the web of governance, deriving its form and substance from public policy. Thus, the most important attribute of public administration is its place in the political system.

Public governance can be well understood and defined in the context of its environment. The rationale behind the adoption of specific governance theories, models, approaches and practices is to promote good governance and enhance service delivery. Since the independence of Africa state in the 1960's several governments have embarked on massive reforms in order to transform public institutions and improve service delivery. Economic Commission for Africa (2010:8) cites some good innovations and practices which were undertaken by some African countries. These innovations and practices are as follows:

- Egypt's Information and Support Centre and its rapid and swift response in serving as a catalyst for the establishment of a flourishing computer industry;
- the integrated of coastal management with local development planning model in Namibia;
- the introduction of the Medium Term Framework (MTEF) and financial management in Ghana, Zambia and Tanzania;
- Namibia's National Public Private Partnership Scheme for expanded waste management in poor communities; and,
- Public Expenditure Tracking System (PETS) in Ghana, Uganda and Zambia by civil society organisations.

The aforementioned state interventions were extremely necessary in an attempt to ensure transparency, accountability and good governance practices when dealing with state resources. According to Economic Commission for Africa (2010:11) "State interventions were accepted as a dominant development strategy and paradigm". In this regard, good interventions also contributed to capacity building of both state institutions and public officials. Von Doepp and Villalon (2005:1) claim that in "the early 1990's Africa was swept by an apparent wave of democratisation that generated dramatic changes in the political map of the continent". Pressed by novel international demands for good governance and confronted by newly emboldened domestic voices for change, regimes in virtually every African country were forced to undertake political reforms in the name of democracy.

This study argued that efficient and effective service delivery is a product of good governance models, approaches and practices. Effective public service is shaped by good governance principles such as accountability, transparency and openness of public institutions. Development and economic models being adopted play a vital role in ensuring that the benefits therefore

trickle down to intended beneficiaries. In the Namibia context, public service reforms, as indicated by Economic Commission for Africa, have created an opportunity for public institutions to deliver service in line with public needs and expectations. The application of new governance approaches, and models such as decentralisation, public private partnerships, local economic development, and community-based planning have encouraged local communities to participate in government activities. Rondinelli (2007:17) argues that forming public-private partnerships to assume functions that were formerly public service responsibilities has potential benefits for both citizens and governments. Furthermore, Katorobo (2007:256) claims that some services are best delivered at the national level, others at the regional level, and many at the grassroots level where the consumers of those services are located. In this regard, decentralisation of government decision-making, functions and services is indispensable in a democratic setting.

Similarly, it is argued that the adoption of a democratic constitution, respect of the rule of law, and the observance of human rights have legitimised the state apparatus. United Nations (1998:11) notes that developing countries that have succeeded in bringing about constitutional regimes that enjoy a degree of legitimacy among the people, have their governance and public administration functioning rather smoothly. In this regard, good governance means effective governance (Rizvi, 2007:99). In other words, the approaches and models of governance and service delivery employed must aim at promoting good governance in order to increase government legitimacy.

Notwithstanding the above, governance theories, models and approaches adopted by African countries have produced varied successes. Varying environments, to a certain degree, impede some countries to record successes. The Economic Commission for Africa (2010:14) states that “in Africa, civil service structures which were based on bureaucratic model led to inefficient organisations, excessive red-tape structural arrangements that impeded as much or more than serve the implementation of public policy”. Furthermore, Economic Commission for Africa (2010:14-15) argues that the above-mentioned model and approaches discourage individual initiatives and supported a culture of unreflective defence of the status quo. It lacks flexibility, imagination and adaptability that generate the capacity of self-correction.

Good governance, efficient utilisation of state resources and effective service delivery is often associated with New Public Management. Economic Commission for Africa (2010:20) claim that “New Public Management is associated with positive action-oriented approaches such as reinventing government, re-engineering, re-vitalisation of the public service, organisational transformation, total quality management, paradigm shift, entrepreneurship, empowering rather than serving and results over process”. It also emphasises the centrality of the citizens or customers, accountability for results, decentralised authority and control, market oriented for cost recovery, competition between public and private agencies for the contract to deliver services and the creation of semi-autonomous agencies for service delivery. Therefore, integration of governance models, theories and approaches is central to the enhancement of service delivery to citizens. Even more important is the environment in which public institutions operate to deliver services. Such environment should be altered to accommodate governance strategies and practices. The issue of capacity building cannot be overemphasised.

Finally, though, it is not the focus of this study, good governance practices can also be enhanced through public-private partnerships (PPPs). In the context of this study PPPs may be explained as the process in which stakeholders are actively involved in governance and service delivery. Service providers are enlisted to deliver certain basic services at grassroots level. Plummer ((2002:10) argues that the goals of PPPs are to assist cities and towns to achieve their objectives, to promote urban governance, and above all, to decrease poverty among urban people and increase a sense of ownership of service delivery. The PPPs stimulate good governance practices in that it enhances control to ensure unhindered service provision. It should be noted that even if some urban services may be outsourced, the responsibility to realise such services remains with the local authority concerned. This contributes to effective utilisation of taxpayers’ resources, transparency and accountability by public institutions.

In this regard, Plummer and Gentry (2002:179) advice that a good framework for partnership is needed to encourage stakeholders’ involvement. There is a need for realistic contractual and organisational arrangements, to guide and assist ‘small-scale service providers’ to use their skills to participate in the partnership. Against the above-mentioned exposition, this study argues that local authorities in Namibia should put in place institutional arrangements that permit PPPs to be implemented in order to improve service delivery. PPPs can also become a reality at constituency level, provided proper framework and implementing mechanisms are in place. Heymans (2002:213) states that applying public-private partnership to service delivery at sub-

national levels promotes good governance principles, as discussed in this chapter. This supports the objective of this study in evaluating appropriate governance practices to determine how they impact service delivery.

#### **4.10 SUMMARY**

Public administration represents an important linkage between the public service and society in terms of governance and delivery of essential services to the people. Well organised and coordinated public service promotes good governance and service delivery which eventually improves the living standard of the people. In essence, this requires effective governance structures and practices at both central and sub-national levels in order to meet the objectives of the government pertaining socio-economic development. In order to improve governance and service delivery in Namibia, public service has undergone various reformations; starting from the German rule in the 1880 to the democratic governance system that was established after Namibia attained the independence in 1990. Significantly, this enables the Namibian government to re-dedicate more efforts to provision of services and distribution of resources to citizens including those living in previously disadvantaged rural areas on an equal basis.

Against the above-mentioned exposition, this chapter has reviewed relevant literature in order to put into perspective the governance practices and service delivery in general and in Namibia in particular. Firstly, the researcher conceptualised governance, good governance and service delivery in a broader perspective to provide an explicit understanding of the nature and scope of these public administration concepts. In addition, the interconnectedness of governance and good governance to Public Administration has been analysed and discussed. Chapter four discusses the principles of good governance and the importance of such principles to effective service delivery. Chapter four has also reviewed literature on the trends, processes and dynamics of governance in Namibia dating back from 1880's up to the current governance system. The impact of urbanisation on governance and service delivery has been discussed. In addition, chapter four has discussed governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region, and the challenges faced by sub-national levels of government in their continuous efforts to address the plight of the people. Finally, this chapter has attempted to contextualise governance theories, models and approaches and apply them to service delivery.

The issues discussed in this chapter will be further contextualised by means of empirical evidence in chapter five in order to illustrate the connection between governance theory and practice. This provides a clear indication as to whether the Oshana regional council and local authorities in the Region live up to the needs, demands and aspirations of the people.

## CHAPTER 5

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS ON GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE OSHANA REGION CASE STUDY

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of chapter five was to collect empirical evidence in order to put into perspective issues discussed in previous chapters. Chapter five focussed on governance and service delivery from the perspectives of respondents in the Oshana Region case study. Issues discussed in chapter 3 and 4 were further contextualised through empirical evidence gathered from the selected sample. In this regard, the researcher interviewed 97.34% of the selected respondents and their views and opinions have been interpreted and analysed in this chapter. In addition, the study also collected and analysed data on governance and service delivery in Ondangwa and Oshakati local authorities in the Oshana Region. However, as was explained in chapter two, the study did not collect data in the Ongwediva Town Council because permission was not granted by the local authority concerned. Data collection process took place from July 2013 to May 2014. It is also worth mentioning that research design utilised in this study enabled the researcher to use both structured and semi-structured interviews as data collection tools

Chapter five further utilised data analysis instruments discussed in chapter two to analyse and interpret collected data by. Through literature review, particularly governance models and approaches, observation and information obtained through interviews, this study was able to make conclusion on public institutions' performance since independence in 1990, in terms of public service reform in order to improve governance and enhance service delivery. Also, the chapter dealt with data collected regarding public participation, accountability, transparency, decentralisation and efficiency and effectiveness of services being delivered to the people in the Oshana Region. The data collected from respondents suggested that the Government of Republic of Namibia need to do more to address the plight of all the people. Arguably so, unremitting demands by citizens for basic services have increased. Against the backdrop of the above-mentioned exposition the data collected through face-to-face interviews and observations has been analysed, interpreted and discussed to provide an understanding and explain the governance and service delivery situation in the Oshana Region.



## **5.2 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION: THE OSHANA REGION CASE STUDY**

The study has used the Oshana Region case study as a unit of analysis to collect data necessary to provide an in-depth insight on governance practices and service delivery situation in Namibia. Data was collected through face-to-face interviews. Data collection instrument (interview questions) was purposefully designed prior to the commencement of fieldwork. In addition, observation method was also used to give the researcher an opportunity to see for himself as to what was happening in constituencies and towns in the Oshana Region in terms of service delivery. The interview instrument or set of questions was divided into three sections to enable respondents to answer and provide information on specific governance and services delivery issues, as they experience them on a daily basis. Questions were derived from the main research question provided in chapter section 1.5. The interview questions were asked based on specific themes of governance and service delivery as discussed in chapter one, three and four. These issues include governance structures and practices, governance of public affairs, planning, institutional relations, institutional capacity, accountability, public participation, and coordination, communication and consultation and the extent to which other stakeholders are involved in governance and service delivery. Questions on governance, good governance and service delivery were based on the issues discussed in chapter three, sections 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5.; and chapter four sections 4.5 and 4.6. The above mentioned sections discussed and contextualised governance and service delivery in general and in Namibia in particular. Chapter three in particular provided the ‘Mercy Models’ and proposed the governance and service delivery model that Namibia can adopt to promote good governance and enhance service delivery. Questions on urbanisation were based on discussion in chapter four, section 4.7.

Regarding service delivery challenges in Namibia, questions were asked based on chapter, section 4.8. In addition, service performance and the extent to which the people at sub-national levels are benefiting was also examined through questions such as “what services do you receive; are they available accessible and affordable? Respondents were also asked to list and explain developments that have taken place in their respective communities. The answers to the above-mentioned questions provided useful insight on availability and accessibility of services in the Oshana Region. It also allowed the researcher an opportunity to provide research findings and put forward relevant recommendations. In summary, it must be noted that chapters two, three and four formed the basis of the interview questions because they discussed key themes that constitute the basis of this thesis. Furthermore, respondents were also asked to provide their

views on the manner and the extent to which public resources are used to benefit the people in rural areas of the Oshana Region.

Regarding service delivery at sub-national levels, data was collected on the availability, accessibility and affordability as well as distribution of such services to the people in various constituencies in the Oshana Region. The questions contained in the data collection instrument dealt with the 'what', 'why' and 'how' of governance practices and services delivery in the Region. In this regard, the researcher has been able to get respondents' view and opinion on the above-mentioned issues; viz, governance practices and government performance regarding service delivery in the Oshana Region. It is also reiterated by Brink, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:141) who maintain that, "when planning the process of data collection, the researcher is guided by five important questions. They are; what, how, who, where and when". In essence, the afore-mentioned five questions provide an opportunity for researchers to design scientific data collection instruments and collect reliable information.

For the purpose of this research, and to achieve the objective of this study, data collection took eight months which started in July 2013 and ended in March 2014. During data collection process, face-to-face interviews were conducted with selected respondents as it was discussed in chapter two. Data was collected from all ten constituencies, including the towns of Oshakati and Ondangwa, in the Oshana Region. Structured interviews were conducted with identified respondents at both regional and local levels. Unstructured interviews were also conducted with community members in various constituencies. It was discussed in chapter one that time constraints and limited financial resources have rendered comprehensive data collection impractical. The researcher lives in Windhoek which is plus-minus 700 kilometres away from the Oshana Region. This means that it takes sufficient time and money to travel to, and collect data in the Oshana Region. In addition, research ethics consideration and adherence by the researcher also had an impact on the number of respondents who were consulted and interviewed in various categories of respondents.

It should be noted that community members were interviewed depending on their availability at that point in time as no prior appointments were made with them. Unlike public officials ordinary members of the community do not have public offices where one can reach them and make prior appointment for interview. In this regard, the researcher visited rural villages and conducted interview with ordinary members of the community based on their availability and

consent. However, prior to researcher's visitation in a constituency, an arrangement was made in order for the councillor of that particular constituency to publicly announce to the community over the radio that the researcher will visit their respective areas. Regarding public officials, prior appointment was made before interviews. Public officials such as the Regional Governor, Chief regional Officer, constituency councillors and administrative officials in the Oshana Region, as well as Chief Executive Officers and councillors of Oshakati and Ondangwa, accepted the appointment and consented to interviews before face-to-face interviews.

It is emphasised here that although it was the purpose of this study to interview all ten constituency councillors in the Oshana Region, only seven of them have agreed and made themselves available for face-to-face interviews. The other three have not availed themselves for interview despite prior appointment that was made and several reminders. The response rate in this category of respondents represents 70% of the total respondents. Their views and opinions were analysed and generalised to explain governance and service delivery situation at constituency levels in the Oshana Region. Furthermore, the researcher has interviewed 57% of local authority councillors of the two Town Councils. This means that eight of the fourteen local authority councillors were interviewed. Based on the total number of town authority councillors in both two towns, the number of interviewees in this category is justifiable hence their views were used as representative of other councillors. In other words, this category of respondents' views and opinions were generalised to provide insight and draw conclusions on governance practices and service delivery in the local authorities in the Oshana Region. Brinks, Van Der Walt and Van Rensburg (2009:125) argue that "representativeness is extremely important when the researcher wants to generalise from the sample to the target population by drawing conclusions about the population from which the sample came".

Overall, the response rate was 97.34% of the total targeted sample. This is illustrated in figure 5.8. With the exception of regional and local councillors, participation in other categories represents 100% of the targeted respondents. At local authority levels, data were collected from the councillors (60% of the targeted response) and officials of the Department of Local Economic Development, Department of Planning and Department of Communication and Corporate Affairs (100% of the targeted response). Regarding ordinary members of the community in the Oshana Region, response was 100% of the targeted respondents. This was made possible by the large research population size in this category. As discussed in chapter two, the researcher visited rural community villages and interviewed those available. No prior

appointment was made; respondents in this category were interviewed depending on their availability at that particular point in time. Similarly, the response by traditional leaders and non-governmental organisation officials (NGOs) represents 100% of the targeted sample. The overall response rate by each category is summarised in *figure 5.1*.

**Figure 5.1: Percentage of response from the Oshana Region Case Study (face-to-face interviews)**

| <b>Respondent</b>                     | <b>Targeted Respondents</b> | <b>% of total targeted response</b> | <b>Actual Respondents</b> | <b>% of total actual response</b> |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Regional Governor (Oshana)            | 1                           | 0.30                                | 1                         | 0.30                              |
| Chief Regional Officer (Oshana)       | 1                           | 0.30                                | 1                         | 0.30                              |
| Chief Executive Officers              | 2                           | 0.59                                | 2                         | 0.59                              |
| Constituency Councillors              | 10                          | 2.96                                | 7                         | 2.07                              |
| Local Authority Councillors           | 14                          | 4.14                                | 8                         | 2.37                              |
| Constituency Administrative Officials | 11                          | 3.25                                | 11                        | 3.25                              |
| Local Authority Officials             | 6                           | 1.77                                | 6                         | 1.77                              |
| NGOs officials                        | 3                           | 0.89                                | 3                         | 0.89                              |
| Traditional Leaders                   | 20                          | 5.92                                | 20                        | 5.92                              |
| Ordinary Community Members            | 270                         | 79.88                               | 270                       | 79.88                             |
| <b>Total</b>                          | <b>338</b>                  | <b>100%</b>                         | <b>329</b>                | <b>97.34%</b>                     |

*Source: Helao (2014)*

*Figure 5.1* indicates that the total response rate from the Oshana Region case study represented 97.34% of the targeted research sample which was 100%. As explained in chapter two, although the targeted sample might not be a fair representative of the total research population in comparison with the huge population size in the Oshana Region, the responses, views and opinions provided by respondents were properly analysed and interpreted to put into context and provide an understanding of the governance practices and service delivery situation at sub-national levels in Namibia.

The interview questions (see annexure A) were derived from the main issues identified in chapter one under section 1.2 and research question section 1.5. The issues so identified were discussed in detail and contextualised in chapters three under section 3.2, 3.3 and 3.7 as well as in chapter four under section 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 of this thesis. These issues include governance, good governance, service delivery, decentralisation and institutional capacity at sub-national levels of government in Namibia. Where necessary the main questions provided in the above-

mentioned annexure were followed with probing questions to allow respondents to clear certain aspects to ensure a better understanding of the issues under consideration. It must be noted that the answers to these questions are important because they have provided a clear insight and in-depth understanding of the governance and service delivery. The subsequent sections deal with analysis and interpretation of data gathered from the case study regarding issues of governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

### **5.2.1 Governance structures and practices from the perspective of political office-bearers in the Oshana Region**

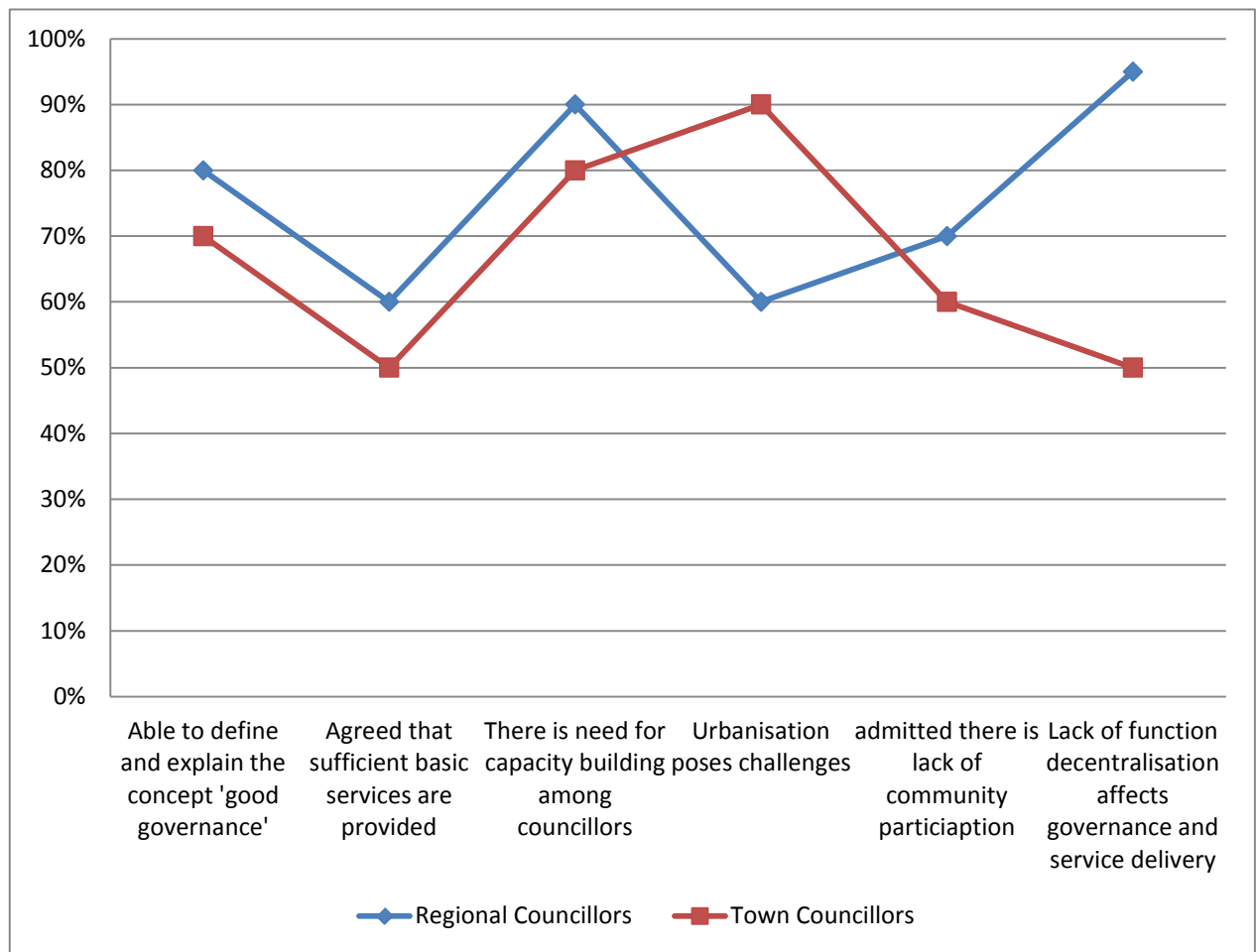
In the context of this study the term ‘political office-bearers’ is used to denote political leaders in the Oshana Region. They include the Oshana Regional Governor and all elected councillors at regional council and local authority levels. As part of the selected respondents, these political office-bearers were interviewed and provided essential data that was then analysed and interpreted in this section. In terms of governance structures, the Oshana Region is sub-divided into eleven constituencies. The eleventh constituency was created as a result of the Fourth Delimitation Commission’s recommendations of 2013. Constituencies are geographical areas at sub-national levels to which regional councils’ offices are further decentralised to grassroots to enable government structures to govern and deliver essential services to the people.

As discussed in chapter two, the political head of the Oshana Region is the Regional Governor, who is also referred to as ‘the Governor’. The Governor is appointed by the President in terms of Section 2 of the Special Advisors and Regional Governor Act 15 of 2010. In terms of his/her appointment, the Governor is accountable to the President, and not necessarily to the people in the Oshana Region. The Governor serves as the link between the central government and the regional council and report directly to the President. Although heh/she may be invited to attend meetings of the regional council, the Governor is not a member of the Oshana Regional Council. Therefore, in the context of this study it was quite important to interview the Governor in order for him to explain and clarify his role concerning governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

At constituency level, there are Constituency Councillors who are members of the Oshana Regional Council. Upon elected in office, Councillors elect from their ranks a chairperson and other members of the regional management committee. The committee in question manages the affairs of the Region pertaining to planning, compilation of budget, recommending to the Public Service Commission the appointment of the council's staff and oversees council's decisions implementation. Constituency Councillors are also political heads of their respective constituencies and are elected by popular vote for a period of six years (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1992). During data collection process, it was observed that all ten constituencies in the Oshana Region have proper offices where government officials are operating from. Each office is staffed with a Councillor and administrative staff to facilitate governance practices and coordinate service delivery at constituency level. All constituencies are allocated with government vehicles to be used by administrative staff to enable them to carry out their duties and access various parts of the constituency. This makes it easier for officials to reach all corners of the constituency.

The first question of the interview asked respondents to indicate the time period they have been serving as politicians of their respective constituencies. In this regard, 80% of the respondents indicated that they have been councillors for more than two terms of six years each. Only 20% of the respondents were serving their first term of six years in office. The governor indicated that he is the founding governor of the Oshana Region. The above-mentioned question was important to determine whether councillors possess the necessary experience in governance practices and service delivery at both regional and local government level. The following chart explained and summarised the responses which were provided by regional and town councillors during face-to-face interviews.

**Chart 5.1: Summary of response by Regional Councillors and Town Councillors**



Source: Helao (2014)

During interviews both the Governor and Constituency Councillors provided diverse evidence of understanding and explanation of the concept “good governance”, as well as their respective responsibilities regarding service delivery in the Oshana Region. Essentially, 80% of the respondents at regional council levels described the concept good governance as to mean “*fair and democratic election of leaders by the people*”. They have indicated that good governance implies representative governance where all stakeholders are represented and involved in the planning and decision making pertaining to social and economic benefit of the people in the Oshana Region. 70% of the town councillors said that “good governance denotes public officials’ accountability and transparency as well as effective service delivery”. In generally, Respondents felt that politicians, as democratically elected representatives of the people, must serve all the people irrespective of their status and political affiliation. This may happen if

politicians consult and communicate with to the people and provide them with the information necessary for governance and service delivery. One councillor specifically stated that, *“once a councillor has been elected to office, it is required that he/she serve all people in his/her constituency regardless of their political affiliation”*. The councillor continued by saying that *“once a councillor has been sworn in he/she will become public servant for all people”*.

The Governor explained that, “as a political head of the Region, my office plays an important role in the governance of the Region by coordinating development activities and service delivery between central government ministries and the Oshana Regional Council”. The Governor further indicated that his office is empowered by law to coordinate with central government, and advise the President and line ministries on governance issues and service delivery in the Region. The Governor emphasised that the Office of the Governor “monitors progress of government’s programmes implementation in the Region, and in consultation with Constituency Councillors, advises line ministries on how best to address the needs of the people in the Oshana Region”. According to the Governor, effective service delivery requires a “well organised and coordinated governance environment”. Therefore, he said “proper planning and coordination is required to enhance service delivery to the people”. In addition, the Governor maintained that “good institutional arrangement, coordination, capacity building, and public participation in decision making” are some of the ingredients of good governance practices, and eventually equitable service delivery. The primary purpose for establishing sub-national institutions is to bring government institutions closer to the people in order to deliver effective services. Significantly, as a representative of the central government in the Region, the Governor office is strategically positioned to deal with social and economic issues in order to improve the living standard of the people in the Oshana Region. In this regard, the office should work closely with the regional council, line ministries and town councils in the Oshana Region.

Furthermore, on the question of good governance, 80% of the constituency councillors, who were interviewed, explained and discussed that the concept good governance “signifying democracy, free and fair elections, citizens’ participation, accountability, transparency and honesty”. In addition, they indicated that good governance means governing by the will of the people. Government agencies should provide for the needs of the citizens. In particular, the Councillor of the Okaku constituency stated that “good governance practices require a democratic governance system, inclusiveness and a political system that allows citizens to actively participate in government activities concerning social and economic development of the



Region”. In this respect, good governance calls for functional governance structures at sub-national levels. The Councillor emphasised that government representatives at constituency level, both elected and appointed, should listen to, and effectively respond to the needs, demands and aspiration of the people. The Councillor clarified that generally *“politicians are elected to advance government initiatives and strategies regarding socio-economic development of the country, and those in the Oshana Region are of no exception”*. In the Councillor’s view, good governance calls for “effective leadership both at central and sub-national levels”. According to the Councillor, good governance requires political leadership to understand and consciously apply the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992. This will assist them to make correct and informed decisions. Furthermore, it requires sufficient resources and the capacity to utilise those resources. The Councillor argued that “failure to provide resources and exercise good governance practices may result in poor service delivery in the Oshana Region”. The Councillor said that “the government bears constitutional responsibility to delivery equitable services to the people of Namibia”; therefore, it is “imperative for elected officials to dedicate their efforts to the course of government”. In this regard, good governance practices and effective service delivery are the answers. On a probing question as to why public officials are not effectively carrying out their duties to meet government obligation in this regard, 90% of the regional councillors indicates that “poor leadership and lack of understanding of the Regional Councils Act could be the cause of poor service delivery”. In addition, the 80% of the town councillors cited “lack of experience and training” in local governance related issues among councillors as the contributing factors. One councillor said: *“since I was elected as a constituency councillor, I have only attended one workshop that exposed me to regional and local governance aspects. Attending the council’s alone is not sufficient”*.

The Councillor of the Okatjali constituency described the concept good governance as “effective and efficient governance practices that take into consideration the needs and aspirations of the people”. According to the Councillor those “needs must be identified by the people themselves and addressed within the parameters of available resources”. In essence, the councillor further said that good governance involves “free public participation in political decisions, and reciprocal relationship between political leadership, administrative officials and members of the community”. In his view, effective mechanisms should be put in place to allow people, including those living in rural areas, an opportunity “to exercise their constitutional rights to elect leaders of their choice and in return the people should demand proper services from elected leaders”. This confirms what was discussed in chapter four, section 4.4.4 that elected politicians are

elected by the people hence they are accountable to the electorate. The Councillor explained that elected leaders must listen to the people and service their needs. It was also indicated that good governance framework and effective decentralisation of functions and services can facilitate governance and service delivery at sub-national levels. All respondents agreed that “service delivery is the primary purpose of regional councils and local authorities’ existence”. The rationale for the establishment of regional councils and local authorities, as sub-national levels of government, is to ensure that government structures are brought closer to the people so that services can be provided unhindered. Against the above-mentioned exposition, Councillors are regarded as important pillars in coordinating and facilitating service delivery in both rural and urban areas. It is therefore important that politicians to be conversant with the governance practices exercised at sub-national levels; understand the Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Act in order to be able to deliver effective services to the people. In this context, Councillors were asked to evaluate and explain the state of service delivery in their respective constituencies and towns in the Oshana Region.

On the question of governance structures in the Oshana Region, all respondents were found to be conversant with governance structures in the Oshana region at both regional and local government levels. Councillors indicated that there are “established governance structures at both urban and constituency levels to facilitate service delivery. Each constituency has in place a Constituency Development Committee (CDC) as the main governing body”. The CDC is a governing body that discusses and takes decisions on socio-economic development and service delivery issues raised by community members. It filters through issues and prioritises them for consideration by the Oshana Regional Council. Councillors said that the CDC is consisting of the following representatives and people:

- Constituency Councillor;
- Constituency Control Administrative Officer;
- line ministries’ representatives;
- traditional leaders;
- church leaders;
- school principals;

- District Coordinators;
- NGOs' representatives; and
- community representatives.

It has to be noted that the above-mentioned governance structures exist in all ten constituencies in the Oshana Region. Their responsibilities are also similar from one constituency to the other. However, variations may happen depending on the needs and aspirations of the community members as well as environmental conditions in a particular constituency. As such, it was expected that respondents might provide more or less the same answers regarding governance structures in their respective constituencies. Despite that, probing questions on this issue has resulted in interesting answers on the strategies being utilised by each Committee to ensure effective service delivery to the people. It also provided insight on the challenges faced by constituencies and town councils in their processes of governance and service delivery. The study noted a great need to capacitate local governance structures to enable them to live up to the challenge of the 21<sup>st</sup> century in terms of governance and service delivery at sub-national levels.

Councillors indicated that the Committee meets four times a year (any time when necessary) to discuss issues pertaining to service delivery in the constituency. Issues such as rural water supply and sanitation, health, education, rural electrification; drought relief programmes and community-based projects or any other social issues of concern to communities are considered and discussed. Significantly, Councillors noted that “social and economic development aspects at sub-national level, particularly in rural areas affect the lives of the people; hence, they cannot be deliberated on without involving members of the community”. In essence, the Okaku and Okatjali councillors emphasised that “members of CDC represent various groups in communities, thus, during meetings; representatives raise and bring forward issues as mandated by their respective communities”.

In chapter three it was indicated that development and service delivery are concerted efforts of all stakeholders. In order to successfully address issues related to social and economic development in communities, it is necessary to involve the very same people who are affected by such development. Councillors indicated that efforts are being made to consult and involve members of the community in the government programmes. They said “this is done through

holding of community meetings”. According to the respondents, “many a times community meeting are poorly attended, resulting in some members of the community not receiving the necessary information”. In this regard, 60% of the town councillors cited lack of community participation as the main problem that affects service delivery in their respective town councils, while 70% of the regional councillors also bemoaned lack of community involvement as one of the factors that delayed service delivery at constituency levels. All councillors who were interviewed stated that “the most common form of information dissemination to society is print and electronic media”. However, respondents indicated that not all people have access to those media, thus, councillors put more emphasis on using radio as an important tool of information dissemination. In essence, this means that consultation is indispensable if regional councils are to succeed in their efforts of service delivery. Against the backdrop of the above mentioned explanation, the CDC seems to be a good approach to governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. However, councillors need to come up with a very effective manner of consultation and communication to promote community involvement. One such method is to involve traditional leaders and community activists. These are some of the institutions that are close to the grassroots people. In this manner, service delivery information can easily reach ordinary members of the community.

### **5.2.2 Service delivery in the Oshana Region from the perspective of political office-bearers in the Oshana Region**

A question was asked regarding the government services that government institutions provide to community members in the Oshana Region. The Councillors acknowledged that since independence in 1990, the government programmes have achieved a lot in terms of service delivery in rural areas to improve the livelihoods of people especially the previously marginalised communities in the Oshana Region. The councillors specifically mentioned that services such as “clean water, health and education facilities, electricity, road and communication networks” were provided in many constituencies in the Region. However, as observed by the researcher, some constituencies such as Okatjali, Ompundja and Uuvudhiya lack proper road networks. The councillors of Okatjali and Uuvudhiya constituencies also confirmed that their constituencies “are not connected to national road networks, and communities find it difficult to access basic services such as health facilities especially during the rainy season”. Furthermore, they stated that “there are neither health care centres nor clinics available in the Okatjali and Ompundja constituencies, while there is only one health clinic in the Uuvudhiya

constituency situation at Okaukueyo”. The lack of the above-mentioned facilities is a clear indication that community members in those constituencies travel long distances to access health facilities. A follow up question was asked as to whether they have requested for such services either from the Oshana Regional Council or central government. The Councillors of these three constituencies indicated that they have tried on various occasion to “request and convince the authority to put up road network and build health clinics but to date nothing has happened”. According to Councillors, one of the reasons given by the authority is that “the population size” (see chapter four, figure 4.7) in those constituencies “does not justify the allocation of such services”. As a result, inhabitants of Okatjali and Ompundja have to travel to neighbouring constituencies to access and receive medical treatment.

Lack of services in the above-mentioned constituencies was also confirmed by the Oshana Regional Governor, who explained that “the allocation of resources, provision of services and the amount of development in a particular constituency are first and foremost determined by the size of the population and the government requirements regarding the allocation of a specific service”. For example, the Governor pointed out that “the construction of a health clinic, a school or even a road for that matter, is determined by the number of people in that particular area”. Therefore, the Governor said that, “the number of inhabitants in some of the constituencies in the Oshana Region may not necessary justify the construction of health clinics or roads”. This is done to avoid under-utilisation of the facility. The Governor advised that “people in areas where a particular government service is not available should make use of other service facilities in neighbouring constituencies”.

It was interesting to note that 60% of the regional councillors indicated that although the Government of Republic of Namibia is doing its best to deliver services to the people, basic service provision is not sufficiently benefiting all the people at constituency levels in the Oshana Region. This is due to distance between communities and a particular service as well as affordability. In this regard, the government should involve community members to ensure that services are centrally located and become accessible to all the people. Another service delivery issue mentioned by respondents is sanitation, which was cited a matter of concern in all ten constituencies in the Oshana Region. Councillors indicated that “community members lack proper sanitation facilities resulting in unhygienic conditions and eventually health hazard particularly at public schools in rural areas”. A sanitation project that has constructed “dry sanitation system – latrine pits” failed to cover the majority of households in rural communities.

Even those sanitation facilities which were constructed, according to respondents, “became disused due to poor construction material, and lack of training of community members on how to utilise and maintain those sanitation facilities”. One councillor pointed out that “*lack of consultation with community members prior to construction of those dry sanitation facilities has resulted in abandonment of facilities and subsequently wastage of government resources*”. The councillor said that “*community members were not consulted and involved in the project*”.

Although there is clean water pipelines installed and available in all ten constituencies, Councillors indicated that “access to water service by members of the community remains a problem”. Moreover, not all community members are within a 5 km radius of community water points. Constituency Councillors mentioned aspects of “distance, maintenance of community water points, and water payment” as the main challenges to clean water accessibility. The Councillor of Ongwediva constituency said that “*nine (9) community water points were closed due to non-payment. The closure of community water points has affected a substantial number of community members, resulting in them travelling long distances to access clean water*”. The councillor revealed that the closure resulted in some members of the community using unsafe and polluted water from earth dams and wells for their daily consumption. In the view of the Councillor, the level of poverty among community members and high water tariffs, to a larger extent, has contributed to closure of community water points. The problem of non-payment poses a threat to the principle of involvement and participation by members of the community. As argued in chapter four, if beneficiaries cannot afford services their involvement becomes minimal, hence, makes it difficult for public institutions to sustain the services in question.

Furthermore, the Councillor of the Ongwediva constituency acknowledged that despite limited resources, the constituency has seen major development over the past five years, starting from 2009. “*The construction of road networks such as Adolf-Ongha gravel road and Onamutai-Okatana gravel road are some of the major development initiatives that lessen communities’ travelling burden. Rural electrification, public toilet facilities in rural areas, as well as construction of new schools complemented the number public services that have been made available to the people of the Ongwediva constituency*”.

Regarding rural electrification, all Constituency Councillors agreed that electricity is installed and available to most strategic places in their respective constituencies. In addition, all ten constituency offices in the Oshana Region are electrified. Other public institutions such as

government offices, most schools, health care centres and clinics and quite a number of business centres (shebeens and cucashops) in rural areas are also connected to the main electricity power grid. However, while commended the Government of Republic of Namibia for connecting rural communities to the main electricity power grid and avail it to rural people, constituency councillors indicated that more still needs to be done to ensure electricity's accessibility to the majority of the people.

### **5.2.3 Service delivery at local authority council levels in the Oshana Region**

At local authority level, 50% of the councillors pointed out that although more services are being provided to members of the community especially those residing in proclaimed areas of the town; they are not sufficiently benefiting all the people in the town. Services such as water, electricity, sewerage and sanitation system, refuse removal and fire brigade services are provided to town residents on a cost recovery basis. One of the Councillors of Ondangwa Town Council mentioned that the town has undergone major developmental changes since independence in 1990. Massive housing construction took place, resulting in many residents acquiring formal housing. The Councillor also indicated that many streets were tarred, and street lights were installed to improve safety and security of the residents. However, the Councillor raised concern on the increasing informal settlements in the town's peripheries, stating that such high rate of urbanisation has put more strains on the Town Council's limited resources.

It also becomes difficult for the town council to provide proper services, such as water, sewerage and sanitation facilities, to this category of people because the land where they settled on has not been serviced. Another Councillor of the Ondangwa Town conceded that human capacity and financial constraints slow down the development progress in the town. In addition, the resources at the council's disposal are not sufficient to meet the demands of residents. This becomes problematic especially when town residents want the council to provide services. However, the Councillor clarified that in order to ensure that people understand the development process and the challenges that faced the Ondangwa Town Council; Councillors hold regular meetings with residents. Issues related to town development and service delivery are discussed and explained to town residents in such meetings. In the Councillor's view, meetings are some of the communication instruments used to promote good relationship between Councillors and community members.

The Oshakati Town Councillors who were interviewed on issues of governance and service delivery appeared to have divergent views on service provisions in the town. Two of the four Councillors interviewed indicated that the town council is working very hard to deliver essential services to residents. However, Councillors were quick to acknowledge that service delivery is hampered by slow implementation of the Oshakati Master Plan. Oshakati Master Plan is a development strategy document crafted by the Town Council to overhaul the design of the town and improve sanitation as well as drainage systems. This development strategy was made necessary by the fact that Oshakati Town is flood-prone area and always flooded during rainy season. The town is located in the low laying areas of the Cuvelai Delta; hence, it is important to design sufficient passages of water to avoid flooding of house and business establishments during rainy seasons.

Therefore, the above-mentioned development strategy includes “relocating of residents to proper places land, and servicing of the land, in order to turn Oshakati town into a properly planned and well-structured settlement area for residents” (Oshakati Town Council, 2008). The Master Plan was submitted to Cabinet in 2008, and was approved in April 2011. The Councillors, therefore, felt that the slowness in the implementation of the Master Plan denied the majority of people of Oshakati equal access to basic municipal services. The provision of sufficient housing, sewerage and sanitation is slowed down by lack of serviced land and proper town planning of Oshakati town. The councillors said that their responsibilities in this regard are made difficult by lack of decentralisation. The Councillors also alluded to flood water that submerged the northern town on an annual basis, stating that people will continue to be affected by flood if the Master Plan is not effectively implemented.

Notwithstanding the above, other two Councillors of Oshakati Town indicated that despite numerous challenges, the Town Council has done a lot by providing services and facilitating development in the town. They cited tarring of roads, construction of the new open market for small and medium enterprises as an example. Councillors also acknowledged that financial resources should be availed for the town to accomplish its goals. Generally, councillors at local authority levels lamented lack of qualified staff in key areas of local authority such as engineering, town planning, valuation and local economic development as contributing factors to slow town development. Regarding capacity building, councillors indicated that limited training programmes for politicians in local authority-related activities, lack of contributions by councillors during council meeting, lack of understanding of the Local Authorities Act 23 of



1992, lack of trust among councillors, and at times, unhealthy relationship between the councillors and administrative officials, are some of the factors that contribute to poor governance and service delivery at local authority levels. In particular, one councillor suggested that there is a need to review the manner councillors are identified and nominated by various political parties to stand for elections in order to serve on Town Councils. The councillor indicated that, *“as policy and decision makers, elected councillors, are expected to possess broad knowledge and understanding of developmental issues. Similarly, local councillors should be good leaders in order to provide effective leadership and be able to work well with community members”*. Another councillor supported the above view and added that “governance and service delivery issues require intensive debates, analysis and contextualising of social issues if Town Councils are to effectively address communities’ needs and demands”. The Councillor concluded that policy and decision makers at local authority level must be conversant and be knowledgeable in local authority matters. This revelation by councillors supports the argument raised in chapter four of this thesis that regional and local government councillors are expected to possess the required knowledge and competences to be able to deliver effective services. Socio-economic development at subnational levels can be enhanced if councillors are properly equipped to manage and deal with governance and service delivery issues confronting people on a daily basis. In this regard, regional and local government institutions can play an important role to train councillors to enable them to live up to the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

During interviews with councillors at regional level, it was disclosed that 50% of the councillors are former school teachers; 30% are founding councillors of their respective constituencies and have been in those positions since 1994. The remaining 20% are former administrators. This shows that although constituency councillors in the Oshana Region have vast work experience they still need training on governance and service delivery-related aspects. In this regard, it is acceptable when 90% of those regional councillors indicated that capacity building among councillors is crucial to improve service delivery at sub-national levels. As indicated earlier councillors are expected to have broad knowledge and understanding of the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992. When councillors possess the necessary skills and knowledge, they are likely to make decisions that are beneficial to communities. Such governance knowledge enables them to address community needs and deliver services where they are mostly needed in their respective constituencies. In this regard, councillors were asked to provide their views on development in general and service delivery in their respective constituencies in particular. While interviewed councillors acknowledged the progress that has been made and goals that have been achieved

since the inception of the Oshana Regional Council, they lamented the slow pace at which decentralisation process is taking place. Councillors stated that lack of decentralisation of some services, rigid bureaucratic procedures used line ministries; especially by those responsible for service delivery at constituency levels, are hindrances to effective and equitable service provisions at grassroots level.

Councillors singled out “the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry, particularly the Directorate of Rural Water Supply, and Ministry of Works and Transport, Directorate of Maintenance Services, as some of the government institutions that need to change the way they do things”. According to councillors, requisitions and approval processes take long, and in the process delaying important services to be carried out. For example, *one councillor said “an approval to buy small parts to fix a water pipeline or simply buying a tyre or battery for a government vehicle is done at central government level”*. Another issue raised by constituency councillors is lack of financial resources at sub-national levels. This study argued in chapter four that effective service delivery can only be realised at sub-national levels if there are sufficient resources. Such resources should be managed and equally shared in order to benefit the majority of the people. In essence, the above-mentioned constraints put pressure on constituency offices, and make them not delivering services as expected. Councillors’ views on decentralisation process in Namibia in general and the Oshana Region in particular are discussed in the following section 5.4.3 hereunder.

#### **5.2.4. Councillors’ views on governance and service delivery challenges faced by regional and local government institutions in the Oshana Region**

Respondents were asked to mentioned and explain the challenges that hinder governance and service delivery at sub-national levels. In this respect, 95% of the regional councillors and 50% of the town councillors felt that decentralisation of decision making power and functions has been a huge challenge since the inception of regional and local government. Respondents stated that “since the enactment and promulgation of the Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000 only few functions and services have been decentralised”. They indicated that decisions on budget and service delivery are made at central government level. Councillors indicated that, though elected by the people to serve them, they only act as facilitators of line ministries service delivery programmes. Therefore, they felt that delegated decentralisation relegated them to coordination functions only. One of the issues that councillors have concern with is the fact that

constituency offices have no operational budget of their own. There is no doubt, financial resources are fundamental to service delivery. Constituency offices cannot function properly if they lack funds. This issue was raised in chapter one under section 1.4 as well as in chapter four section 4.8. As a result it was also argued in chapter four that the Government of Republic of Namibia should consider devolving key functions such as finance to sub-national levels. This may allow constituency offices in the Oshana Region to have their own budget in order to deal with socio-economic development issues timely and in an expedient manner. Constituencies rely on transfers from the MRLGHRD through the Regional Council. Councillors said that the process takes long to be realised. As such, many community projects that are aimed at promoting community empowerment and development cannot be implemented due to lack of funds.

In particular, the Councillor of Oshakati West said that *“lack of decentralisation of administrative power regarding the delivery of services, poses an insurmountable challenge to the Oshana Regional Council. Communities experienced problems regarding service delivery because central government line ministries that have financial resources and personnel to deliver those services take long to respond to community needs”*. The Councillor, therefore, suggested that Regional Development Fund should be established to enable constituencies to provide much needed services to communities in their respective localities. For example, *“fixing of a broken water pipe, small community projects, youth development initiatives and even fixing a vehicle tyre can be decided and funded at constituency level if constituency offices are allowed to keep a specified amount of funds for day-to-day exigencies. Now that the above-mentioned functions are carried out by line ministries, a broken water pipe may take days before it is repaired. Good ideas regarding youth projects may die out because there are no funds available to implement them. Councillors indicated that they are the closest government officials to the people and they are in a better position to know what the people want”*. Therefore, if they are given the necessary resources, they will be able to address community needs in a more expedient and effective manner. Similar sentiments were emphasised and echoed by the councillors of Okaku, Okatjali, Ongwediva and Ondangwa constituencies.

It has to be noted that, at the time these interviews were conducted, all ten Councillors were absorbed in tackling challenges posed by the drought situation in the Oshana Region. Lack of sufficient rainfall during previous years has resulted in acute shortage of food in almost all communities in the Region; therefore, the government, with the assistance of the Oshana Regional Council, had to distribute drought relief food in order to sustain the living standard of

the people. As such, councillors were more focused on the logistical aspects of food distribution in their respective constituencies.

The Governor also shared the predicament of governance and service delivery at sub-national levels due to the slow pace under which decentralisation of administrative powers takes place. He indicated that quite a number of line ministries are still reluctant to devolve administrative powers to regional councils. The Governor emphasised that some line ministries have even withdrawn some of the decentralised functions, and are currently providing those functions on a delegated basis. However, the Governor was quick to state that even though most of the functions are not decentralised, “*Constituency Councillors are empowered to initiate, in consultation with communities, development programmes and communicate such programmes to line ministries through the Regional Council*”. According to the Governor, these initiatives and planning should be done well in advance to allow central government ministries to consider them when they prepare their respective budgets. Notwithstanding the above, the Governor said central government budgeting for, and, funding of development programmes or projects, are done based on many competing priorities.

#### **5.2.5. Governance structures and practices and service delivery from senior administrative management’s perspective at Regional council and Town Councils levels in the Oshana Region**

To complement the political leadership (the Governor and Constituency Councillors) in the Oshana Region, there is a Chief Regional Officer (CRO), who serves as the head of administration in the Region. The Chief Regional Officer is appointed by the Public Service Commission on the recommendations of Regional Council Management Committee in consultation with the Minister of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development for a period of five years. In this regard, administrative officials in all ten constituencies in the Region are subordinated to the CRO. At local authority levels administration is headed by Chief Executive Officers (CEO) supported by administrative staff of various departments and units.

To get more insight into the performance of these top officials, structured interviews were also conducted with the CRO of the Oshana Region as well as Chief Executive Officers of Oshakati and Ondangwa towns respectively (see Annexure A, part A). The purpose of these interviews was for the officials to provide their respective views and opinions on issues of governance and service delivery at sub-national levels in the Oshana Region. Top officials bear the administrative responsibility to ensure that good governance practices are put in place and services are delivered to communities. Similarly, the CRO and CEOs are accountable for performance of their respective subordinates. Interview with the CRO of the Oshana Region provided an interesting and clear insight into governance practices and service delivery in the Region.

The CRO has been in that position since 2004. Prior to his current position he served as a Director of Education in the same. Significantly, the CRO was also involved in the process that led to the establishment of regional government in Namibia, particularly, the Regions of Oshana, Oshikoto, Ohangwena and Omusati. In other words, the CRO has a vast experience in regional governance and service delivery. Equally the CEOs possess immense experience in local authority governance, service delivery and public management. The CEO of Oshakati Town Council has been in the employment of local authority for over ten years while the CEO of Ondangwa, in addition to local governance experience, has been a school principal for a many of years. In essence, this explains that the above-mentioned public officials were in a better position, as indicated in chapter two, to provide data necessary to understand and explain governance and service delivery in the at both regional and local authority levels in the Oshana Region.

The Chief Regional Officer described good governance practices as “essential elements that contribute to social and economic development in the country”. Correspondingly, good governance denotes “citizens’ participation, government accountability and transparency in dealing with issues that affect lives of the people”. According to the CRO, “regional governments came into existence as a result of democratic elections; hence, their actions should focus on addressing citizens’ needs and aspirations”. The CRO emphasised that in order to realise regional government objectives, good governance practices must be put in place and be correctly and effectively applied. The Chief Regional Officer explained that in order to promote good governance in the Oshana Region the following structures are in place:

- the Oshana Regional Council;
- Oshana Regional Council Management Committee;
- Chief Regional Officer;
- Directorates (General Services and Planning and Development); and,
- Ten (10) Constituency Offices.

The Chief Regional Officer indicated that the Oshana Regional Council is the highest decision making body that passes resolution and makes decisions for implementation by the administrative officials under the supervision of the CRO. As an accounting officer in the Oshana Region, the CRO must ensure that government policies and Council decisions are effectively implemented to deliver services to people in the Oshana Region. According to the CRO, the Management Committee roles, amongst others, are to prepare budget for approval by the Council, and to oversee that the decisions of the Council are executed timely and to the benefits of the people in all constituencies in the Region. The CRO is answerable to the Management Committee as well as other administrative officials in the Region.

In his words, the Chief Regional Officer emphasised that “regional good governance practices and effective service delivery require close collaboration between central government institutions and regional council”. It also calls for constant communication and consultation with ordinary communities to whom public services are intended. Councillors who are on the ground need to engage with members of the community on a daily basis in order to identify and prioritise social and economic development issues. Similarly, administrative officials at constituency levels must be well conversant with the Namibian Constitution and the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992, to enable them to render effective services to their respective communities. The CRO stated that in order “to ensure good governance and effective service delivery in the Oshana Region, a Regional Development Coordinating Committee (RDCC) was established”. The Committee plays “a crucial role in coordinating socio-economic development activities”. In this regard, a broad base participation is needed. The CRO said the Committee is composed of “the Chief Regional Officer (Chairperson, the heads of line ministries in the Region, representatives of all local authority councils, community-based organisations, traditional leaders and non-governmental organisations in the Oshana Region”.

The CRO indicated that the Committee meets to discuss and debate service delivery issues identified and prioritised by Constituency Development Committees for consideration and recommendation. In this regard, the inputs of various stakeholders are solicited and consideration of resources is made before approval. Basically, this demonstrates that regional governance and service delivery is a concerted effort that involves all stakeholders. In addition, the CRO stated that by law, local authorities are required to provide five percent (5%) of their budget to Regional Council for use in the development of rural areas. This money supplements Regional Council in their effort to ensure equitable services to communities.

Regarding governance and service delivery at local authority levels, the two Chief Executive Officers who were interviewed revealed that their respective towns have achieved a lot in terms of social improvement and service delivery to the communities since independence in 1990. In their view, such achievement is attributed to good governance practices. According to these respondents, Town Councils carry immense responsibilities concerning meeting the needs and aspirations of increasing town inhabitants. However, CEOs admitted that service delivery to people is done within the parameters of available resources. Both CEOs claimed that Town Councils have in place appropriate structures to ensure effective delivery of services. These structures reflect the visionary desire to provide governance practices commensurate with the type of services to be rendered as per the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992. It was indicated that the following governance structures are in place at local authority levels:

- Local Authority Council;
- Local Authority Management Committee;
- the Chief Executive Officer;
- Administrative Management and Staff; and,
- various committees at community level.

Although the two CEOs provided more or less the same answers to the questions asked, it was noticed that the two local authorities are faced with different challenges in terms of human and financial capacities as in the respondents views and discussed under bullet points later in this section.

The Chief Executive Officers referred to the fact that “local authorities are creatures of law, and tasked with the responsibility to deliver services in order to improve the living standard of the people at sub-national levels”. In this regard, “basic services such as housing, electricity, water and sanitation as well as other municipal services are provided” as stipulated in the Local Authorities Act. In addition, it was indicated that governance practices and service delivery at local authority levels are integrated into government major programmes such as TIPEEG, NDPs and Vision 2030. This is done to ensure that local authorities contribute towards government’s agenda of an industrial and prosperous nation by the year 2030. In their views, CEOs emphasised that the objectives of those programmes can only be realised if local councils fulfil and serve the purpose they were created for. It was pointed out that so far the Ondangwa and Oshakati Town Councils have achieved a lot in terms of providing basic services to their respective communities. In their view the CEOs attributed the successes of their respective towns to good governance practices and cooperation between councils and stakeholders, particularly both local and foreign investors.

Despite notable achievements mentioned above, the two Chief Executive Officers cited numerous governance and service delivery challenges that are faced by local authorities in the Oshana Region These include but are not limited to the following:

- “Lack of funding from central government” was the first issue raised by CEOs. They said that “Local Authorities are not being sufficiently funded”. At the same time, Local Authorities do not have sufficient income base from which they can raise financial resources to finance essential community development programmes. In essence, lack of financial resources delays the implementation of important projects. Lack of sport facilities in Ondangwa, and delay in the implementation of the Master Plan in Oshakati are some of the practical examples given by officials to demonstrate that councils are struggling to secure sufficient financial resources to provide services to communities.
- Availability of serviced land. As the town population grows and the towns expand, availability of land becomes a big challenge to the town councils. To acquire the land and service it for housing and other infrastructure, some people have to give up their ‘mahangu’ fields to pave way for development. However, as the CEOs pointed out, it is a costly exercise. Communities who give up their land must be fairly compensated.



In this regard, the Oshakati Chief Executive Officer stated that the council needs sufficient funds to provide fair compensation based on the piece of land being acquired. In addition, the CEO provided an example of Ehenye and Ekuku villages in the outskirts of the town where communal farmers were compensated to allow development to take place. “Today the land in question has been serviced and construction of housing has already started”. On the question whether they request money for such purpose, both CEOs stated that their requisitions, though, taken into consideration by the line ministry, no sufficient funds are allocated.

- Another challenge referred to by Town Councils’ administrative heads is the escalation of informal settlements in the peripheries of towns. CEOs indicated that there is high migration of people from rural areas to towns in search of employment and better living opportunities. Migrated people end up erecting illegal shacks around towns particularly in areas around towns. This results in people lacking of basic services such as sanitation, sewerage, housing and other municipal services that are provided on cost recovery basis. The reason provided by CEOs was that the land on which these people have erected their shacks, is not surveyed and serviced therefore the town councils cannot provide the services in question.
- High rate of urbanisation stretched councils’ resources. According to Chief Executive Officers, continuous migration of people from rural areas to towns put pressure on their respective councils’ resources, planning and infrastructure. For example, water, electricity, sanitation and sewerage systems were designed and installed to accommodate a specific number of town residents only. However, the rapid growth of town’s inhabitants due to high rate of urbanisation put extra burden on town councils’ budget. Similarly, there is a high demand for housing and sanitation and an increase in crime and unemployment rates. To address the shortage of housing, the Ondangwa Town Council is currently busy constructing houses at extension 17 - 21 while the Oshakati Town Council is constructing 400 housing units at the Ekuku village in the outskirt of town. The CEOs are convinced that once the above-mentioned housing units have been completed, they will to lessen the problem of accommodation and many residents will be able to acquire and own formal houses. Significantly, the construction of housing and availing them to the people will alleviate housing backlog in the two towns. The CEOs made it clear that

the above-mentioned housing units have been made possible by government and National Housing Enterprise respective.

- Finally, the Chief Executive Officers state that there is also a lack of human capacity in the two towns. Shortage of human resources in key areas of local authority has adverse effects on the councils' performance. It has also negatively impacted on governance and service delivery. The CEOs acknowledged that lack of qualified staff is attributed to colonial governance system, which did not really prioritise and make provisions for indigenous people to receive proper training and education in areas necessary to social and economic development. However, the two CEOs indicated that the lack of human capacity is being addressed through workshops and training of employees in order to equip them with skills and competences needed to perform the job. It was also indicated that the situation will take time before local authorities in Namibia are able to have the necessary staff to deliver effective services to the people.

On the question of working relationship among public sector officials in the town councils, the CEOs indicated that they enjoy a good working relationship with the councillors. However, it was stressed that more still needs to be done in order for all officials to contribute equally to councils' efforts to deliver effective services. In addition, it was indicated that some councillors need extensive training in local governance and service delivery-related issues. A concern was raised regarding the low level of debates on governance and service delivery during council's meeting which at times delay decision making and implementation of councils' directives. It was specifically mentioned that some local councillors do not understand administrative procedures. The lack of understanding thereof at times creates tension between local authority councillors and administrative officials. The Chief Executive Officers, therefore, suggested that "more workshops and training should be designed to train councillors on local governance and service delivery-related issues". Although respondents did not specify as to who should pay for the above-mentioned workshops and training, it was clear from the arguments made in chapter four training institutions and NIPAM can assume the training responsibility while local authorities and the line ministry provide the necessary funding. It was also suggested that "the method utilised by political parties to identify candidates to stand for local authority elections should to be revisited". In other words, requirements for political positions in local authority councils should be reviewed to ensure that committed and competent councillors are elected to political

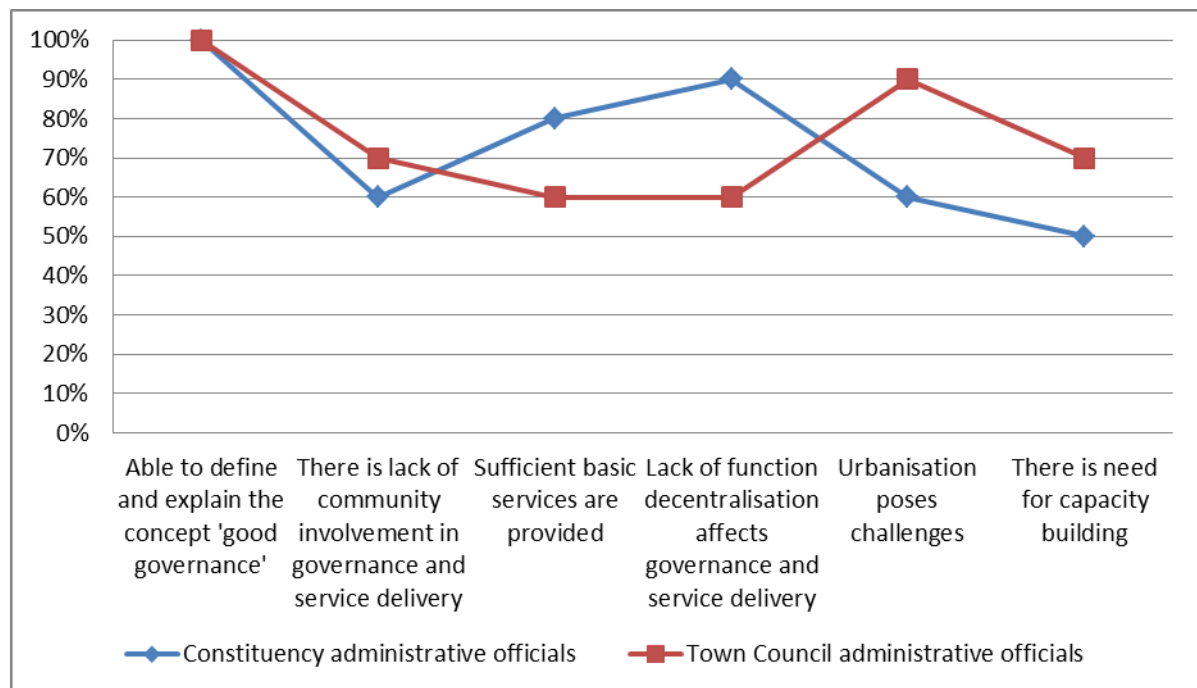
positions. Political parties in conjunction with the Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development should work out a proper modality to ensure that competent councillors are elected to office. In this respect, governance will be enhanced and effective services will be delivered to the needy.

#### **5.2.6. Governance practices and service delivery from the perspective of administrative officials at constituency and local authority levels in the Oshana Region**

Data was collected from administrative officials both at constituency and local authority levels in the Oshana Region. As indicated in chapter two, eleven (11) administrative officers employed at constituency offices in the Oshana Region were asked to provide their views on governance practices and service delivery. Similarly, six (6) administrative officials from the two local authorities, i.e. Ondangwa and Oshakati in the Oshana Region, have also provided their views on the same topic. Interestingly, all administrative officials in this category hold tertiary education, and the majority of them have more than five years work experience. In the researcher's view, this suggests that respondents in this category have vast knowledge and understand governance and service delivery-related aspects. Analysis of the data provided by administrative officials in the Oshana Region is discussed here under.

Constituency administrative officials are located further at the grassroots levels than officials at regional council headquarters. However, they are part of the Oshana Regional Council's staff and are responsible for administrative activities in their respective constituencies. These administrative officials are subordinated and report to the Chief Regional Officer. Constituency administrative officials serve as intermediaries between constituencies and the regional council on issues related to planning, coordination and implementation of government programmes in rural areas. In this regard, administrative officials facilitate governance and service delivery between the Oshana Regional Council and the communities at grassroots levels. The following chart illustrates and summarise the responses by administrative officials both at constituency and local authority levels.

**Chart 5.2: Summary of Response by administrative officials at constituency and town councils levels**



Source: Helao (2014)

On the question whether administrative officials understand the concept good governance, all respondents stated that they know and understand what good governance is all about, and the importance of governance practices in a day-to-day running of the public institutions. The purpose of this question was to determine whether administrative officials, as civil servants, understand the significance of governance and good governance practices. Significantly, such understanding enables them to correctly apply those practices in order to deliver services to the communities in a more transparent and accountable manner. All respondents (100%) were able to define and explain the concept. The following explanations on the concept good governance were provided by respondents:

*Good governance implies the ability of the government to exercise its authority and render equitable services to communities; the ability of the government to manage civil society and promote development in a democratic manner; accountability and transparency in conducting public affairs to ensure effective*

*service delivery especially at grassroots levels where the majority of previously marginalised communities live; administration of government affairs in the constituency in a more accountable and transparent way; governance system that encourages citizens' participation in decision-making pertaining to service delivery in their localities; effective leadership and coordination that influence citizens' involvement in governance practices; and the democratic manner in which government resources are managed and shared with the citizens.*

From an administrative point of view, the above explanations revealed that administrative officials at the constituency level are conversant with governance frameworks that guide the activities of the regional council and local authorities. For example, the Namibian Constitution's Article 8 'Respect of Human Dignity'; Article 18 'Administrative Justice' and Article 95 'Promotion of the Welfare of the People'. Likewise, the responses indicated that constituency administrative officials understand the Regional Councils Act 22 of 1992. In particular, section 28 of the Regional Council Act provides for the powers, duties, functions, rights and obligations of the regional councils. The Constitution and the Regional Councils Act require government institutions and public officials to put measures in place to ensure that government services are provided to all people on an equal basis. Similarly, it also means that good governance practices should be put in place and indiscriminately exercised. Good governance principles are more enforceable in a society that respects the constitution and all democratic values attached to it. Therefore, this description of the concept 'governance' implies being cautious and aware of the obligation of sub-national levels' responsibilities related to service delivery.

Furthermore, administrative officials indicated that constituency offices, in collaboration with constituency councillors, put in place governance structures to ensure effective delivery of services to communities. It was mentioned that the provision of clean water, electricity, sanitation, health and education form part of the basic and essential services needed by every person in the community. To promote good governance, the above-mentioned services are provided in consultation with affected communities. Similarly, respondents indicated that proper coordination with line ministries contributes to inclusive service delivery. In this regard, respondents claimed that communities are encouraged to participate, not only in the implementation of the government programmes, but also during planning and decision making regarding issues that affect society. In the views of constituency administrative officials,

involving rural people means that decisions that affect rural people are taken by common people. According to respondents, it is important to “establish different committees in the communities and to hold meetings on regular basis to discuss social and economic development issues that have an impact on the livelihoods of the people”. Administrative officials indicated that one of their responsibilities is to advise constituency councillors and community members on administrative matters regarding the delivery of services.

However, as 90% of the administrative officials at constituency levels indicated, there are numerous challenges facing constituency offices in the Oshana Region. The challenges affecting governance and service delivery are budget constraints, lack of staff and proper training; institutional bureaucratic procedures which at times delay service delivery. Respondents explained the above-mentioned in the following way:

*“Service delivery in the Oshana Region requires active participation of the people and both regional, local and community levels. Such active participation is only feasible if public officials are properly training and possess knowledge of the issues that should be addressed to improve the people’s living standard. Financial resources, for example, sufficient budget enables administrative officials to reach communities in all corners of the constituencies in order to deliver the necessary services. Institutions and avenue for public participation are established using available financial resources. Similarly, it requires needs human capacity in terms of quantity and quality to plan and implement government programmes. Therefore, service delivery is not only a question community involvement; it is also a matter of financial and human resources and training”.*

Furthermore, it was indicated that lack of transport hinders effective service delivery. Respondents stressed that all essential governance services should be decentralised because if that is not done, it will deny the people their constitutional rights. In this regard 60% of the town administrative officials and 90% of the constituency officials indicated that lack of decentralisation has a negative effect on governance and service delivery at sub-national levels. It was indicated in chapter three that delivery of essential services to communities is the legal obligation of sub-national institutions. Therefore, those in position of authority should make sure that mechanisms are put in place to promote good governance practices and deliver services to all people. One respondent suggested that it will help if a Constituency Development Fund (CDF) can be established to assist addressing some of the much needed services. Some

administrative officials argued that community members in rural areas require micro financing to start community projects so that they can engage in small businesses to generate income that can sustain their livelihoods. In this regard, CDF can help realising such goal. All in all, respondents felt that the budget allocated to the Oshana Regional Council is insufficient, and again it takes time before the money is released to regional council. Regarding decentralisation, it was indicated that the process of devolving functions to sub-national levels is slow. Respondents in this category indicated that basic services such as water and sanitation as well as electricity are not decentralised. Line ministries are still responsible for delivering those services. All respondents have admitted that constituency offices, though important institutions at sub-national levels, are only serving as facilitators of the services mentioned above.

Regarding institutional capacity building, 70% of administrative officials at local authority levels and 50% of respondents at constituency level felt that there is considerable need for capacity building. According to respondents building capacity will obviously improve governance and service delivery at sub-national levels. Lack of training among administrative staff at constituency level was also pointed out as a challenge to good governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. It was indicated that “some staff members lack knowledge and skills which made it difficult for them to apply governance practices”. The same issue argued in chapter four that lack of qualified personnel in areas such as town planning, engineering and land surveying has adverse effect on governance and service delivery. Therefore, those carrying out above-mentioned responsibilities should receive constant workshops and training to enable them to deliver services to community. In essence, available skills and competences should be utilised to ensure that those without skills and knowledge are trained. Administrative officials claimed that there is a need to train constituency officials in governance and service delivery - related issues. According to them, training and regular workshops will improve officials’ performance. In the same vein, it was suggested that members of the Community Development Committee need to be trained and equipped with skills on service delivery-related aspects in order to fast track decision making by the Committee. Respondents are of the opinion that delivery of services, at times, is delayed by long processes of decision making. They said that “lack of understanding of governance and service delivery issues among committee members contributes to long and sometimes unnecessary discussions before a consensus is reached”. Although, administrative officials at constituency level acknowledged that most basic services are available in their respective constituencies, it was also equally emphasised that improved

relationship and coordination among government agencies can promote governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region.

Regarding the service delivery at constituency level, 80% of the respondents indicated that sufficient basic services are provided to the people. However, they cited long distance to those services and affordability as the factors that denied many people access to basic services. 60% of the constituency councillors have also mentioned lack of community members' involvement in government programmes as having a negative impact on effective service delivery. One of the government services being provided to communities in the constituencies is the Orphans and Vulnerable Children Assistance Services (OVC). During the interview process the researcher has learned that the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare (MGECW) has appointed officials to deal with OVC-related services and functions in each constituency in the Oshana Region. In the Okatjali constituency, the office of the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare which is responsible for OVC service is accommodated in a small building structure, not really conducive for an office. There is one ministry official stationed there to cater for residents of the Okatjali constituency. The Councillor indicated that "the responsibility of the official include registering OVC, conducting investigation to see how OVC grants are utilised, and educate the community on the importance of OVC on social welfare and economic enhancement in the Region in particular and Namibia in general". It was indicated that the above-mentioned office structure was built and donated by community members in the constituency in order to accelerate government services to the people. Similarly, the electricity which is connected to the office was made possible with the help of community members who paid for the installation thereof. One government vehicle has been allocated to the office to enable the official to travel to different locations of the constituency and perform his duties. It must be pointed out here that the researcher has not interviewed the officials of the Ministry of Gender Equality and Children Welfare in the constituencies to find out more the functions of the office (MGECW) because he was not the purpose of this to interview them. The purpose of discussing this issue here was only to explain and show that in addition to basic services mentioned earlier, there are also other services are equally very important for the survival and wellbeing of the communities in the Oshana Region.

During fieldwork in the Oshana Region, the researcher has also sought views and opinions of local authority administrative officials in the Ondangwa and Oshakati Town Councils on the aspects of governance and service delivery in their respective towns. Officials employed in the



Departments of Local Economic Development, Planning and Development, and Public Relations were asked to provide answers to questions raised on governance and service delivery. The reason to seek views and opinions of the above-mentioned officials was because they are directly involved in service delivery to the residents of their respective local authorities. Respondents indicated that the Namibian Constitution and the Local Authority Act 23 of 1992 are the basis of good governance practices in local authorities. They explained that “in order for public institutions to adhere to constitutional provisions there is need to have in place public service ethical codes to which all employees should abide”. Respondents felt that “public institutional accountability, transparency as well as public officials’ integrity and honest promote good governance and eventually increase service delivery”. In this respect, respondents declared that residents’ participation and involvement in the activities of local authority is necessary to encourage compliance among them. One Respondents specifically mentioned that “*Residents’ involvement entails, attending of municipal public meeting, paying municipal rates and services, electing town councillors and adhering to municipal by-laws*”.

Local authority officials emphasised that “good governance practices and effective service delivery are promoted through holding of community meetings and sharing development-related information with town residents”. In addition, respondents said “proper planning, prudent utilisation of public resources and commitment by both local authorities and residents are central to effective delivery of services”. It was also indicated that “the existence of governance and service delivery structures at community levels such as community development committees, community representatives, community-based organisations and civil society organisations are essential components of social and economic development”. Furthermore, it was explained that the above-mentioned structures can operate properly if they are capacitated to deal with socio-economic aspects at local authority level. Proper institutional arrangements and human resources capacity are some of the key strategies local authorities should employed to improve governance and promote service delivery. In addition, good work place relationship between administrative officials and local authority councillors are essential to ensure that town councils deliver on its mandate.

Regarding the state of governance and service delivery at local authority levels, respondents provided varied views. While 40% of the respondents conceded that there is poor governance in the local authorities, the other 60% supported the type of governance practices local authorities are exercising. However, 90% of the respondents admitted that local authorities face challenges that incapacitated the institutions in their attempts to provide effective and equitable services to their respective residents. Respondents mentioned insufficient human capacity and financial resources as hindrances towards meeting the people's needs and aspirations and achieving local authorities' goals. They said "to implement good governance strategies and deliver effective services, it requires local authorities institutions to have sufficient financial resources to be able to resolve community needs".

According to respondents, key local authority divisions such as Town Planning and Development as well as Local Economic Development are understaffed. In addition, local authorities have no sufficient financial resources to implement projects as planned by respective divisions. Respondents stated that "lack of decentralisation of government services is also a contributing factor to slow services delivery and high rate of urbanisation". Probing questions were asked on urbanisation and the challenges posed by such phenomenon. 90% of the respondents agreed that "urbanisation and its consequences such as over-crowding, illegal erection of shack dwelling around towns, poverty and unemployment are challenges that are confront town councils on a daily basis". In this regard, respondents stated that inaccessibility of services to the people in rural areas has "forced a large number of rural people to migrate to urban areas", hence, putting pressure on local authority resources. It should be noted that the issue of high urbanisation was also discussed in chapter three as factors affecting governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. The same sentiment was also echoed by 60% of the administrative officials in the constituencies.

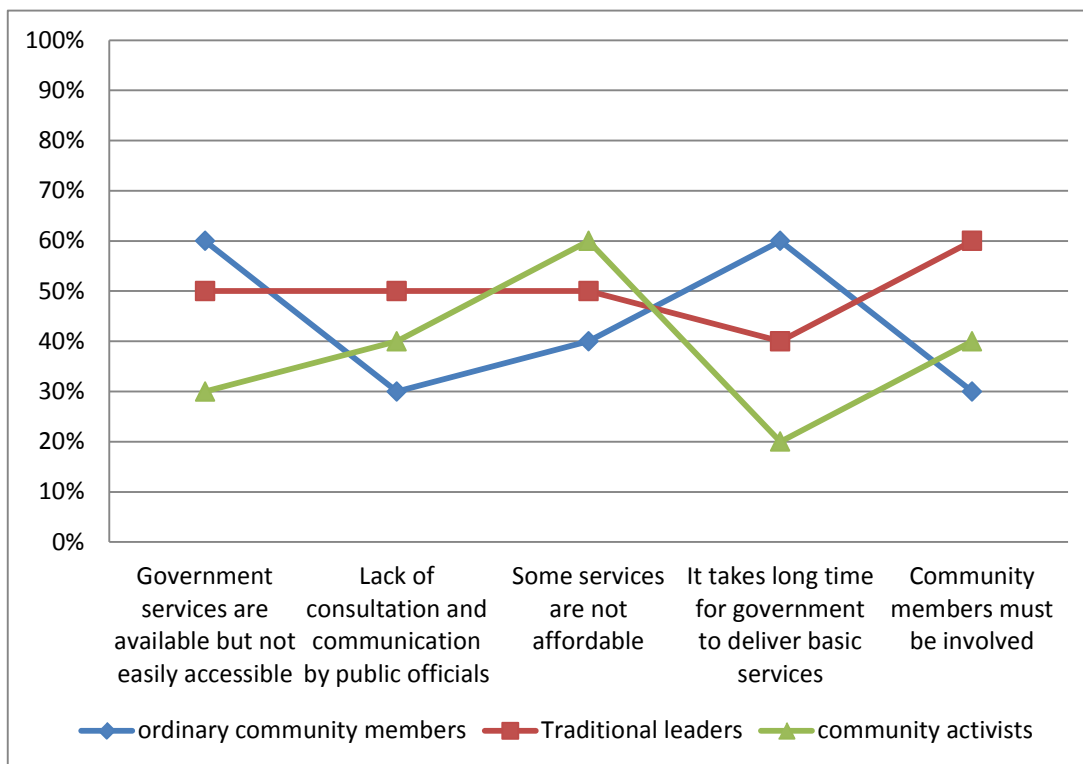
The response by local authority officials suggested that institutional arrangement and financial and human resources capacities are critical to effective service delivery at sub-national levels. It also indicated that in order to promote governance practices and increase service delivery at local authority levels, it requires community's involvement and local authority officials' commitment. In essence, community participation and involvement increase access to services because communities advise on where services are needed and should be provided. Furthermore, qualified and properly trained local authority officials are very crucial to improving performance. Training of employees and appointment of qualified staff are the responsibility of

local authorities if they intend to improve staff performance. Resources should be made available to be used for this purpose. Staff members should also be encouraged to further their studies in areas related to governance and service delivery at local authority levels. Where practical, local authority should introduce staff development programmes and sponsor them. In this regard, they can also take ownership of such services. Responses also placed emphasis on the importance of educating local authority residents to understand governance and service delivery processes. Therefore, as respondents stated good governance and effective service delivery “increase public participation in programme and project implementation”. Respondents also indicated that bringing community members on board through participation helps them to understand that “local authorities need to recover costs that are incurred in delivering services to the people”, hence, such services should be paid for to recover costs.

#### **5.2.7. Service delivery from the perspective of ordinary members of the community and traditional leaders in the Oshana Region**

Traditional leaders and ordinary community members were both interviewed and asked to give their respective views on issues of service delivery in the Oshana Region. Interviews took place at different places such as homesteads, community water points, schools, cucasops, and community centres where people meet to either discuss issues that affect the community or to receive drought relief food. As discussed in chapter two, no prior appointments were made. Respondents were interviewed depending on their availability. In this regard, it was also necessary to ensure that the researcher receive respondents’ views and opinions which are in no way influenced by others. Questions were focussed on the delivery of services, the availability, accessibility and affordability of such services to rural people. Respondents were also asked to indicate the institutions that provide services to them and the manner in which such services are provided. In addition, respondents were asked to provide their respective view on the availability of governance structures and practices in the Oshana Region. Furthermore, community members were asked to describe how often basic services are provided to them, and whether they are involved in planning, designing and implementation of government programmes aimed at addressing their plight. It must be noted that in this section the concepts “respondents and community members” were used interchangeably to refer to traditional leaders, community activists and ordinary community members who were interviewed. The following chart explained the response by respondents in this category.

**Chart 5.3: Summary of response by ordinary community members, traditional leaders and community activists in constituencies in the Oshana Region**



*Source: Helao (2014)*

The answers that were provided on the questions asked have revealed mixed opinions depending on the location in the constituency or local authority where respondents live. For example, ordinary members of the community who reside in the distant peripheries of towns, settlements, etc. mentioned that although “services are available some of those are not accessible and affordable to many people”. Basically, 60% of the respondents residing in the informal settlements of the town of Oshakati and Ondangwa indicated that they are “struggling to make ends meet because basic services are not made accessible to them by the local authorities”. Similarly, respondents in the remote areas of the constituencies lamented government for lack of services such as clean water for human and animals’ consumption, lack of electricity, lack of health facilities, road networks and schools. 60% of the respondents said they “travel long distance to access the above-mentioned services”. For example, it was pointed out that where clean water is available, the water points are situated far away from some communities, resulting in them walking and driving their livestock long distance to get clean water. In addition, the majority of ordinary community members (60%) mentioned that “affordability of services is a

challenge especially to pensioners, minors and unemployed who head households”. Some respondents called on the government to subsidise essential services such as clean water, sanitation and education. The claim by respondents might be justifiable because basic services are fundamental to human survival. People in rural communities need clean water, sanitation, education and health facilities. The problem with service delivery in this regard is that some much needed services are situated far away from communities. This is because the allocation of those services was done without proper consultation with the ordinary members of the community, which in fact made it difficult for them to be involved. Therefore, it is high time that the Government of Republic of Namibia consider involvement ordinary members of the community as fundamental to government programmes implementation and subsequently addressing societal problems. Basically, such practice will improve not only service delivery but also governance at sub-national levels in Namibia.

In the Okatjali constituency, the researcher attended two community meetings at Okapopo and Onekandu villages respectively. At Okapopo a meeting was called to discuss a forestry project which was due to start in that village. With the help of the constituency councillor, community members organised themselves into groups to work on the project. One group agrees to dig and lay down the water pipelines which will supply water to the project for irrigation purpose, while the other group chose to erect the fence around the project area to protect plants from being destroyed by the animals. It has to be noted that the purpose to attend the above-mentioned meetings was for the researcher to observe community participation and involvement in government programmes and projects. In essence, it was observed that the councillor has only acted as facilitator, while community members discussed and made decisions on how they wanted to organise their activities. However, through discussions, it came to light that although community members were eager to commence with the project, it was not clear as to where the material to be used on the project will come from and when they will be delivered. This caused the community members to task the councillor to follow up on the issue and come back to them with clear information on the project. In the context of this study the above indicated lack of coordination among government institutions at sub-national levels. It has also demonstrated that lack of devolution of functions and services delay project implementation in rural areas. One may argue that if the constituency office had the required resources and material, a project of this nature could have been accelerated to provide benefit to local people. Thus, this study suggests that line ministries’ officials and regional councillors must communicate regularly and coordinate issues to avoid unnecessary delays in project implementation.

On the question whether the community members of Okapopo village had access to water and electricity, respondents indicated that electricity is not available in the Okapopo area. They also indicated that there is a long distance between the village where they live and the nearest community water points. Therefore, community members stated that they travel a long distance on a daily basis to get clean water. Furthermore, respondents stated that they are 'forced' by the situation to lead their livestock to water points which are situated a distance from the village. Nevertheless, respondents pointed out that once the envisaged project gets off the ground, it will bring clean water closer to the community. Despite the above explanation, respondents at Okapopo village have applauded good communication that existed between them and the constituency councillor, saying that the councillor is always hands-on to assist and advise where and when needs arise.

At Onekandu village in the Okatjali constituency, a meeting was organised by the headman (traditional leader) to discuss issues related to the usage, payments made and maintenance of the community water point. The community invited the councillor to attend the very same meeting. Through observation, and gauging from the number of people who attended the meeting and the herd of cattle gathered around to get water, the researcher noted that this is one of the central community water points. Under the leadership of the traditional headman, community members discussed and agreed on the usage, payment and maintenance of the water point. The councillor provided advice regarding the maintenance of the community water point and the cattle troughs. During the meeting it was emphasised that it was the community's responsibility to ensure that community infrastructures are well taken care of and properly maintained.

Of essence, one community member has indicated satisfaction with the manner development is taking place in the Okatjali constituency, particularly, in the Onekandu village and commented that *"once the government provides the necessary infrastructure, for example community water points, members of the community bear the moral responsibility to safeguard and maintain it in order to sustain community livelihoods and the survival of their livestock"*. In this respect proper consultation, organisation and coordination among institutions is of vital importance to ensure effective implementation of government policies. Members of the community felt that the Oshana Regional Council could not achieve the desired outcomes in terms of governance and service delivery if the Council is detached from the people. On the question whether community members have access to other basic services provided by Namibian government, respondents

indicated that despite long distances community members have to endure on daily basis to access such services, most services and amenities are available. Clean water is available in the constituency. Electricity is also available, even though it is only connected to strategic places such as schools and government offices. Respondents said that the government provides social grants to elderly and vulnerable people. In addition, drought relief foods are distributed to members of the community especially during drought season. However, the major concern that was raised by majority of respondents was the lack of health facilities such as primary health care centres and clinics in the Okatjali constituency. Respondents indicated that there is no health clinic in the constituency, resulting in residents travelling to neighbouring constituencies such as Uukwiyu and Ondangwa to receive medical treatment. A headman mentioned that *“if life threatening sickness occurs, people travel up to 50 kilometres to access the nearest hospital in order to receive medical treatment”*. Furthermore, respondents revealed that there are no proper road networks to provide easy access to other constituencies where other necessary services are available. In other words, there are no proper roads in the Okatjali constituency. No gravel roads have been constructed in the Okatjali constituency. Respondents indicated that the absence of suitable road networks in the constituency contribute to service inaccessibility as people find it difficult to access essential services especially during raining season.

In the Ondangwa constituency, community members showed their satisfaction with the manner the Namibian government through the Oshana Regional Council delivery basic services. Respondents indicated that clean water, electricity, gravel road networks, schools and health clinics are available in the constituency. It was pointed out that strategic places such as government offices, schools, churches and small business centres such as cucashops are connected to the main electricity grid. At Amunganda village in the Ondangwa constituency, community members indicated that the government has provided dry sanitation system (toilet facilities) at some homesteads in the village. They described the project as a commendable effort by the government to improve sanitation in rural areas. However, respondents claimed that some of these toilet facilities are no longer functional due to poor maintenance. In particular, respondents stated that dry sanitation system is not conforming to cultural norms of disposing waste. This resulted in some people abandoning this kind of sanitation facilities. One respondent of Amunganda village stated that, *“Although sanitation is a basic need to all people, proper consultation could have taken place in order to make sure that people understand and know how to utilise such sanitation facilities”*. According to the respondent, proper consultation could afford community members an opportunity to accept, use and maintain those facilities.

Community members argued that proper consultation and, notably, training on how to use dry sanitation facilities were not done before the construction of such facilities.

Ondangwa is one of the constituencies in the Oshana Region in which many people have settled and built their houses alongside the main bitumen road. The majority of these people migrated from rural areas in search of better service provision opportunities. Others have moved from town authority's jurisdiction areas to avoid high cost of municipal charges. Areas such as Adolf, Omaalala, Akuniihole, Okapya and Okapale which were previously shebeens areas are now increasingly becoming residential places. On the question why these people settled on those areas, respondents indicated that it is cheaper to have a house alongside the main tarred road. It was indicated that unlike in the rural areas, settling alongside the tarred road gives one easy access to basic services. For example, it is easier to be connected to the main water pipeline, and electricity is readily available in those areas. Some respondents also pointed out that people are moving out of municipal areas because they cannot afford the high municipal rates. Another respondent who migrated from rural area said, *"Ever since I settled here, my standard of living becomes sustainable. Now I have easy access to towns, hospital, big shopping centres and government offices. My work-place is also nearer and easy accessible"*.

A traditional leader (headman) in the Ondangwa constituency, while indicated his appreciation for what the government has done since independence in 1990, "felt that lack of sufficient consultation and timely sharing of information between the constituency office and traditional leaders slows down policy implementation thereby denying essential services to the people". The traditional leader cited the example of *"drought relief food distribution and government ploughing subsidy scheme"*. It was discussed in this thesis that traditional leaders are crucial to basic service delivery because they lead institutions that are closer to the people, for example, traditional authorities and community institutions. In this respect, headmen should always be properly informed on government programmes and projects in order to facilitate compliance by ordinary members of the community and eventually ensure effective service delivery. 50% of the traditional leaders maintained that community members are easily reachable and give compliance if consulted through their respective traditional leaders. Remarkably, the same sentiment was also shared by 40% of the NGOs officials who were interviewed. The above-mentioned respondents' views illustrated that traditional authorities are important institutions at grassroots levels that can assist the Government of Republic of Namibia to achieve national development goals and realise Vision 2030. In this regard, sub-national governments ought to



work closely with traditional authorities in order to promote service delivery and eventually improve the people's living standard.

In the Okaku constituency, community members expressed their contentment in the manner services are being provided in the constituency. Although some respondents indicated that there exists need to increase services in the constituency, they indicated that “service delivery has drastically improved since independence in 1990”. Respondents attributed this to the good relationship between community members and the Constituency Councillor. Community members singled out rural water supply as a major success in the constituency. However, they lamented high water tariffs as the main concern to many inhabitants, stating that “potable water is expensive to ordinary people”. Respondents argued that the majority of people in the constituency are unemployed, thus, cannot afford to pay for water. According to respondents, *“high water tariffs contributed to non-payment which eventually resulted in community water points being closed by NAMWATER in an attempt to recovery debts owed by community members”*. The issue of non-payment of potable water in rural community is major concern. The Governor, councillors and senior administrative officials also pointed out that non-payment by ordinary community is a challenge that needs to be addressed by both central and sub-national levels hands-on. Thus, this study suggests that the Government of Republic of Namibia ought to introduce high subsidy for rural water to enable NAMWATER to reduce water tariffs. The government must also set up more community water points.

Furthermore, respondents indicated that, even though electricity is available in the constituency, it is not accessible and affordable to the poor. They stated that only government institutions and some cucashops are electrified. One respondent in the Okaku constituency remarked that, *“electrification of cucashops has resulted in young people spending more times at cucashops”*. The word ‘cucashops’ refers to informal small business establishments in rural areas that sell basic commodities to community members in a particular community. In most cases cucashops sell traditional brews and alcohol. In this respect, some community members spend long hours and sometimes until night hours at cucashops because of availability of electricity there. A primary school teacher in the Okaku constituency pointed out that “non-availability of electricity in homesteads in the constituency has contributed to poor performance by learners because they studied under very difficult conditions”. According to this respondent (take note that the teacher was interviewed as part of community members, and not in his teaching capacity), “learners find it difficult to do their homework due to insufficient lighting instruments in their respective

homesteads”. During interviews it was revealed that schools with grade 10 classes have introduced study blocks conducted during year-end examinations. This means that grade 10 learners are accommodated in canvas tents in school yards to provide them sufficient time to study in the evening under close supervision by teachers.

The respondents stated that the rationale behind keeping learners at schools during year-end examinations, “is because electricity is available at schools; thus, learners are able to study even during night hours”. The researcher visited two schools in the Okaku constituency to validate the information provided by respondents regarding ‘make-shift accommodations’ for learners at schools during year-end examinations. During visitations the researcher found canvas tents erected in the school yard to serve as accommodation spaces for grade 10 learners. A learner was asked whether she was pleased with the school arrangement to accommodate them in the schoolyard during examinations. The learner responded in the affirmative and further stated that *“many learners live in homesteads where there is no electricity, thus, staying at school during examinations period provide them ample time to study and prepare well for examinations”*. It shows that delivery of services such as electricity can also compliment other services, for example education. In the context of this study, the above explained that electricity is no longer regarded as a luxury commodity but it is an essential service that every member of the community in rural areas cannot live without. It is against this backdrop that the study suggested in chapter six that the Namibian government should find a workable solution to improve and increase the distribution and accessibility of electricity in rural areas. In other words, more places in rural areas should be connected to electricity grid. In no way this study suggests that the government should connect every resident in the Oshana Region to electricity grid. It understands that it cost millions of dollars to provide electricity. What the study suggests is that community members should be involved and consulted before electricity is provided in a particular area. It must be noted that the centrality of allocated services matters when it comes to service delivery.

Uukwiyu constituency centre is situated eleven (11) kilometres from Ondangwa town. There is a gravel road connecting the constituency to Ondangwa town. There are also two health clinics at Uukwiyu and Ehafo settlement respectively. Community members in the Uukwiyu constituency could not thank the government more especially for providing basic services such as health clinic facilities, schools, water and electricity. According to respondents, all main centres in the constituency are connected to electricity grid. It was revealed that other government services

such as social grants and assistance to orphans and vulnerable children are being provided. In addition, people receive drought relief foods from government to enable them to cope and survive the drought period. However, community members were concerned about poor communication and consultation that exist between public officials and ordinary members. In the view of the community members, the lack of communication and involvement slow down development in the constituency and consequently service delivery.

In addition to face-to-face interviews, in the Ongwediva constituency, the researcher attended a community meeting on 4 October 2013 which was held at Omashekediva village. Ordinary members of the community gathered to discuss social problems affecting their respective communities. In their midst were Constituency Councillor, the Oshana Police Regional Commander, senior traditional headmen and six traditional leaders in attendance. It was made clear by one senior headman that “the purpose of the meeting was to discuss issues related to customary laws and anti-social behaviours among young people in the constituency”. Through discussions it was noted that community social issues are directly linked to governance and service delivery, and subsequently social and economic development of the Ongwediva constituency. Community members used the opportunity to raise their concern on anti-social behaviours especially among young people. A senior traditional leader read and explained a set of customary laws guiding community behaviours, and urged “subjects to familiarise themselves with such customary laws and respect them”. It was explained that governance in Namibia will “improve if community members have high regard for the authority, either from government or traditional leaders”. Such respect promotes compliance and ensures that services are delivered unhindered. As in other constituencies in the Oshana Region, respondents in the Ongwediva constituency raised similar social and economic development issues. They also echoed the councillor’s sentiment regarding accessibility and affordability of basic services to rural communities. Respondents indicated that the Government of Republic of Namibia should do more to improve people’s living standard.

Interviews conducted with ordinary community members in the Ompundja constituency revealed that although government services are available, some people travel long distances to access services. Respondents mentioned that the Government of Republic of Namibia must provide electricity, health facilities, clean water and sanitation to people in the remote areas of the constituency. Community members indicated that there are no health facilities available in the constituency. Furthermore, primary school learners travel long distances to and from schools.

Respondents mentioned that one of the primary schools, Ontako Primary School, in the constituency was closed in 2011. Community members indicated that the school was closed by the Ministry of Education due to insufficient number of learners at the school. As a result, learners who attended classes at Ontako Primary School are traveling long distances to attend classes at other primary schools in the constituency. The researcher has visited the school in question to verify the information provided by members of the community. However, due to the fact that the Constituency Councillor has not consented to be interviewed, the reason why the school was closed remains sketchy. In other words, the researcher could not verify community members' information. Nonetheless, it should be noted that Ompundja is a vast constituency with sparsely inhabitants. Consequently, the closure of one school may affect many learners especially those reside in the proximity of that particular school. This could have been the reason why community members in that area were concerned about the closure of the Ontako Primary School. It is also contrary to the notion of bringing services closer to the people. This study suggests that government could have either built learners' hostel or introduced a feeding programme to encourage learners to attend classes rather than closing the school.

Furthermore, respondents stated that there is lack of road communication networks. In respondents' view, "the absence of proper gravel roads impacts negatively on the development of the constituency". People find it difficult to access the town of Oshakati especially during rain season. In the same way, community members indicated that it is not easy to access hospital and clinics as well as other services that are not available in the Ompundja constituency. Like other constituencies in the Oshana Region, Ompundja was also hard hit by drought and many households were dependent on drought relief food distribution by the government. In this respect, community members acknowledged that they receive food rations from the government which is distributed through the constituency office, hence, commented the government of Republic of Namibia for providing such service.

Another constituency where interviews were conducted is Uuvudhiya. Uuvudhiya constituency is situated on the south-west of the Oshakati Town. The larger part of the constituency is semi-arid and consists mostly of water pans - '*oshanas*' in Oshiwambo vernacular language. The constituency's centre is Engombe settlement, situated about 40km from the town of Oshakati. Development projects in the constituency include a forestry project at Engombe settlement, which employs about seventeen (17) people from that community. Community members revealed that the project was an initiative by the former President of Namibia to bring

development closer to the people and give them opportunity to earn a living. It was established in 2005. Despite the long distance between the Oshana Regional Headquarters in Oshakati Town and the Uuvudhiya constituency centre, there is neither proper road nor gravel road constructed to connect the constituency to the Oshakati Town. Respondents indicated that, in addition to road network, there is dire need for health facilities. They indicated that the only available clinic in the constituency is in Okaukueyo which is inaccessible to many people. One respondent stated that, *“When you get sick especially during rain season or when the area is flooded, you cannot go to hospital because there are no gravel roads that connect Uuvudhiya to other constituencies. You have to wait to be air-lifted by a helicopter to Oshakati hospital. Sometimes this takes days before you are assisted”*. This is a justifiable concern by residents of the Uuvudhiya constituency. Twenty-four after Namibia’s independence one expects the government to have addressed the road network issue in the Uuvudhiya constituency in order for the people to have easy access to other constituencies where medical treatment services are available. However, in spite of the current plan by the Oshana Regional Council to declare Engombe traditional village in the Uuvudhiya constituency as a growth point (Namibia Broadcasting Corporation, 8 February 2015), the issue of road network can be addressed. In this context, the concept “growth point” refers to a place in remote area that requires support and incentives from the regional council and central government to enable it to develop. The development of Engombe into a village council may bring much awaited relief to the people of Uuvudhiya constituency in terms of provision and availability of basic services.

According to respondents in the Uuvudhiya constituency, getting potable water is a challenge. It was indicated that potable water pipelines do not cover the entire constituency, thus, community water points are not easily accessible. Especially during dry season when water pans dried out, cattle herders found it difficult to get water for their livestock. Regarding the constituency office, some respondents stated that there is a shortage of staff at the constituency office to assist community members when they need assistance. Lack of electricity, as a service delivery issue, was also cited as the challenge that government should address in order to improve the living standard of the people in the Uuvudhiya constituency.

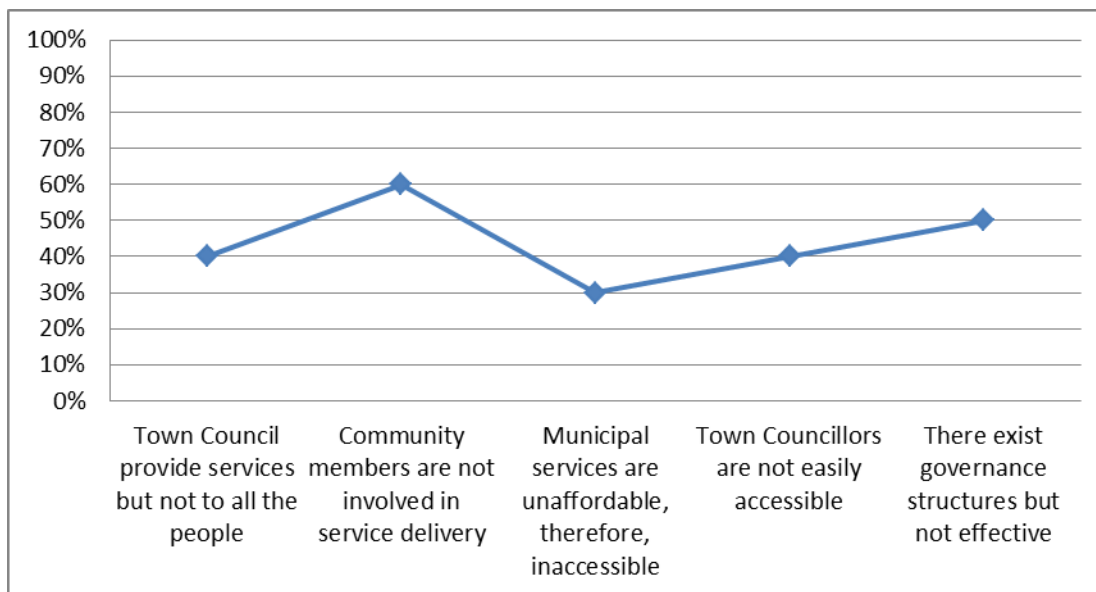
In the Okatana constituency, respondents registered their concern regarding the constituency office which is situated at Uukwangula settlement. It was indicated that community members in the eastern part of the constituency find it difficult to access the office when they need help. In their view, the office is not centrally located. Others felt that the office was supposed to be in the

Okatana settlement. Okatana is a settlement in the constituency situated 4 km north of Oshakati town. It is also regarded as the constituency centre; hence, respondents suggested that the constituency office should be relocated to Okatana Settlement. The issue of office relocation requires involvement of the Oshana Regional Council and the line ministry. It is not an easy thing to do because it will require additional budget to build a new office. In this regard, consultation with members of the community can be done to see how best their needs can be addressed. One of the strategies they can employ is to introduce mobile teams consisting of officials from the constituency office to visit communities who cannot access the office due to distance. In this regard, officials can discuss with those community members and collect information related to service delivery so that the people's needs can be addressed. This means that the problem of service delivery can be resolved without necessarily relocating the constituency office. Constant communication and consultation between constituency officials and ordinary members of the community may be used to address the issue of service delivery in the Okatana constituency. In general, 60% of the respondents at local authorities' levels indicated that community members are minimally or not involved at all when service delivery is planned and implemented.

On the question whether community members receive government services, respondents provided mixed answers on the manner basic services are made available to them by the government. 40% of ordinary members of the community and 50% of traditional leaders indicated that although services are provided, there are problems associated with those services. Issues of water payment and inaccessibility of electricity to many inhabitants in the constituency were prominently featured in respondents' answers. Furthermore, respondents indicated that there are no business opportunities in the constituency. This results in high unemployment rates and exodus of young people to urban areas both in and outside the Region. One respondent said "*lack of information related economic development in rural areas and access to finance have contributed to high unemployment in the constituency*". Notwithstanding the above-mentioned challenges, respondents indicated that notable progress has been made and achieved in terms of infrastructure development since independence in 1990. Respondents provided examples of government schools which were built; water infrastructure was developed and distributed to many areas in the constituency. Government institutions such as schools, government offices and churches are connected to the electricity grid. In the same way, small business units are also supplied with electricity. Furthermore, it was indicated that there is a missionary hospital in the constituency which complements the intermediate state hospital in the Oshana Region.

Respondents stated that, in addition to missionary hospital, they have easy access to health clinics in neighbouring constituencies such as Ongwediva and Oshakati West. The main intermediate hospital is also reachable by many inhabitants of the Okatana constituency. Overall, 60% of the respondents stated that although basic services are needed in society, “it takes long time for government and line ministries to deliver those services”.

**Chart 5.4: Response by community members in town councils in the Oshana Region**



*Source: Helao (2014)*

In both the Oshakati East and West constituencies, community members face similar challenges. Respondents in the outskirts of the town felt that they are caught between a rock and hard place, regarding service delivery. Some respondents stated that, if they approach town council and demand for electricity, clean water and sanitation services, they are always being told that the land on which they have settled is not serviced, thus some of the above-mentioned services could not be rendered to them. As such, municipal services cannot be provided to people settled in unproclaimed areas. Likewise, the constituency offices informed them that the municipal council is responsible for delivering services to people who are within the town jurisdiction. In this regard, 40% of the respondents indicated that although the town councils provided basic services, not all people receive such services especially those reside in the towns’ peripheries. Other respondents registered concern regarding the rapid expansion of the Oshakati Town, claiming that people residing in the peripheries of town are, at times, forced to sell their “mahungu” fields to the Town Council to make way for town development. A resident of the Ehenye village, a community village in the outskirt of the Oshakati Town, noted; “*I was forced*

*to sell my 'mahangu' field, and as a result I do not have any place to graze my livestock".* Although, the municipality does not literally forced residents to sell their land to the Town Council, the manner negotiations regarding land acquisition by the town council and eventually compensations were done made land owners to feel unfairly treated. This is the reason the above-mentioned respondent used the word "forced" to describe the manner in which the process of land acquisition by the Oshakati Town Council leaves affected residents dissatisfied. It is therefore important for the town council to act in a more transparent manner when dealing with land acquisition aspects. Information related to price being paid to land owners should be availed in order to allow residents to make an informed choice.

In the municipal areas of Oshakati and Ondangwa Town Councils, community members who were interviewed mentioned that high municipal tariffs, lack of municipal services and lack of housing are the main problems faced by residents. Oshakati is the capital centre of the Oshana Region and houses almost all government offices. This means that there is also a large population residing in the town. Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:39) indicates that Oshakati Town "has 36 541 inhabitants". Significantly, this implies that the town council should deliver services to those people. Respondents at the Oneshila settlement of the Oshakati town indicated that the town council has done very little to address communities' plight and needs. Respondents said that "*the Oneshila Township is always flooded during the rain season which resulted in residents being relocated every now and then*". Despite the predicament caused by flood in the township, the Town Council has failed to permanently relocate the affected residents to high grounds. Therefore, respondents suggested that the Town Council should find permanent solution to the above-mentioned predicament. It should be understood that relocating residents should be preceded by servicing of the land on which residents should be settled. This allows the town councils to provide necessary basic services. In essence, this process needs not only sufficient resources but also the involvement of all stakeholders including the ordinary community members.

It was revealed that the lack of formal housing, poor sanitation system and improper design of the settlements of Oshakati Town Council have contributed to poor, and at times, unacceptable living conditions in the townships. A respondent at Uupindi Township stated that the settlement lacks recreational facilities for young people, adding that the lack thereof turns children into delinquent behaviour. Another respondent at Oshoopala Settlement "questioned and blamed the town council for the delay in the implementation of the Oshakati Master Plan". The respondent



indicated that proper redesigning of Oshakati Town is necessary because it will minimise possible flooding during rain season, which poses a health hazard to residents in the informal settlements. It was discussed earlier in this chapter that the Oshakati Master Plan, once fully implemented, may contribute to effective service delivery such as sewerage and sanitation system. In addition, it enables the Town Council to acquire sufficient land and service it for the provision of formal housing.

Data was also collected from residents of the Ondangwa Town in the Ondangwa Constituency. Ondangwa serves as a business hub of the Oshana Region. The town houses the main railway station and the airport in northern Namibia. According to Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:39) Ondangwa Town has “22 822 inhabitants”. In other words, it is the second highest populated town in the Oshana region. However, the majority of the people live in informal settlements in the outskirts of the town. Like in the case of the Oshakati Town, service delivery in the Ondangwa Town is a big concern, not only to the residents but also to Ondangwa Town Council. Respondents indicated that service delivery is either very slow and poor or non-existing especially in the informal settlements. This is due to a number of factors as discussed earlier in this chapter. In this case respondents mentioned that “improper design of informal structures and lack of serviced land delay service delivery in the Ondangwa Town”. The above-mentioned problems can be attributed to non-responsiveness as well as lack of communication and consultation between the Town Council and residents. If two parties fail to come together and discuss and reach consensus on governance and service delivery issues, the problems of informal structures and lack of serviced land will not be resolved.

On the type of services that residents receive from Ondangwa Town Council, respondents’ answers revealed mixed views and opinions regarding the availability and the accessibility of municipal services. This depends on the part of the town a respondent resides. Respondents in formal areas of the town stated that municipal services are available although at times put burden on residents due to high tariffs. In the Uupopo settlement, respondents indicated that they lack proper sanitation system. Some mentioned that there is a problem of electricity connection, saying that lack of electricity in the Uupopo settlement has contributed to illegal connection to electricity. Furthermore, respondents indicated that they experience a problem of noise pollution in the settlement due mushrooming of illegal shebeens that operate until late hours. At the Okangwena Township respondents lamented the Town Council for failing to provide formal housing in the area. The same sentiment was also expressed by residents of Omakulukuma

settlement. In addition, respondents stated that high rate of unemployment in the town has forced some people especially the youth to turn into street vendors and engage in different small business activities. However, when these street vendors put up “mobile stores” alongside the streets to sell their products, the police rounds them up and sometimes confiscate their products. Respondents indicated that the “Open Market Incubators” provided by the town council for small businesses are situated far from informal settlements. The monthly fee for renting such incubators is also unaffordable to the majority of the street vendors.

Regarding the Town Council’s officials accessibility to residents of the Ondangwa Town, respondents pointed out that there exists poor communication between residents and town council officials. It was mentioned that very few or no community meetings take place. Consequently, community members remain uninformed on the town council’s development programmes and strategies. As in the case of the Oshakati Town, respondents indicated that the Ondangwa Town is not properly designed. The town is always submerged under water during the rain season and many people in the flood-prone areas have lost valuable property on numerous occasions. Therefore, almost all respondents who were interviewed have called upon the town council to ensure that proper planning of the town is done to divert flood water that causes damage to property during rainy season.

Finally, based on the questions of governance structures and accessibility of public officials at sub-national levels, respondents indicated that governance and service delivery challenges are similar in all town councils. 50% said that governance structures are in place; however, they are not effective. In addition, 40% stated that governance and service delivery are ineffective due to lack of consultation and communication between councils’ officials and community members. Respondents said “*town councillors are not easily accessible*”. As was indicated in chapter three and four, this problem can be solved if sufficient governance institutions are established at regional and constituency levels. This will allow smooth interaction between public officials and community members in order to resolve governance and service delivery issues.

### **5.2.8 Brief synopsis of issues that have impacts on governance and service delivery as identified and discussed by the respondents in the Oshana Region case study.**

During face-to-face interviews and observation, it came to light that the about 90% of the respondents have touched on one or more of the following social issues which, in their views, have directly impact on governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. It must be noted that social issues mentioned hereunder were raised by respondents through probing questions. They are not necessarily governance issues but they were cited as having an impact on governance and service delivery. These issues are not limited to a specific constituency, town or location in the Region. They cut across all sectors in society. These issues include unemployment, poverty, HIV/AIDS, alcohol abuse, crime and domestic violence. Respondents stated that poor governance practices and service delivery to the people in the Oshana Region culminated in the above-mentioned social factors. For example, if good governance practices are not put in place and applied, services may not be delivered to the people. Such situation can culminate into social problems. Both public officials and community members agreed that social problems are not conducive to social and economic development of the Region. Respondents indicated that social issues have a direct impact on the manner and the extent to which governance practices are exercised and services are delivered in the constituencies and towns in the Oshana Region. Particularly, the Regional Governor, Chief Regional Officers, Town Chief Executive Officers, Councillors and other Administrative Officials indicated that both the Regional Council and Local Authorities in the Oshana Region face a daunting task in addressing the above-mentioned challenges. Respondents argued that it is not only that the Oshana Regional Council and the two Local Authority Councils do not have the financial capacity to overcome service delivery challenges, but the afore-mentioned are national challenges that require concerted effort from all sectors of society. Generally, social issues featured prominently in NDPs as issues that must receive undivided attention from all stakeholders if Namibia is to achieve social and economic development objectives and eventually realise Vision 2030.

Unemployment has risen in Namibia since independence in 1990. The Namibia Labour Force Survey (2008) recorded unemployment rate in the country at 51.2% - broader definition. However, “the population and housing Census of 2011 indicates that unemployment in the country stands at 37%” (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:57). Despite reduction in the unemployment rate since 2008, the situation on the ground especially in rural areas portrays a different picture. In his forward to the Namibia’s Fourth National Development Plan (NDP4,

President Hifikepunye Pohamba said that: *“The government is keenly aware that most of the unemployed are young people and women. This status quo cannot be allowed to continue. Therefore, it is our resolve to do all that is necessary to transform our economy into one that is more robust, one that is able to generate these essential employment opportunities”* (National Planning Commission, 2013:vii). In this respect, analysis of data collected through interviews and observation also confirmed that the youth are the most affected section of society by unemployment problem in the Oshana Region.

Furthermore, Namibia Statistics Agency (2013:6) shows that unemployment in the Oshana Region currently stands at 24.5%. The majority of unemployed people are the youth who reside in rural areas. In other words, they are in the constituencies where service delivery is mostly needed. As such, it poses a huge challenge to the Oshana Regional Council in particular and Namibia in general. Also, Matali (2012:4) states that *“youth unemployment is undoubtedly one of the perennial problems that continue to hamper developmental progress in various parts of the country”*. As was indicated in chapter four, a huge number of Namibian youth, especially those in rural areas, remain jobless and might be prone to social evils such as crime, poverty and hunger. In this respect, the Oshana Regional Council may continue to be seized with the above-mentioned social problems unless both public and private sectors put efforts together to address unemployment in the Region. This effort can only be complemented by good governance practices. It was made clear from explanations provided by respondents that the Oshana Regional Council can do very little in this regard if it has no support from central government, private sectors and ordinary members of the community.

Respondents also indicated that alcohol abuse, crime and domestic violence are major concerns in the Region. In their view, the above-mentioned disrupt the effort of both Regional Council and local authorities in terms of delivery of effective services to the people. Respondents at the Oshana Regional Council in particular, indicated that alcohol abuse is prevalent in the Region. This is a result of escalating and continuing increase of cucashops and shebeens especially in outskirts of towns and alongside the Ondangwa-Oshakati main tarred road. In particular, the Governor pointed out that alcohol abuse results in crime and domestic violence. The Governor said that *“Crime is the big enemy of economic development and progress”*. Therefore, good governance and effective service delivery can only flourish in an environment where rule of law, accountability, transparency and integrity are maintained. In the same vein, the Constituency Councillor of Uuvudhiya suggested that budget decentralisation and complete devolution of

functions to Regional Council will enable the Oshana Regional Council to address some of the social problems therefore decreasing social problems. The Constituency Councillor of Okaku shared the same sentiment, adding that in the absence of practical decentralisation, sufficient budget and proper coordination among public institutions, National Development Plans (NDPs) will not achieve the intended objectives, and Namibia Vision 2030 will not be realised.

HIV/AIDS was noted as both social and economic concern that impact directly on governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Respondents at constituency levels argued that both infected and affected people in rural areas require proper care and food. Public officials and ordinary members of the community maintained that the drought period that usually affects the entire Oshana Region put additional burden on government efforts to addressing the HIV/AIDS related problems. HIV/AIDS have a direct impact on public officials' performance, thus, affects service delivery outcomes. It was mentioned that some public officials who are infected with the disease often absent themselves from work due to sickness. As a result services may not be rendered to members of the community until a relief arrangement is made or the person himself recover and come back to work. In addition it was indicated that community members suffering from the pandemic are required to take their anti-retroviral medications on a daily basis. However, lack of food makes this exercise futile. While the majority of ordinary members of community acknowledged good effort by government to introduce anti-retroviral medicines plan, this category of respondents indicated that the supporting system should be revisited.

### 5.3 SUMMARY

Chapter five dealt with data analysis and interpretations from the Oshana Region case study. Respondents, (public officials and ordinary community members) have admitted that while the Government of Republic of Namibia has provided more basic services since independence in 1990, challenges still exist in some areas of governance and service delivery. Responses indicated that ineffective programmes implementation, lack of resources and poor coordination and communication are contributing factors poor service delivery. It was suggested that service providers such government line ministries and the Oshana Regional Council should involve all relevant stakeholders and community members respectively. Respondents' views suggested that good governance practices and effective service delivery are, to a larger extent, dependent on resolute effort and active participation of stakeholders. Information gathered from the Oshana Region case study indicated that significant change is needed to promote good governance in public service in order to enhance service delivery at constituency levels. Respondents noted that public institutions should apply good governance practices and preserve governance models and principles. In this regard, service delivery will be improved. Consequently, this can promote socio-economic improvement of the people including the previously marginalised. Against the backdrop of results discussed in this chapter, the subsequent chapter six provided research findings and discussed the actual governance and service delivery situation in Namibia. This is an attempt see how much has been done and how the shortcomings could be addressed to improved governance practices and service delivery.

## CHAPTER 6

### RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS ON GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY SITUATION IN NAMIBIA

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the attainment of Namibia's independence in 1990, the government has put in place various strategies, discussed in chapter three and four, to delivery basic services to citizens including those living in rural areas. Government performance in terms of governance and service delivery has provided long-awaited relief in the life of the people. However, as it was indicated in chapter four, more still need to be done to ensure that all the people in Namibia have access to basic services. In essence, this is the constitutional obligation of the government. In one of his famous works, *the Second Treatises of Government*, an English Philosopher, John Locke, concluded that the "government has no other end but the preservation of property" (Locke, 1690). This means that the government bears primary responsibility to promote and sustain the social welfare of all citizens.

Against the backdrop of the above-mentioned exposition, chapter six, therefore, provide actual basic services availability and accessibility and discusses them based on selected areas of governance and service delivery in Namibia. Firstly, it provides an overview of selected governance and service delivery areas to indicate the extent to which public service reform efforts have attained the intended objectives of effective service delivery since Namibia's accession to democracy in 1990. The findings on actual service delivery discussed in this chapter include water supply and sanitation, rural electrification, health and education facilities' provisioning. These findings took into account the empirical evidence on governance and service delivery collected from respondents in all ten constituencies of the Oshana Region. The Constituencies referred to are: Okaku, Okatana, Okatjatli Ompundja, Ondangwa, Ongwediva, Oshakati East, Oshakati West, Uukwiyuushna and Uuvudhiya. Finally, in addition to empirical evidence, the discussion on findings draws from secondary resources as discussed in chapter three and four.

## 6.2 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS ON GOVERNANCE PRACTICES IN NAMIBIA

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact and explain the extent to which good governance practices influence service delivery in Namibia especially at sub-national levels where many people in rural areas are poor and cannot afford basic services. Literature review revealed that governance is not new to Namibia. It can be traced back to the 1880s during the arrival of the Germans in then 'German South West Africa', through to the current democratic governance system. This study found that although governance was introduced way back it failed to address the needs and aspirations of indigenous people. As was discussed in chapter three, under section the 'three phases of governance in Namibia', the practices and procedures used especially by former colonisers were not conducive to political, social and economic environment. People were not only denied their political rights, but also freedom to participate in the socio-economic development.

The study found that the colonial way of governance has created inequality and disparities in society, a situation which became very challenging to address by the new Namibian government. One of the challenges is lack of institutional capacity which is, until today, complicating governance practices at sub-national levels. Sub-national levels of government lack capacity to carry out specific functions necessary for effective delivery of basic services. Notably, the lack of institutional capacity has contributed to the manner functions and services are being decentralised and implemented at sub-national levels. In chapter three and four, it was discussed that lack of decentralisation affects good governance practices and consequently the livelihood of rural people. However, it was noted that these challenges are not insurmountable, provided public service is prepared to embrace democratic governance practices. Furthermore, the study found that non-compliance to democratic principles such as rule of law, accountability, transparency, openness, responsiveness, integrity, public participation, equality and good governance practices may resulted in citizens being denied their constitutional rights. To the extreme, such exercise has placed rural people into abject poverty because basic services are inaccessible. As it was discussed in chapter four, Cheema and Rondinelli (2007:6) posit that democratic governance is preferable for improved condition of the rural poor. Literature review indicated that good governance practices can be realised through mutual involvement and contribution by all stakeholders. Therefore, this study cited a 'stakeholder theory' (Damak-Ayadi and Prequeux, 2005; Freeman, 2004) as relevant in achieving total public participation if good governance objectives are to be realised.



Essentially, the study found that since the inception of democracy in Namibia, the government has achieved a lot. Relevant public service reforms and institutional arrangements have been made in an attempt to improve service delivery. Also imperative, functional legal frameworks were adopted. As such, regional structures including the Oshana Regional Council were created to bring governance and services closer to rural communities. Governance structures, for example regional councils, constituencies, towns, villages and settlements were established, and officials were appointed to give effect to government development and service delivery agenda. However, as this study found, more needs to be done to promote good governance and improved service delivery.

Empirical evidence in chapter five revealed useful information on aspects of governance and service delivery. In essence, this has made it possible for the researcher to draw conclusions and put forward recommendations. From the perspective of Oshana regional level, including the constituencies, the study found that governance structures are in place and the majority of governance officials are well conversant with governance and service delivery issues. Staff complement is in place. The Regional Governor and the Chief Regional Officer have been appointed by the President and the Public Service Commission respectively. The two oversee the political and administrative governance processes in the Oshana Region respectively. However, as it was indicated through interview, the detailed responsibilities of the Governor seemed not clear. The Governor is accountable and report directly to the President, and not necessarily to the people to whom services are provided. This brought into question, whether there exists a symbiotic relationship between the Governor and governance system and service delivery in the Oshana Region. This also applies to other regions in Namibia. In chapter three, it was discussed that good governance practices and effective service provision can only be realised if there is good relationship between public officials and citizens, and that public officials are accountable to both the people and authority (Sharitz and Hyde, 2012:46).

Furthermore, the study found that despite many challenges compounding rural areas, councillors and administrative officials at constituency levels are living up to those challenges. Governance and service delivery issues such as lack of capacity, lack of funds, poor coordination, lack of decentralisation of services, and poor condition of rural areas in terms of availability and accessibility of infrastructure and basic services, were noted. The study noted that even a small community project is subject to bureaucratic and lengthy procedures before being implemented.

This situation is counter-productive to good governance and service delivery. Ahrens (2011:10-11) contended that government needs to create enough institutional capacity in terms of providing of financial and human resources, knowledge and skills necessary to promote governance and accelerate service delivery. In this regard, public officials need to be empowered and supported to realise governance objectives.

It was also found that local authorities are not saved from the above-mentioned predicaments. Politicians and administrative officials respectively agreed that town councils have made tangible progress in promoting social and economic development of the people. However, they conceded that they are faced with challenges of poor institutional capacity, lack of resources, lack of community involvement and urbanisation. The study also found that some of the 'big' projects, for example the Oshakati Master Plan, are yet to be implemented. This has resulted in many town residents not receiving much needed services.

The study found that not all citizens in the Oshana Region are satisfied with good governance practices and service delivery. The study noted huge disparities in infrastructural and service provision at constituency level in the region. This has contributed to some community members, as indicated during interview, travelling long distance to access essential services. Roads, medical clinics, schools, telecommunications, police stations, electricity, housing, sanitation and potable water are lacking in some constituencies in the Oshana. Community members attributed this to lack of active public participation. As was discussed in chapter three and four, involving citizens could resolve community problems within a reasonable time. Perhaps public officials need to consider and apply Arnstein's public participation ladder portrayed in chapter four in order to improve participation. Significantly, Geingob (2004:216) concluded that poor participation can breed an also unequal society if not carefully addressed.

As part of findings and continued discussions on governance and service delivery the following sections discussed in detailed selected service delivery issues in Namibia in general and the Oshana Region in particular.

### **6.3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS ON SELECTED SERVICE DELIVERY ISSUES IN NAMIBIA**

Until 1989 Namibia was governed by her former colonial master on a divide and rule basis. As was discussed in chapter one, the country was divided into homelands that produced imbalanced governance and service delivery in some parts of the country at that time. This means that homelands had different governance practices, while service delivery has been provided along racial lines. Service delivery in areas occupied by black people was either neglected or not delivered at all. In this respect, essential infrastructure was restricted in many parts of the country including the Oshana Region. It must be mentioned that even if the former colonial regime of South Africa has left behind significant number of infrastructure; they were not sufficient and, to a certain extent, were underdeveloped. Therefore, at independence in 1990 there were huge backlogs in many areas of service delivery. The situation was even worse in areas formerly regarded as homelands. The areas referred to above include the Oshana Region. As a result, the majority of rural people had neither access to clean water and sanitation, electricity, proper education and health facilities, nor were these services equitably provided. Ultimately, it became a challenge to the new government in an attempt to reverse the situation and provide equitable services to people. Poor governance, lack of financial resources and institutional capacity are some of the challenges attributed to the above-mentioned situation.

Therefore, after the adoption and coming into effect of the Namibian Constitution, the government has approached service delivery issues very cautiously. It must be noted that service delivery in Namibia is a constitutional obligation that the government should provide basic services and amenities. In this regard a robust strategy was taken to address the matter. For example, a number of initiatives were taken by the Namibian government to improve governance practices and provide the necessary services to the people in order to improve their living standard. One such initiative was the reformation of the public service. The reform allowed public sector officials to effectively address citizens' demands and aspirations regarding service delivery. In accordance with the decentralisation policy, functions that were earmarked for decentralisation after the enactment of Decentralised Enabling Act 33 of 2000 are water supply and sanitation, primary education and primary health care. However, twenty-four years after Namibia's independence, the above-mentioned services are still being implemented by line ministries on a delegated-basis (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:36). In this context, delegation involves functions transfer to the sub-

national levels. Thus, decision making and budget are still made by line ministries at central government level. This was done because at that time sub-national levels of government had no human resources capacity to carry out delegated functions. Regional Councils only serve as coordinating institutions. This study argues that this kind of arrangement is still continuing and it can only be addressed through the devolution of functions to sub-national levels of government. The following section puts into perspective and discusses the water supply and sanitation services in Namibia.

### **6.3.1 Water supply and sanitation services**

Water supply and sanitation in Namibia is a constitutional responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF). Article 100 of the Namibian Constitution provides for the government to own natural resources and distribute them equitably. It stipulates that, all natural resources within the boundaries of Namibia shall belong to the state if they have not been already lawfully owned by any other person (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:47). This includes water resources that are critical to human survival. In this regard, clean water and acceptable sanitation facilities were identified right at independence as some of the much needed basic services that were lacking especially in rural areas (European Commission and Government of Republic of Namibia, 2009:9). For this reason, the Namibian government's water supply and sanitation scheme took into effect to deliver these basic necessities to the people. However, at independence in 1990, the government opted that, in the interim, the existing guidelines derived from the Water Act, 1956 (Act 54 of 1956) will remain valid and continue to be applied until new standards are formulated. This is in line with Article 140 of the Namibian Constitution, Act 1 of 1990 (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:2). This has been done to ensure that the provision of services was not to be unnecessarily interrupted. Nevertheless, continuous demands by citizens made the government to come up with various frameworks to regulate and supply water and sanitation on a sustainable basis.

In order to regulate water supply and sanitation activities in the country, regulatory frameworks were put in place. The Namibian government enacted the Water Resources Management Act 24 of 2004, Public Health Act 1969, and Environmental Management Act 2007. Moreover, national policies were also adopted to facilitate the delivery of clean water and proper sanitation to the people especially those living in rural areas where potable water and sanitation facilities remain a main challenge to the government. These policies, amongst others, are: "Water Supply and

Sanitation Policy 2008, the National Strategy for Rural Sanitation 2004, National Environmental Health Policy 2002, National Housing Policy 1991, and Environmental Assessment Policy 1994” (European Commission, 2009:32). The above-mentioned policies are intended to provide framework and guidelines on governance and delivery of potable water and sanitation at sub-national levels in Namibia. In particular, the Water Supply and Sanitation Policy underscores the significance of proper sanitation and clean water on people’s quality of life. It underlines the importance of conserving and managing water resources and infrastructure. In other words, “the policy spells out the responsibility of government and other related agencies in terms of water resources development, management, protection, conservation, as well as usage that is consistent with fundamental principles” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2004:9-10).

The above-mentioned Water Resources Management Act 24 of 2004 also empowers the Minister responsible for agriculture to establish a water management agency to ensure a proper integrated management of water resources. Similarly, the Act also obligates the Minister to make sure that all people have access to affordable and sustainable supply of water in order to satisfy their basic human needs. Particularly, the policy stipulates that the government should:

Design proper standards of performance and avail reliable facilities to all those who may wish to provide water for agricultural, industrial, commercial and domestic utilisation;

Review the performance of institutions and person who provide water to ensure compliance with the policy guidelines; and,

Take remedial action to rectify the situations where suppliers [either public or private sector] fail to meet policy guidelines.

In the context of this study the above-mentioned provisions imply that the delivery of proper sanitation and clean water is a deliberate endeavour by the Namibian government to improve water supply and sanitation, hence, it should involve all stakeholders including ordinary members of society to whom such services are envisaged. Community members should be afforded opportunity to manage and maintain water infrastructure in their respective communities, thereby, taking ownership of such infrastructure. This does not necessarily imply that community members should provide resources. It means that they should be properly consulted in order to advise on where water points can be located and how they want the water supply facilities to be managed and maintained. Community members’ involvement facilitates easy planning and implementation of water supply and sanitation programmes. Essentially, this

means that water supply and sanitation functions should be devolved to sub-national levels of governments to allow full participation of all stakeholders. The Water Supply and Sanitation Policy serves two central, however, broader objectives. It “seeks to increase the delivery of potable water in the country, thus, contributing to better public health, decrease the distance to access water, encourage community based socio-economic growth especially the role played by women at household level, address the basic needs for water, and enhancement of water preservation” (MAWF, 2008:4).

Regarding urban and rural areas, the policy places an emphasis on proper sanitation because it “contributes to better health and improved life quality, guarantee a hygienic condition, stop water pollution, stimulate proper management of water, and encourage socio-economic enhancement” (MAWF, (2008:4). To this end, operative strategies have been adopted to ensure and make safe water available and accessible. Such strategies should provide sufficient capacity to ensure that water sources are sustainable to serve all people in the country at an affordable charge. Similarly, these strategies also ensure safe and realistic sanitation, and encourage decentralised systems of sanitation where applicable. According to the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (2008:6) “the delivery of water and sanitation services is the responsibility of all stakeholders. The regional councils and local authorities and members of the community to whom such services are intended to have mutual responsibilities to provide and safeguard water resources”. Therefore, it encourages individuals and communities respectively, with the assistance of regional and local government, to ensure an improved living standard and to contribute towards the development of the country. In this respect, this policy intervention by Namibian government is considered as liberal opportunity to realise government objectives in terms of water supply and delivery of proper sanitation to all people. Moreover, the policy provides for communities’ involvement in water and sanitation delivery. It stipulates that, “where practical, community members should be afforded the opportunity to plan and decide on how the want water resources to be developed and managed. The Ministry should just provide financial and technical support as well as guidance. In other words, the policy “encourages public ownership and administration of water infrastructure to be embraced as a policy choice for the water supply and sanitation sector in general” (MAWF, 2008:6).

As can be seen in *figure 6.1*, government initiatives and efforts to address the provision of water and sanitation in the country have immensely improved since 1990, especially in rural areas where there has been a huge backlog of water supply and sanitation. Water supply covers about 80% of the Namibian population. However, nearly half of the population, 49%, have no access to formal toilet facilities, making access to sanitation a huge challenge in rural areas. In this regard, the European Commission and Government of Republic of Namibia, (2009:9) acknowledge that contrary to increase of access to potable water in the rural areas from 43% in 1991 to 80% in 2001, nothing much has been done to increase and improve sanitation facilities at sub-national levels. The problem of sanitation in rural areas in Namibia continues relentless. Fuentes Milani (2013:288) notes that, “during the period of financial years April 2004 to March 2010, the water sector in Namibia constructed and rehabilitated a total of 1341 water points, serving a population of 216 046 persons with increased access to safe and potable water”.

Basically, the delivery of suitable sanitation in rural areas still needs to be addressed. The situation is made difficult because water is not connected to every homestead in rural areas. Rural people collect water from community water points. In 2007 the National Demographic Health Survey found that about 67% of the Namibian people has no access to proper sanitation, and mainly use bushes to relieve themselves when need arise (European Commission and Government of Republic of Namibia, 2009:3). The above-mentioned percentage represents around 1 411 000 population, the majority of them live in rural areas and in townships. Furthermore, the survey found that for the people to access sanitation, they need to be connected to clean water pipeline system to be able to operate sanitation facilities. Nevertheless, the survey found that only about 57.8% of the people in urban areas and 13.3 % people in rural areas connected to sewers. It is worth noting that over the years, there has been an increase of 10% and 7% of the number of people connected to waterborne sewerage in urban and rural areas respectively. This is a commendable exercise by the Namibian government. However, it is also a grave concern that sanitation system has not been properly developed over the same period hence it cover only a small percentage of the people (European Commission and Government of Republic of Namibia, 2009:3). In the Oshana Region however, about 46.4% of households have no access to sanitation facilities (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2013:9).

**Figure 6.1: Access to Water Supply and Sanitation delivery rate in Namibia per Region**

| Country/Region       | Safe water % | No toilet facility% | Total population |
|----------------------|--------------|---------------------|------------------|
| Namibia              | 80           | 49                  | 2 113 077        |
| !Karas Region        | 82           | 23                  | 77 421           |
| Erongo Region        | 96           | 11                  | 150 809          |
| Hardap Region        | 93           | 35                  | 79 507           |
| Kavango region       | 66           | 75                  | 223 352          |
| Khomas Region        | 99           | 20                  | 342 141          |
| Kunene Region        | 67           | 63                  | 86 856           |
| Ohangwena region     | 56           | 80                  | 245 446          |
| Omaheke Region       | 85           | 60                  | 71 233           |
| Omusati Region       | 52           | 79                  | 243 166          |
| <b>Oshana Region</b> | <b>84</b>    | <b>46</b>           | <b>176 674</b>   |
| Oshikoto Region      | 70           | 69                  | 181 973          |
| Otjozondjupa Region  | 95           | 39                  | 143 903          |
| Zambezi region       | 73           | 74                  | 90 596           |

*Source: Namibia Statistics Agency (2011).*

As can be seen in *figure 6.1*, the sanitation situation is not good in Namibia, particularly in rural areas. Studies conducted indicate that, public schools in rural areas in particular, lack sanitation facilities. The Government of Republic of Namibia (2013:147) reveals that slightly above 20% of the schools in rural areas are without sanitation facilities, which has a serious implication for learner attendance. On average, only 64% of the schools have flush toilets, with Ohangwena, Omusati, Kavango, Oshana, Zambezi and Oshikoto far below average. In an effort to improve sanitation in rural areas, the government through regional councils, introduced a scheme to construct and erect toilet facilities in rural areas in all the Regions in the country. The programme started in 2010 and many toilet facilities were constructed in various communities in the country.

However, due to poor planning and coordination, some of the toilet facilities are yet to be completed, and many of the completed ones cannot be utilised by communities because they are in a state that is not conducive to human use. In the Oshana Region, most of these toilet facilities became dormant. The “Informante” newspaper (2014:2) reported that “the Oshana Regional Council shifted the blame regarding poor delivery of sanitation to Constituency Councillors for not taken initiatives to ensure that community members have been trained on how to operate and maintain the provided rural toilet facilities”. The Newspaper quoted the Deputy Director of Rural Services at the Oshana Regional Council as having said that only community members in



the Okatana, Oshakati East, Okatjali and Uuvudhiya constituencies were trained on how to use and maintain the provided toilet facilities. Although the above-mentioned facilities were provided in all constituencies in the Oshana Region, community members in other constituencies were neither trained nor shown how to operate those facilities. The shortcoming in this respect is attributed to lack of human resources capacity at regional council to effectively deal with governance practices and service delivery issues. It indicates poor implementation of government policies as well as lack of coordination between sub-national levels of governments and the people to whom services are intended. In essence, this tantamounts to wastage of limited state resources.

To this end, the European Commission and Government of Republic of Namibia (2009:11) maintain that the development of human resources is imperative factor in ensuring that the water supply and sanitation policy is effectively implemented. In this regard, line ministries should ensure that manpower is developed to suit continuing and new requirements for utilising and maintaining water and sanitation facilities. Regarding this issue, the European Commission and Government of Republic of Namibia (2009:11) indicate that there strong need develop technical and personnel capacity support at sub-national levels to design and manage water and sanitation related services.

### 6.3.2 Electricity supply services

The independence of Namibia in 1990 culminated in the creation of the Ministry of Mines (MME) to spearhead and regulate mineral resources and energy - related aspects. This was followed by enactment and eventually promulgation of Electricity Act 4 of 2007 which is aimed at providing and regulating the supply, maintenance and control of electricity - related activities in the Namibia. Fundamentally, the Act in question provides for the creation of Electricity Control Board (ECB) with defined powers, duties and functions. The Board regulates and authorises the delivery and use of electricity in Namibia (Government of Republic Namibia, 2007:5). Von Oertzen (2010:1) describes the ECB as, “the electricity sector’s regulator”. This implies that the Board sets conditions, oversees, defines and manages the allocation of operating licences to electricity providers. Significantly, the Electricity Act allows the ECB to recommend to the Mines and Energy Minister any action pertaining to issuance, renewal, transferring, cancellation, amending and even suspension of electricity licences” (Von Oertzen, 2010:1). In addition, Section 36 of the Electricity Act 4 of 2007 provides for sub-national agencies such as Regional Councils and Local Authority Councils to, also, “provide electricity provided they first acquire a licence to do so” (Government of Republic Namibia, 2007:29).

Constitutionally, the Ministry assumes custody of the whole energy sector in the country, while the electricity providers are controlled by the Electricity Control Board (ECB, 2009:2). In addition to the MME, other ESI’s role-players are Namibia Power Utility (NAMPOWER), Regional Electricity Distributors (REDs) such as NORED), Erongo RED, CENORED, Central RED and Southern RED, and a handful of municipalities and mines (ECB, 2005:2). The ECB sets the required licence conditions, and defines, oversees and manages the processes for the application and issuance of such licences. Amongst others, it assesses and makes recommendations to the Minister of Mines and Energy regarding the issue, transfer, amendment, renewal and cancellation of licences and the approval of conditions on which electricity is provided by a licensee (Government of Republic Namibia, 2007:5-6). In essence, this means that ECB controls and regulates electricity - related activities in Namibia.

The above finding demonstrates that electricity delivery, as part of service delivery, is a coordinated effort by various sectors in Namibia. Therefore, the inclusion of regional councils and local authorities in the delivery of electricity is to ensure that all citizens including rural people are involved in governance, decision-making and delivery of electricity. The Energy

White Paper of 1998 sets out six broad but inclusive energy policy goals in Namibia. The policy goals include socio-economic advancement-related issues. This includes good governance, sustainable delivery, investing in socio-economic development, affordability and accessibility of electricity resources in the country. Furthermore, the policy takes into account the importance of 'renewable energies' and the benefits that can be accumulated from such exercise in achieving energy related goals and aspirations in the country (Ministry Mines and Energy, 1998:3). Essentially, the above-mentioned goals are meant to inform the manner the Namibian government and its agencies manage the delivery of electricity in the country. It has to be noted that in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, electricity should be regarded as an essential commodity if the people's socio-economic wellbeing is to be effectively addressed. In Namibia, electricity serve as source of energy required for lighting, cooking, heating and production. Small and medium enterprises in rural areas can only prosper if their infrastructure is connected to electricity grid.

It was discussed earlier in this thesis that the achievement of independence in 1990 has resulted in reformation of public service and governance practices to regulate and guide service delivery. Traditionally, rural people in Namibia used to cut down trees and utilised woods as the source of lighting and cooking. However, after forestry was regulated and a law was promulgated thereof, chopping down trees was prohibited. This means that electricity becomes necessary to sustain rural people's way of life. Similarly, population size increase in rural areas has also created high demand for electricity and other services. In this respect, this study argues that electricity is no longer regarded as a luxury in Namibia. It is a basic service that is needed by every citizen in the country. Against the backdrop of above-mentioned explanation, the Namibian government should make effort to distribute and provide electricity to all corners of the country in order to improve people's quality of life. It will also allow the government to achieve its energy sector goals. The goals provided in the Energy White Paper of 1998 are outlined in the following table, - *figure 6.2*.

**Figure 6.2: Performance of electricity supply sector in Namibia**

| Energy Sector Objectives                | Features, Developments and Achievements   |
|---|---|
| Effective Governance                    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the ECB is firmly established, and regulates the electricity sector’s licensing and tariffs;</li> <li>• an Independent Power Producer framework is in place, since June 2009.</li> <li>• Five regional electricity distributors were established and three are fully operational.</li> <li>Electricity Regulations: Administrative, Electricity Act 2007 was effected.</li> <li>• NAMPOWER remains the country’s only supplier of electricity, and controls sector-wide developments through its trading and single-buyer functions.</li> </ul>  |
| Security of Supply                      | <p>new supply arrangements with Zimbabwe are in place and operational –however as long as the direct connection remains incomplete all loads are wheeled through South Africa which perpetuates Namibia’s dependence on a functioning South African transmission system;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the country’s transmission network is strengthened through the high voltage direct current (HVDC) connection to Zambia, which will reduce Namibia’s reliance on South African networks.</li> <li>• new supply agreements have been entered into with Eskom – these have diminished the advantages that Namibia had under previous arrangements.</li> </ul>  |
| Social upliftment                       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• rural electrification targets are well-defined, but access to sufficient funding, systematic implementation, socio-demographic changes and developments, changing social upliftment priorities and unplanned electrification activities remain the most important challenges.</li> <li>• a Solar Revolving Fund is in place and operational, but has a considerable backlog of applications due to financial constraints.</li> <li>• larger-scale off-grid electrification remains largely unaccomplished.</li> <li>• the viability of business models – underpinning the implementation of the off-grid energisation plan and rural energy shops – remains uncertain.</li> </ul>  |
| Investment and Growth                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• to date, investments in the electricity supply sector remain limited to those undertaken by NAMPOWER.</li> <li>• the HVDC connection to Zambia, at N\$ 3.2 billion, represents a most significant electricity sector investment.</li> <li>• investments in new generating capacity in Namibia remain limited to the addition of a 4<sup>th</sup> turbine at Ruacana.</li> <li>• generation licence applications for wind parks at Lüderitz and Walvis Bay have been received by the ECB. If built, these wind parks would represent the first larger-scale investment in the country’s electricity supply sector by an entity other than NAMPOWER.</li> <li>• the potential for the establishment of IPPs exists.</li> <li>• sector growth is driven by supply uncertainties and strong demand growth, especially from the mining sector and particularly those in Erongo region.</li> <li>• despite the prevailing constraints in the southern African power sector, few new sector entrants have established themselves – this is in part due to low regional electricity tariffs and the wider investment climate in the region.</li> </ul> |
| Economic Competitiveness and efficiency | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• electricity tariffs are cost-reflective from 2011/12,</li> <li>• Namibia’s energy intensity is and will remain high;</li> <li>• the considerable dependence on the constrained South African electricity supplies limits the local supply sector’s independence.</li> </ul>  |
| Sustainability                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• sector investments targeting transmission infrastructure are high;</li> <li>• regional dependence, especially on supply capacity, remains high;</li> <li>• commercial considerations and different partnership expectations continue to complicate the exploitation of the Kudu gas field;</li> <li>• no larger-scale investments in the development of local sustainable energy sources have been made to date, although considerable potential exist;</li> <li>• an envisaged coal-fired power station at Walvis Bay may undermine Namibia’s short- to medium-term prospects of attracting sizeable renewable energy sector investments, despite its significant resource base.</li> </ul>   |

*Source: Von Oertzen (2009:6-7); (Some aspects of the diagram was modified by the researcher to accommodate developments that took place in the Electricity Supply Industry since 2009).*

Although the above-outlined objectives are clear and appear implementable, sixteen years after the adoption of energy policy, some of the energy sector objectives are yet to be met. Social upliftment, economic competitiveness and efficiency as well as sustainability in the delivery of electricity and energy in Namibia still need to be realised. The challenge in this regard is attributed to limited resources and vastness of the country with sparsely populated rural areas. To this end, more still needs to be done to also include the previously disadvantaged communities into mainstream economic in terms of delivery of sustainable electricity in rural areas. Therefore, the government, particularly the Mines and Energy Ministry and other partners in the energy and electricity industry are still hard at work to realise and achieve some of the above-mentioned objectives. In particular, achievement of objectives related to social upliftment in rural areas is lagging behind. There is a huge backlog regarding rural electrification, and the accessibility and affordability thereof is the main problem.

Oertzen (2010:2) states that “although the Namibian government has done a lot and took electricity to most parts of the country, so far ‘only some 27%’ of rural people have been connected to electricity grid. According to Kapika and Eberhard (2010:8), “a notable challenge confronting countries like Namibia is the need to distribute electricity services and make it accessible and affordable to all people”. Kapika and Eberhard (2010:8) argue that what make it difficult for the electricity providers to deliver sufficient electricity in rural areas is limited financial resources. The annual subsidies given to electricity distributors by the central government are insufficient to achieve rural electrification objective. In Oertzen’s view, this makes Namibian National Development Plan targets unrealistic. Separately, NAMPOWER also provides a subsidy for rural electrification. For example, in the financial year 2012/2013 the sector only received N\$20 million, while N\$25 million was given during 2013/2014 fiscal year (NAMPOWER, 2014). However, as ECB revealed, such grant is not recovered through charges, hence, NAMPOWER absorbs, within itself, the burdens of mismatch in cost. Indeed, this shows an immense challenge the government of Namibia is facing in delivering electricity services to the people. Even though accessibility and affordability may not seem to be a governance issue, the way electricity distribution is planned and implemented across the country places governance in question. Allocation of electricity grids in communities need to be discussed with the affected people. Although they do not possess the technical know-how on electricity grids related issues, ordinary community members must be consulted and the benefit thereof should be explained to them. Lack of consultation and involvement of the people, especially in rural areas, may make

them feel left out and neglected in terms of socio-economic development. Therefore, it is important that if particular service cannot be provided due to lack of fund or any other reason, affected people should be informed accordingly.

Fundamentally so, economic considerations prohibit the country's complete electrification using the conventional electricity grid. The ECB (2013:11), in its Annual Report, acknowledges that reliable supply of affordable energy is critical for national development, hence, considered as a national security issue. For economic and social development to prosper across the country, strategic places such as schools, clinics, small business enterprises, and even rural homesteads should be electrified. However, despite millions of dollars that was spent on electrification projects as indicated earlier, only "25% of rural areas in Namibia is electrified" (Iita, 2012:3). In essence, this poses a challenge especially in terms of effective service delivery. This study argues that rural electrification is important to service delivery and improved living standard of the people in rural areas. However, the limited ability of ordinary people to afford paying for electricity and the limited state resources to supply electricity slows down rural electrification programme. Electricity is surely becoming a basic commodity that is needed to enhance people's living standard. It should be argued that if other laws such as nature conservation law prevent local people from cutting down trees, then electricity and gas are the only options for cooking and heating. However, even though the above-mentioned option is preferable, the means to achieve that intention might be limited to such an extent that it will take time before electricity reach the majority of rural homesteads. In this regard, the ECB Report further states that the "power supply situation is currently critical in Namibia, and is expected to remain as such until the Kudu Gas Power Plant comes on stream in 2018".

In short, the Kudu Gas Power Plant is an offshore gas field in Namibia, approximately 170 kilometres north-west from the diamond-mining town of Oranjemund. It was discovered in 1974. Therefore, this is an attempt to make sure that Namibia has the capacity to supply gas to her people to complement electricity supply in the country. This is confirmed by energy utilities in the country, which state that the current focus is on defining the Kudu gas field development, which could help to supplement electricity generation in the country in order to alleviate electricity shortage (National Petroleum Corporation of Namibia (NAMCOR), 2012 and NAMPOWER, 2012). Once the Kudu project is realised and operationalised it is expected to increase electricity supply which may have a trickle effect on rural electrification supply. Another option that the Namibian government can utilise to address the needs and demands for

electricity is the solar power energy. Although not really cheap per say, solar power energy can solve the problem of lack of electricity at sub-national levels, especially in rural areas. The solar power energy can be used to pump water from boreholes for both people and animals in rural areas. In essence, this is the most cost effective manner in which the Government of Republic of Namibia, through regional councils, can deliver affordable electricity services to ordinary members of the community.

Regarding governance and service delivery, this study noted that Namibia has a good regulatory framework for implementing electricity supply. The formulation of the Energy White Paper, the enactment of Electricity Act, the establishment of Electricity Control Board as well as the Regional Electricity Distributors demonstrate the commitment by Namibian government towards effective delivery of electricity to citizens (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1998:3; 2007:29; Electricity Control Board, 2009:2). However, as it was indicated earlier, limited resources, the vastness of the country and sparsely populated areas constrain effective supply of electricity, especially in rural areas pose a huge challenge. In essence, the above are notable challenges faced by Namibian government, NAMPOWER and Regional Electricity Distributors as well as local authorities. Compounding the above-mentioned problem is the fact that at present “Namibia does not have the capacity to generate sufficient electricity on her own” (Electricity Control Board, 2011; 2012 and 2013). In this respect, the ECB’s Annual Reports, reveal that Namibia has, over the past three years, imported high percentages of its electricity from other Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) countries such as South Africa, Zimbabwe and Zambia. Statistics show that in the year 2010/2011, 62% of electricity was imported, in 2011/2012, 60% of electricity was imported, and in 2012/2013, at least 62% of electricity was imported (Electricity Control Board, 2011:22; 2012:9 and 2013:23). Electricity importation contributes to high tariffs of electricity.

As was explained by the Electricity Control Board, high tariffs are attributed to high electricity cost. Lack of sufficient government subsidy makes it difficult for NAMPOWER to supply electricity to all corners of the country. Basically, this means that although electricity might be considered as the basic commodity, poor people especially those residing in rural areas may not afford electricity. Therefore, it is arguably justified when this study noted that rural people in Namibia especially in rural areas including those living in the Oshana Region have no access to electricity. In this respect, solar home power system can be a viable alternative to address the lack of electricity in Namibia, especially in rural areas.

The Electricity Control Board (2013:10) in its Annual Report shows that access to electricity in Namibia is about 45-50%, taking into account the fact that urban areas in Namibia are regarded as at least 78% electrified. In contrast electricity access in rural Namibia is at about 14%. Moreover, the Report notes that the cost of electricity in the country remains on the increase mainly because of steadily rising generation, transmission and distribution costs. Therefore, electricity consumers earning low-income and poor households in particular, face an increasing burden to pay for their basic energy needs (ECB, 2013:11). The ECB statement, again justifies earlier arguments that even if electricity has been distributed to specific points in rural areas as it was indicated above, homesteads in rural communities were left out, making this service inaccessible to the majority in rural communities. The question of accessibility and affordability *vis-a-vis* governance practices was discussed in chapter four of this study. The same also came out strongly through empirical evidence in chapter 5. To re-emphasise this point, the manner policy implementers plan, design, and implement government programmes may disadvantage the end users of services. Essentially, lack of prioritising results in poor planning which can adversely affect recipients of services.

Already in 1998, the Ministry of Mines and Energy noted that it is unlikely that the energy consumption patterns of rural people will undergo a simple transition from woodfuel, through commercial fuels like paraffin and liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), to electricity. This is due to a range of socio-economic and cultural factors, poor rural households are likely to continue to use fuels such as woodfuel, especially for cooking and heating. The Energy White Paper, therefore, argued that embarking on a single strategy, such as electrification or the promotion of fuel-efficient stoves, will not solve the energy problems facing rural people, in terms of electricity needs (Ministry of Mines and Energy, 1998:14). The above-mentioned trend continues in rural areas in Namibia. As it was indicated earlier, the majority of rural people cannot afford commercial electricity. Additionally, the Energy White Paper suggested that, “rural energy policies should attempt to meet the energy needs of rural people through a diverse range of strategies aimed at supporting the goals of social upliftment and rural development” (Ministry of Mines and Energy, 1998:14). Against the backlog, and based on the current electricity situation in Namibia, it is not wrong to suggest that more still needs to be done if electricity is to become accessible and affordable to the majority of the citizens in Namibia, especially at sub-national level. Through document review and analysis such as electricity laws, policies and ECB Annual Reports, this study noted continuous remarkable efforts by the government and other



stakeholders in the electricity supply industry to ensure good governance practices in order to avail electricity to all Namibians. The shortfall lies in the practical implementation of strategies put in place to deliver electricity to the people. This remains a huge challenge that needs to be addressed in order to improve livelihoods of rural people.

### **6.3.3 Health and Social Services**

At Namibia's independence the government took over a disorganised health and social services. There were eleven health administration and parallel programmes that was created and managed by Second Tier Authorities (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2008:18). Second Tier Authorities refer to formerly homelands administration. Under the Second Tier Authorities, health facilities were limited and the delivery of health services was very poor. People travelled long distances to receive medical treatment. Consequently, after independence the first priority of the new government was to integrate these 'Tiers', to form one consolidated health system. The process has culminated in the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS). The Ministry of Health and Social Services has constitutional mandate to perform and deliver health services to the people. In addition to providing and regulating both public and private health sectors, the ministry is also required to render quality health services, and ensure that such services are affordable, accessible and sustainable. (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2009:1). Significantly, the Namibian Constitution under Article 95 makes provision for promotion of the welfare of the people. It states that the "State shall actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people by adopting, *inter alia*, policies aimed at, amongst others, consistent planning to raise and maintain an acceptable level of nutrition and standard of living of the Namibian people and to improve public health" (Government of Republic of Namibia, 1990:45).

Arguably, the government, and in particular, the MoHSS bears the constitutional obligation to provide accessible and affordable health services to the people. As constitutional rights, health-related aspects should be addressed very seriously. In this regard, the government places more emphasis on availing sufficient resources to the MoHSS. Essentially, health services and facilities should be availed and provided to the people regardless of colour, race or ethnicity. This implies that good governance practices should be employed in order to deliver effective health services to the people including rural communities. However, the question that needs to be answered is whether the provision of the constitution and the intention and objectives of the

government are being realised. To add: Did the government via sub-national institutions put in place proper governance structures and practices to ensure effective delivery of health services to people in all constituencies on an equal basis? These questions are discussed in the subsequent section.

To make health accessible and sustainable, the MoHSS has adopted a policy on primary health care which provide for reformation of the entire public health sector in order to achieve equity through involving private sector, members of the community and other stakeholders (MoHSS, 2008:18). In essence, this can make health services affordable and accessible to all. According to MoHSS (2008:18), the adoption of the policy has fast-tracked public health reform. The creation of new structures provided an opportunity for the ministry to have in place new directorates. It has also noted that such new arrangements enabled the health sector to include the previously disadvantaged regions and provide health services to marginalised communities. In this regard, decentralisation of health services was the only viable option. Erection of health care centres and clinics in rural areas has been done to bring services closer to the people. The above-mentioned development and changes are expressed in the 1990 policy statement and consequently in the 1998 policy framework which define strategies, aims and objectives, as well as values of every sector of the Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS, 2008:2).

According to the Ministry of Health and Social Services (2008:98), “the availability of, design and physical layout of health care facilities as well as the presence of essential facilities within them goes a long way in assuring quality service delivery in Namibia”. In a country with a vast geographical area and a sparsely distributed population such as Namibia, therefore, the challenge of optimally providing health care facilities to meet increasing needs of the population is daunting. Despite the above, the Health and Social Services Systems Review conducted in 2008 revealed a shortage of health facilities in the country. In reality, this has negative implications in terms of availability and accessibility of health facilities especially in rural areas. This is further complicated by lack of devolution of health functions to sub-national levels of government. The number of population per health facility as indicated in *figure 6.3* hereunder confirms the above-mentioned deficit.

**Figure 6.3: Population per health facility**

| <b>Region</b>     | <b>Population per health facility</b> | <b>Area per fixed health facility (Sq. Km)</b> |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| Erongo            | 3589                                  | 1987   |
| Hardap            | 3843                                  | 6092   |
| !Karas            | 3698                                  | 8061   |
| Kavango           | 4586                                  | 3701   |
| Khomas            | 24996                                 | 3364   |
| Kunene            | 2697                                  | 4118   |
| Ohangwena         | 8036                                  | 336  |
| Omaheke           | 5921                                  | 6509   |
| Omusati           | 5031                                  | 542  |
| <b>Oshana</b>     | <b>11064</b>                          | <b>331</b>                                     |
| Oshikoto          | 8548                                  | 1841   |
| Otjozondjupa      | 7065                                  | 4781   |
| Zambezi           | 3009                                  | 501  |
| <b>Nationally</b> | <b>7083</b>                           | <b>3243</b>                                    |

*Source: MoHSS (2008:94): Health and Social Service Systems Review.*

As indicated earlier, Namibia has a backlog of health facilities resulted from the colonial manner of governance and service delivery. Despite the introduction of a sound health policy in 1998 and establishment of health facilities in the regions, the provision of health services remains a challenge. As can be seen in *figure 6.3*, in some regions in Namibia people requiring medical treatment continue to travel long distance to reach and access health facility. “On average, 40% of the patients travel between 11 and 20 km to access health facilities” (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2008:96). Even though the Health and Social Services Systems Review indicated that the Khomas, Oshana and Otjozondjupa Regions have 50% of their population living less than 5 km from health facilities (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2008:96), the number of population per health facility is considerably very high. This study, therefore, argues that health facilities in the above-mentioned regions may be overcrowded on a daily basis, resulting in people not getting the required medical treatment. Similarly, lack of personnel capacity at health facilities in Namibia needs to be addressed. In this regard, effective implementation of the Health Strategic Plan 2009-2013 could have addressed issues such as staff shortage and training.

Consequently, this leads to poor service delivery to the people. In the Oshana Region in particular, 11064 people residing in an area covering 331 kilometres square use one health facility. It should be noted that the Oshana Region has no sufficient road networks. Constituencies such as Okatjali and Uuvudhiya have no proper road networks at all. This indicates that people in those constituencies find it difficult to reach and access health facilities. As it was indicated earlier in this section, addressing health-related issues particularly the provision of health facilities in the proximity of people will solve the problem of accessibility and eventual reduce traveling distances. It can also improve people's health conditions, make medical treatment accessible, and subsequently make Namibia's Vision 2030 a reality. This study has taken note of the government effort to address health services in the country. The Health and Social Service Systems Review of 2008 was adopted culminated into the crafting and implementation of Health Strategic Plan 2009-2013. The review put forward recommendations on how to improve various areas of health governance and service delivery. These recommendations include, amongst others, "the extension of the health services into communities, construction and renovation of health infrastructure and facilities, establishment of community based health care providers as the lowest level of health services delivery in collaboration with Regional Councils and develop a clear policy on health promotion" (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2008:4, 13 and 90).

It has to be mentioned that the Health Strategic Plan is an attempt by the MoHSS to improve governance of health and social services, and to improve the delivery of service to the people. It also serves as a guiding strategy and operational document for a five-year period. According to Ministry of Health and Social Services (2009:2) the Strategic Plan "articulates and sets out the key strategic objectives, activities and resources necessary to successfully effect the planned organisational transformation and to imbed the balanced scorecard as the tool of strategy implementation for transforming the Ministry of Health and Social Services into a leading public provider of quality health and social welfare services in Africa". Basically, this is a good ambition by the ministry. Good governance practices, resources and implementing capability are needed to realise this dream.

The Ministry of Health and Social Services (2009:2) maintained that the strategic plan is associated and lined up with national interventions expressed in the Manifesto of SWAPO, National Development Plans, Millennium Development Goals and Namibian Vision 2030. Moreover, the connection of the strategic plan to the national goals is intended to not only foster

collaboration with other equally important national programmes but also to optimise public resources involved in the development of a healthy Namibian nation. Now that the timeframe of the above-mentioned strategic plan has ended, it is essential to review the operations and services by the ministry to determine the extent to which such strategy has been implemented and the registered success. Basically, this will inform the dimensions the subsequent strategic plan will assume.

**Figure 6.4: Ministry of Health and Social Services Strategic Themes and Objectives**

| <b>Strategic theme</b>                           | <b>Objectives</b>   |
|--|---|
| <b>Provision of Service</b>                      | Stakeholder relation improvement and co-ordination. • Decrease Malnutrition • Reduce rates of mortality and morbidity • Reorganise and synchronise incoherent programs/functions/services • Emphasis on main functions • Fleet and waste management improvement • Deliver sufficient, organised and formalised services in communities • Ensure effective and quick response to disasters • Put into effect feasible Performance Management System. |
| <b>Human Resources Management</b>                | Improve conditions of service for health and social services workers • Ensure adequate and appropriate staff complement and strength • Improve staff morale • Create a skilled work force • Devolve levels of decision making to appropriate levels.  |
| <b>Infrastructure development and Management</b> | Ensure proper management of infrastructure and equipment • Improve health facilities to be responsive to emerging needs • Provide a minimum district service package (MDSP).  |
| <b>Governance</b>                                | Ensure responsive legislation and policies • Implement efficient and effective contract management system • Strengthen the stewardship role of the MoHSS • Ensure implementation of the MOHSS Strategic Plan • Improve Information Management system • Improve the procurement and payment system.  |
| <b>Financial Management</b>                      | Improve financial management • Ensure capital formation make - up at least 10% of MOHSS total budget • Ensure equitable and efficient allocation of resources among the ministry's directorates.  |

*Source: Ministry of Health and Social Services (2009:5): Strategic Plan 2009-2013.*

The above-mentioned strategic plan themes and objectives illustrate the ministry's high priorities, consideration and seriousness of purpose to deliver quality, accessible, affordable and sustainable health services to people including those in rural areas in the Oshana Region. Needless to say, the Ministry's Strategic Plan also highlighted the responsibility and expectations

of each stakeholder, and the roles they should play in realising health services' goals and objectives (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2009:31-36). In particular, Strategic Plan theme on the provision of service focuses on "core functions, streamline the fragmented services/programmes/functions, improve waste management, improve fleet management, and improve performance management procedures and systems and other service delivery instruments". Similarly, strategic plan theme on governance seeks to address problems of "inadequate and inappropriate information and communication technologies coordination, delayed payment of suppliers, poor record keeping, poor communication and co-ordination, bureaucracy, outdated legislation, policies, guidelines and a lack of a well-defined strategic plan" (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2009:4). Fundamentally, the above-mentioned initiatives are regarded as conducive to better governance and service delivery, or as the ministry termed it, they are critical to 'health for all' (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2008:iii).

As was indicated earlier in this section, the government has crafted and adopted laws and policies related to health governance and health services provision. Also, health reforms that have been introduced since independence in 1990 have made a significant impact towards improvements of health services in all regions in the country. Construction of health facilities such as hospitals, healthcare centres and clinics at sub-national levels provided relief to the people, especially to the previously marginalised communities in terms of health service delivery. During the 2012/2013 financial year 69 health facilities including hospitals, health centres and clinics were renovated and upgraded country wide (Ministry of Health and Social Services, 2013:22). This is in addition to 190 health facilities that were constructed and renovated respectively since Namibia's independence in 1990 (Ministry of Health Social Services, 2008:100). Although the Government of Republic of Namibia made good stride to address health care in the country, such effort is however constrained by factors such as the vastness of the country's geographical area, limited financial resources and lack of human resources capacity. Basically, the above-mentioned factors impact directly on governance practices and eventually effective health service delivery. In relations to the above-mentioned exposition, the government singles out health financing, access to health services, availability of health professionals, governance and HIV/AIDS and TB as the main challenges faced by the MoHSS in particular and the Namibian government in general (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2012:55-56). To this end, this study suggests that the ministry should do more with the resources it receives every financial year from the national budget in order to improve the living standard of the people. Improper planning and poor programme implementation result in money

returning to treasury. In fact, this is a governance issues which eventually denied the people the much needed basic services. During the 2012/2013 financial year, it was revealed through audited reports that various government ministries in Namibia have failed to spend a combine amount of N\$1.2 billion and return such amount to treasury (Shinovene, 2013:1). Shinovene further indicated that the Ministry of Health and Social Services returned about N\$53 million back to treasury

When tabled the Appropriation Bill in Parliament on 19 February 2014, the Minister of Finance, Honourable Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila stated that, “funding to the health sector is increased to N\$18.9 billion over the Middle Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF), with N\$6.01 billion allocated for 2014/15 to address, amongst others, the development and upgrading of health facilities across the country, acquisition of health equipment and supplies and the recruitment and training of medical personnel” (Ministry of Finance, 2014:30). This represents 20% of the total national budget. Similarly, the government acknowledged that decrease in funding by development partners to the health sector has had negative implications on health service delivery (Government of Republic of Namibia (2013:6). Essentially, this is an acknowledgement that the delivery of health services is one of the priorities and important function that can negatively impact on life of all people if not properly addressed.

#### **6.3.4 Housing services**

The study found that housing is a basic form of essential shelter needed by every individual in society. The kind of housing people live in determine the standard of living of a particular community. The problem of housing in Namibia started way back before independence. In this regard, the new Namibian government inherited a very unequal pattern of settlement due to policies of discrimination practiced by the colonial regime of South Africa (Sweeney-Bindels, 2012:6). Due to policy of divide and rule formal housing was not accessible to black people. This has contributed to poor housing condition and housing backlog particularly in areas designated for black people which continue until now. Furthermore, Sweeney-Bindels (2012:6) states that after independence, migration to urban areas has increased unabatedly the trend that aggravated housing situation. Against the backdrop, the Namibian government identified housing as one of the priority areas in addressing social injustice. According to Sweeney-Bindels (2012:6) the appalling housing trend in the country culminated in the adoption of the National Housing Policy as per Cabinet approval in 1991. In addition, the National Housing Enterprise

Act 5 of 1993, and the National Housing Development Act 28 of 2000 were promulgated to serve as operational frameworks to regulate housing activities. In particular, the 1991 housing policy, which was again reviewed in 2009, provides for the role of the government and relevant stakeholders in ensuring the provision of affordable housing to the people in Namibia. The policy provides for housing development mechanisms that allow opportunity to access land and effective housing delivery (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:4).

The adoption of the National Housing Policy demonstrated the government's commitment to delivery of housing (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2008:99). Basically, the policy objective is to provide conducive environment to enable every citizen to acquire housing in accordance with his/her need, priority and affordability. Furthermore, the policy states that the government should provide support for families to realise their own shelter. (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2008:99). In this regard, the Namibian government recognised that, "the delivery of better housing to citizens is a major challenge due to economic factors such as poverty, unemployment, high housing price as well as lack of serviced land (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2013:7). The government responsibility involves putting in place regulatory frameworks to promote access to housing by majority of people. Therefore, without appropriate intervention by government the majority of people will continue to living under deplorable housing conditions.

In this regard, various housing programmes have been established and implemented to provide several options for people to acquire housing. The programmes include Build Together Programme, National Housing Enterprise, and Habitat Research and Development Centre. Even if the above-mentioned programmes have made it possible for previously disadvantaged people who had no access to finance to acquire and own formal houses, the Namibian government recognised the challenges it faces in realising targets concerning housing delivery. This is demonstrated in government policy documents such as NDPs and Vision 2030 (Sweeney-Bindels, 2012:6). In essence, the above-mentioned programmes contributed to provision of modern but yet affordable housing. It must be noted that afore-mentioned housing frameworks and programmes do not mean that all Namibians have access to formal housing. Acute shortage of housing continues to persist in Namibia especially at sub-national levels where the majority of people live. This is due to housing backlog that existed prior to and continue after Namibia's independence. The majority of inhabitants in Ondangwa, Oshakati and Ongwediva towns in the



Oshana Region continue to live in incongruous housing structures generally known as shacks. The Population and Housing Census conducted in 2011 indicates that 2661 households of people in urban areas in the Oshana Region live in improvised housing units called shacks (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2011:367). This situation needs the attention of the above mentioned town councils and the government respectively in addressing the plight of urban people, and provides them with more affordable, yet acceptable housing.

**Figure 6.5: Policies and regulations related to housing in Namibia**

| General policies linked to housing   | Year | Legislation/Policy                          | Key elements  |
|--------------------------------------|------|---|---|
| Namibia's National Development Plans | 1991 | National housing Policy                     | Stating Government of Republic of Namibia's commitment to address housing needs.                                      |
|                                      | 1992 | Regional Councils Act/Local Authorities Act | Establishment of housing schemes by a regional council, a municipal or town council with the approval of the Minister |
| Millennium Development Goals         | 1993 | National Housing Enterprise Act             | Governs the operations of the National Housing Enterprise   |
| Namibia Vision 2030                  | 2000 | National Housing Development Act            | Establishes National Housing Advisory Committee, housing revolving funds, established Build Together                  |
|                                      | 2009 | National Housing Policy (Reviewed)          |   |

*Source: Sweeney-Bindels (2012:10)*

Figure 6.5 depicts the government's initiatives and programmes regarding the delivery of housing since independence in 1990. It reveals tremendous efforts in creating well regulatory environment through which housing needs in Namibia are addressed. The White Paper on Housing of 1990 led to the crafting of the National Housing Policy in 1991. Due to shortfalls experienced in the process of implementing this policy, it was then reviewed in 2009 in order to address specific shortcomings that were identified during the implementation. One of these shortcomings was that the housing policy of 1991 made no provision for housing function decentralisation, a trend that placed regional and local authorities in a disadvantaged position (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:7).

Therefore, to effectively address the problem of housing the policy needs to take into account various aspects related to equitable delivery of housing. The Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development (2009:16-17) indicates that an inclusive housing policy needs to emphasise the following:

### **National Housing goal**

The provision of effective housing should underline the principles of equality, holistic, sustainability and unified development, which focus on good governance practices and people-centred. The goal should aim at providing housing both in urban and rural areas. In this respect, the goal should promote sustainable living and bridging the gap between rural and urban areas in terms of housing delivery. However, for this goal to be met, private sector and community-based housing development agencies should be involved. In other words, public-private partnership is indispensable in realising housing delivery goal.

### **Targets and commitments**

To realise the objective of effective housing delivery, targets should be set. This enables housing providers to direct their efforts towards set targets. In this regard, the national development plans and national habitat plans specify housing outputs to be achieved by every housing institution for a specific given period. Basically, set targets serve to guide housing providers to focus and commit their efforts and resources towards delivery of housing in order to achieve national development plans and eventually realise Vision 2030.

### **Principles of housing policy**

These housing values are the basis of the government's strategy toward the delivery of improved housing in the country. The principles include but not limited to effective cooperation and coordination among stakeholders to ensure that the goal of housing delivery is successful attained. It requires public-private partnership in order to guarantee equity, affordability, financial feasibility and sustainability (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:17). In essence, government, as the main stakeholders, provides substantial amount of money to ensure practical delivery of housing in the country. As can be seen, housing policy principles are essential to the implementation of the National Housing Policy. Therefore, the above-mentioned values need to be embraced by all role-players if equitable and affordable housing are to be provided.

In broader terms, the study found that the National Housing Policy addresses a wide range of social and economic issues. Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development (2009:18) identifies two main aspects that can be addressed to improve housing situation in the country. Firstly, the delivery of housing must be made accessible and affordable to the majority of Namibian people; and secondly, “attempts by numerous housing providers require a harmonised approach and proper regulation to come up with an effective strategy of housing provision in the country. The same sentiment was echoed through empirical evidence which is a clearly sign that even if the government and its agencies are doing the best they can to deliver houses, more still needs to be done. In essence, this denotes that the delivery of housing is constrained by various factors which should be addressed through collaborative efforts among relevant stakeholders.

In the Namibian context, the delivery of formal housing is not the responsibility of the government alone. The National Housing Policy spells out a number of role players in the provision of housing and housing needs. In addition, the policy stipulates that individual sector’s obligation in ensuring the delivery of equitable and affordable housing to the people of Namibia. In other words, each stakeholder has a significant role to play in both the delivery and financing of housing. For example, the MRLGHRD is responsible to craft and promote user friendly legislation to ensure effective implementation of housing strategies. Furthermore, it sets achievable national housing provision objectives that support regional and local institutions’ goals in their attempt to facilitate housing delivery. Lastly, the MRLGHRD establishes a financing framework that also includes funding formula and national subsidy programme, and guidelines on realistic restructuring of settlements, villages, cities and towns (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:10). Similarly, the study found that the National Planning Commission (NPC), as government institution plays a crucial part in ensuring that needed “financial resources and technical support” are mobilised from development partners to realise housing delivery (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:11). The above-mentioned mechanisms and coordination are essential to support effort to provide sustainable housing.

From the above, it is important to note that National Housing Policy recognises the effort of various stakeholders in addressing housing needs. For housing to be provided appropriate land tenure system should exist. In other words, Namibia needs to have in place flexible land tenure in order to accelerate housing development in the country. Flexible land tenure should go

beyond the mere acquisition of land by individuals, families and communities. It includes easy access of land and affordability of such land. It means equitable distribution of land to all citizens including the previously disadvantaged rural people. It is the responsibility of the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement. Flexible land tenure means local authorities have to acquire land and service it to enable providers to deliver housing to the people. This can also provide an opportunity for rural communities to acquire land and erect their homesteads. Particularly at sub-national levels, the Regional Land Boards play an important role in allocating and managing land rights in rural areas. This promotes “the country’s effort to pursue rural leasehold land tenure system” (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:11). To realise improved and sustainable housing there is need for good governance practices by Regional Councils and Local Authorities if housing is to be provided at large scale. Proper planning and effective regulation should be put in place to develop, provide and sustain land usage without necessarily damage public environment (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:10). In essence, proper town planning needs to take place to allow large surface of land to be serviced. Residents of towns should be educated to understand local authorities’ regulations that are guiding land acquisition and housing delivery. Regional councils should work in close contact with traditional leaders to make sure that the land in rural areas is sold and leased as prescribed by the law.

Central to affordable housing services delivery in Namibia is the National Housing Enterprise (NHE), a state owned enterprise, established by an Act of Parliament, National Housing Enterprise Act 5 of 1993. This state agency “promotes home ownership by means housing project development and provision of credit facilities in the form of housing loans to low- and middle-income households” (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:11). Sweeney-Bindels (2012:16) states that “NHE is a parastatal of the Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development which acts as a lending institution as well as a developer in the field of affordable housing”. In the White Paper on Housing referred to earlier, it is stated that “NHE shall, in collaboration with regional councils, implement a rural housing development programme, in addition to undertaking housing development projects in urban centres of Namibia” (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:11). To achieve the above-mentioned objective NHE should employ partnerships approach with local and regional authorities. This can accelerate the delivery of service infrastructure and consequently access to land and housing

by the majority of Namibian people (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:11).

Another initiative to delivery housing services in Namibia is the Decentralized Build Together Programme (BTP), better known as “Build Together”. The programme is an initiative by both regional councils and local authorities. With the help of MRLGHRD, small amount of money is given to organised but previously marginalised groups in communities who do not qualify for loans provided by NHE and commercial banking institutions. The beneficiaries use the money to build houses as a group. These groups are also required to supplement such credit to ensure successful completion of build together houses. Build Together Programme also “assists to upgrade informal settlements and other special housing projects and schemes, and renders technical services to local authorities and regional councils in order to deliver BTP activities efficient” (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2009:11). Statistics by the MRLGHRD indicates that “for the period 1990 until 2011 the Government of Republic of Namibia budgeted N\$908 million for Build Together programmes. This resulted in 26 672 low cost housing units built and completed (Sweeney-Bindels, 2012:17). However, the lack of information on the amount of money allocated to Build Together programmes per year and the number of housing units delivery per annum makes it impractical for this study to determine the effectiveness of the above-mentioned programme.

Other initiatives put in place to deliver housing services are Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia (SDFN), the Namibia Housing Action Group (NHAG) and other NGO’s as well as private sectors. The SDFN refers to a group of low income people who save money to build houses for themselves. The challenge with this federation is that the majority of members are street vendors and they have very limited income. In this regard, it takes time to build a house because financial contribution by members is also minimal. Against the above-mentioned exposition, it is clear that the responsibility of providing housing in Namibia cut across various sectors of society. Each sector has specific responsibility and targets.

Although notable efforts have been made by the government since independence in 1990 to ensure delivery of equitable and affordable housing, twenty years since the implementation of the National Housing Policy a huge backlog of housing still exist in Namibia. The demands for formal housing exceed the current supply. Sweeney-Bindels (2012:7), Government of Republic of Namibia (2008:89) indicate that the present backlog is projected to be over 80 000 houses.

This backlog is divided between different income groups. For example, “in the lower income category the backlog is 45000 houses, the middle income is about 30000 houses while in the high income category the backlog is about 4700 houses”. It is also important to note that the housing backlog situation is more critical in urban areas than in rural areas. Significantly, the above-mentioned housing situation poses challenges towards attaining NDPs, Millennium Development Goals and Vision 2030. The government puts Vision 2030’s targets at 300 000 houses. However, this target can only be achieved if at least 12 000 low income houses are built per year. (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2008:73). The current pace of housing delivery at which only between “253 to 600 housing units per year” (Sweeney-Bindels, 2012:18) are delivered will neither meet national development plan goals nor realise Vision 2030.

The question is whether this is practical, taking into account the resources at government disposal. It requires a comprehensive reform of the housing sectors in society to increase resources and the capacity to meet people’s demands in terms of delivery of housing. This study agrees with the statement by the government that, “improving housing conditions for all Namibians including rural communities have a positive impact on social and economic development of the country” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2008:99). Therefore, to realise this, it requires governance structures to be strengthened and good governance practices to be applied. As discussed earlier in this chapter, to strengthen governance structures implies that government functions and services are devolved to sub-national levels. In addition, capacities in all areas of governance such institutions, human and financial resources need to be built. This in fact can contribute to effective service delivery including the delivery of housing to rural communities. The delivery of housing is impeded by the “lack of technical skills and educational institutions offering courses in architecture, quantity surveying and engineering, rapid urbanisation, and high interest rates” (Government of Republic of Namibia (2008:100). In the same vein, in the NDP4 document, it was noted that “the deficiency of appropriate funding mechanisms as the bottlenecks for lack of houses in the low-income bracket” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2012:77).

Finally, it must be noted that the provision of affordable housing poses a huge challenge. This study argues that there is a mismatch between demand and supply of housing in the Namibian context. In other words, the delivery of housing does not meet the current needs of the people. This situation, if not properly addressed will continue to put pressure on the government and other stakeholders in the housing delivery. Limited housing statistics, scarce financial resources,

lack of space and serviced land are some of the notable obstacles that hinder effective delivery of housing in order to reduce the backlog pointed out earlier in this chapter. People with low income cannot afford to buy houses if the current situation is not addressed. Therefore, the Government of the Republic of Namibia needs to encourage relevant stakeholders to provide thus place further demands on the government to provide affordable housing units.

### **6.3.5 Education services**

Education is the backbone of any society in terms of promoting social and economic development. Education can contribute to improved social welfare and enhance the living standard in society. Prior to independence, the education system was based on racial and ethnic lines due to colonial rules. The majority of Namibian people were denied good education. For example, “European Missionaries established schools in South West Africa that only teach how to read religious literature in order to facilitate the spread of gospel” (Shilongo, 2004:1). This was also used by the Germans who later created an education system based on reserves. When the former apartheid regime of South Africa assumed control of Namibia in 1914, reserves were transformed into Bantustan or homelands education system, specifically meant for black people (Shilongo, 2004:1). Significantly to note is that the above explanation means that different educational systems and governance were designed and applied along racial lines. In other words, whites, coloureds and blacks had separate schools that were administered by ethnically-based education departments. Shilongo (2004:1) explained that whites received a good education, while blacks received the most inferior education. Coloured education was better than that of blacks, but inferior to that of the whites. Against the above-mentioned exposition, it is fair to argue that the colonial legacy has an impact on the current state of education in Namibia. It resulted in a dramatic disparities and inequalities in education system which are now affecting existing governance practices.

One of the challenges faced by the new Namibian government at independence was to create a consolidated quality education system (Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, 2004:3). Following independence, education became the responsibility of the Ministry of Education “to carry out all-embracing reform strategy to provide for quality, equity, access, efficiency and democratic and lifelong learning. The objective was to invest in human resources capable of promoting socio-economic advancement (Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, 2004:3).

Section 20 of the Namibian Constitution states that, “*all persons have the right to education, and that primary education will be compulsory and the state shall provide reasonable facilities to render effective this right for every resident within Namibia, by establishing and maintaining State schools at which primary education will be provided free of charge*”. This confirms government’s constitutional responsibility to create a conducive environment in which all people will have access to educational services.

To put into effect the above-mentioned constitutional provisions, the Education Act 16 of 2001 was enacted. The Education Act provides for the following objectives:

- Democratic educational services which is of high quality, impartial and accessible to all;
- Establishment of various but relevant institutions and bodies to regulate the education system, be it at national or sub-national levels;
- Set up public and private schools and hostels;
- Establish the code of conduct for teaching profession; and
- Establish the education committee.

Burton, Leoschut and Popovac (2011:8-9) argue that, “Namibia developed specific policies to ensure that marginalised children are provided with education, specifically children in rural areas, street children, orphans and vulnerable children, children of farm workers, children in squatter areas and resettlement camps, children of families living in extreme poverty and children with disabilities”. This means that education must be made accessible to all persons in Namibia regardless of colour, race or status in society. Other policies that also have an impact on education in Namibia are the National development Plans (NDPs) and the Namibia’ Vision 2030. These policies guide the ministry and stakeholders on the manner and strategies relevant in achieving educational goals. It must, however, be mentioned that since the inception of independence in 1990, Namibian government has invested tremendously in the education and training sector. Robust reform was carried out. Former Bantustan education systems were integrated into one democratic education system which caters for all people on an equal basis. More importantly, education is regarded as one of the fundamental human rights that are inalienable. The sector also “receives the lion’s share of the national budget annually” (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2013:46). In other words, education division takes the biggest portion of the national budget. Ministry of Finance (2012:29; 2013:29) states that, “education received 23.6% and 23.7% of the national budget respectively”. “In the 2014/15



financial year, education received 22.7% of the total budget which is the largest share of the budget in comparison to other sectors of government” (Ministry of Finance, 2014:30). Ipinge (2001:4) confirms the above-mentioned allocation, adding that “in comparison to other countries in SADC and elsewhere around the world, Namibia dedicated a huge part of its fiscal resources to education on annually basis. This demonstrates the high priority and significance the Namibian government attached on education.

However, although the Education Ministry received a lion share from the national budget every financial year, this study found that public education sectors’ performance remain under par in comparison with the resources it received. It is tempting to say that the Namibian education system still needs improvement in terms of providing sufficient education facilities to accommodate all school-going age children, and to reduce classroom overcrowding as well as learner-teacher ratio. School enrolment rate has risen since independence in 1990. For example, “from 2010 to 2012 the primary school enrolment rate increased from 98.5% to 99.7% while secondary education enrolment also increased from 55.7% to 57.8% in the same period” (Ministry of Education, 2013:1). This indicates that the Namibian government needs to do something to cater for the high increase in student enrolment. Furthermore, the passing rate at both junior secondary and senior secondary remain a matter of concern. Large number of learners does not qualify to study at tertiary institutions due to poor grading. Despite the above-mentioned indications, Namibia continues to have lack of educational facilities and lack of qualified teachers. Basically, this implies that increase in enrolment rate has a negative effect on learner-teacher ratio and classroom overcrowdings. Thus, it is necessary for the Government of Republic of Namibia to address these issues by providing sufficient education facilities and training of teachers. In addition, the Ministry of Education should introduce and implement incentives in rural areas in order to attract qualified teachers to teach at rural schools.

Notwithstanding the above, this study found that the Namibian government has recognised a wide-spread sentiment among citizens that the education system remains underperforming by international standards, as situation that need swift intervention (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2013:46). Literature analysis and empirical evidence confirm the above-mentioned view. Business and industries have on numerous occasions raised concern regarding the employability of graduates. A number of politicians and administrative officials raised concern on the same issue. Furthermore, now and again speeches and addresses by the above-mentioned stakeholders and individuals emphasised the importance of education in relations to social and

economic development, saying the education system in the country should be strengthened. It was noted that numerous contributions by stakeholders whether in kind or material are geared toward improved education system in Namibia. Despite various efforts being made, the study found that there are many challenges still exist which need to be addressed. According to Government of Republic of Namibia (2013:46), amongst others, the challenges are related to improving the quality of education, providing sustainable infrastructure and improving and diversifying communication and information technology.

While significant progress has been made over the past 23 years of independence, more need to be done to increase accessibility to education and improve its quality. It is discussed in this section that some citizens, especially rural communities continue to travel long distances to reach the nearest school. Lack of classrooms has also been noted as huge concern to rural communities. Empirical evidence demonstrated that community members, though appreciated the government stance on education, they are concerned with manner education facilities are availed and distributed particularly in rural areas. This has contributed to poor access to educational services. It was stated earlier, it requires not only sufficient funds, but also the active involvement of all stakeholders in education to address the lack of classrooms and to reduce learners traveling distance. In this regard, on-going educational reform is needed to address inequality and shortfalls that face the educational system in Namibia. Education and training are direct transfer of skills; hence, it is imperative that public officials should put in place strategies to ensure that sufficient education facilities are provided to increase access to education. Fundamentally, the challenge related to education is that education is a long-term investment, of which the benefits cannot be realised overnight. Against the backdrop of the above exposition, it requires sustained expenditure in terms of money and time. This places a financial burden on both public and private sector in Namibia which is not likely to disappear within a short space of time. In this regard, the study found that accountability is an important factor to ensure that the resources are utilised as anticipated and that such investment produces the planned results (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2013:46). Significantly, this is governance issue. Good governance ensures that the government carry out proper analysis and put in place workable strategies to address problems facing the education system. These strategies include the introduction and application of good governance practices in the public sector, ensuring accountability regarding public officials' performance and the way they use of state resources, and the promotion of active participation of all stakeholders in education. If the above-

mentioned strategies are implemented it can address the problems of service delivery in the education system.

Various educational reforms were initiated and implemented respectively since the inception of Namibia's independence in 1990. One such reform is the Education and Training Sector Improvement Performance (ETSIP). ETSIP indicates the contribution by the Ministry of Education toward realising Vision 2030 regarding education and training. The main rationale behind ETSIP is to improve the education sector's support toward achieving NDP goals, and guarantee a knowledge-based society (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2007:2). It is envisaged that in instantaneous future, the strategy can contribute to improved quality of skilled labour needed for improved knowledge-driven output growth, therefore, stimulate the country's economic development. By adopting a pro-poor approach to the distribution of opportunities for high quality and market responsive education and training opportunities, ETSIP will also contribute directly to the attainment of equitable social development" (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2007:2). Furthermore, ETSIP is premised on an understanding that a poor training and education structure cannot realise intended and specific development objectives (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2007:2). In essence, ETSIP signifies a continued effort by the education sector, based on a medium-term calculated strategy adopted by the Namibian Government in 2005. To achieve this goal, ETSIP was phased in during the financial 2006/07 and ended in 2010/11 financial year. It was implemented in a three five-year terms, which ran concurrently with the Third National Development Plan (NDP3). According to the Government of Republic of Namibia, 2007:2) it is an all-inclusive sector-wide strategy aimed at addressing the following educational issues:

- early childhood development and pre-primary education;
- general education;
- vocational education and training;
- tertiary education and training;
- knowledge and innovation; and,
- information, adult and lifelong learning.

The above-mentioned sector's sub-programmes and their policy objectives are explained in *figure 6.6* hereunder. It must be noted that the purpose of this section is not necessarily intended at reviewing the performance of the ETSIP programme as such, but it is to demonstrate that strategies are in place to improve the education system in Namibia. What is required is to adopt and apply good governance practices in order to enhance service delivery. The ETSIP objectives are unattainable in the absence well functioned and properly coordinated public service. The success of the education sector is influenced by achievement of goals by other public institutions. For example, if the Ministry of Health and Social Services failed to deliver on primary health care, then early childhood development and pre-primary education programme may also fail. Equally, if the line ministries are hesitant to decentralise services such as sanitation and clean water, the performance of schools especially in rural areas will be negatively affected. Significantly, the ETSIP programme objectives can help in understanding and contextualising governance practice and what the education sector should do to address service delivery challenges facing the education system in Namibia.

**Figure: 6.6: ETSIP strategic objectives by sub-programme and order of priority**

| Sub-Programme  | Policy Objectives                        |  |   |   |   |
|--|--|--|---|---|---|
|  | 1 <sup>st</sup>                          | 2 <sup>nd</sup>                          | 3 <sup>rd</sup>                                     | 4 <sup>th</sup>                                     | 5 <sup>th</sup>                                     |
| <b>Early Childhood Development and Pre-Primary Education</b> | Delivery capacity and management         | Effectiveness/ Quality                   | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization | Access and Equity                                   |   |
| <b>General Education</b>                                     | Effectiveness/ Quality                   | Access and Equity                        | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization | Delivery capacity and management                    | Development relevance and Responsiveness            |
| <b>Vocational Education and Training</b>                     | Delivery capacity and management         | Effectiveness/ Quality                   | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization | Development relevance and Responsiveness            | Access and Equity                                   |
| <b>Tertiary Education and Training</b>                       | Delivery capacity and management         | Development relevance and Responsiveness | Effectiveness/ Quality                              | Access and Equity                                   | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization |
| <b>Adult Education and Lifelong Learning</b>                 | Development relevance and Responsiveness | Delivery capacity and management         | Effectiveness/ Quality                              | Access and Equity                                   | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization |
| <b>HIV and AIDS</b>  | Delivery capacity and management         | Development relevance and Responsiveness | Access and Equity                                   | Effectiveness/Quality                               | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization |
| <b>ICTs in education</b>                                     | Delivery capacity and management         | Development relevance and Responsiveness | Effectiveness/ Quality                              | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization | Access and Equity                                   |
| <b>Knowledge creation and innovation</b>                     | Development relevance and Responsiveness | Delivery capacity and management         | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization | Effectiveness/ Quality                              |   |
| <b>Capacity Development</b>                                  | Delivery capacity and management         | Effectiveness/ Quality                   | Development relevance and Responsiveness            | Efficiency of resource mobilization and utilization | Access and Equity                                   |

*Source: Republic of Namibia (2007:5); Critical [Education] Sector Priority*

It is not the purpose of this study to analyse each of the above-mentioned sub-programmes' performance or the extent to what they have been achieved so far. However, this study has found and noted a significant achievement in primary, secondary, and tertiary level of education since independence in 1990. The above-cited sub-programmes and policy objectives are illustration of the ministry's notable effort toward improved education system, amidst many challenges the sector faces. This study, therefore, maintains that it is necessary to promote good governance practices in order to improve service delivery in the education sector. However, as literature review and empirical evidence revealed stakeholder involvement is needed to accelerate the process. Better governance practices must be implemented to enable citizens to reap the benefit.

The establishment of educational resources centres and introduction of mobile libraries in the Oshana, Ohangwena and Omaheke Regions respectively are commendable efforts made by education sector to make educational services accessible to the majority of the people including the rural communities. As was stated earlier, collaboration and cooperation with other stakeholders can realise government objectives. In this regard, the Ministry of Education sought the assistance of the Millennium Challenge Account Namibia (MCA) to deliver the above-mentioned services to "improving the quality of general education" in the country. The central question here is how those resources centres should operate and what needs to be done to ensure that they benefit the majority of the rural communities. What mechanisms should be introduced to promote the use of educational facility centres by the ordinary members of the community? Again, this is an issue of governance and proper management of public resources by public officials. The Ministry of Education officials play an important role if the above-mentioned educational resources centres and mobile libraries are to succeed in disseminating such much needed information to members of the community in rural areas. This study, therefore, suggests that the Ministry of Education should construct community educational resources centres and provide mobile libraries in all fourteen Regions in Namibia. In essence, if that happen, it provides an opportunity for members of the community to have easy access to quality educational related information, therefore, contribute to effective service delivery.

As provided for in the Education Act 16 of 2011, "the rationale is to achieve equity, quality, efficiency and democracy in Namibia's education system" (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2011:4). In this respect, the above can be realised if government decentralises all education functions and decision making including financial resources. ETSIP is a 15 year strategic planning which started in 2005 and will end in 2020. Almost ten years after its implementation

the impact of this programme on rural education produced mixed results. At present, education in rural areas needs improvement. The issues of education necessities such as sufficient classrooms, libraries, ICT facilities and sanitation facilities must be prioritised. As was discussed earlier in this chapter, lack of sanitation facilities in rural schools is a huge problem that has an adverse effect of learners' performance. Likewise, distance to, and from school, needs to be shortened. In other words, sufficient sanitation facilities should be provided and more schools should be built in rural areas, including the Oshana Region. Basically, this will promote equity, and improve the quality of education. In this way, the objectives of ETSIP will be met, NDPS will be achieved and eventually Namibia's Vision 2030 will be realised.

#### **6.4 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE OSHANA REGION CASE STUDY.**

Document analysis, observation and face-to-face interviews conducted have revealed that the Oshana Region has made remarkable progress with reference to service delivery to its inhabitants. According to Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) 2009/2010, Oshana Region has a total number of 35087 households and a population of 176 674 inhabitants (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2012:22). The delivery of services and access thereof by residents of the Oshana Region is better when compared to other northern regions, for example, Omusati, Ohangwena and Oshikoto. In terms of coverage, the Oshana Region has more services available and to a larger extent accessible to communities in the rural areas. As indicated in *figure 6.7*, essential services, for instance, clean water, health and school facilities are available. Notwithstanding the above exposition, the problem seems to be the distance to access such services and facilities. The affordability, by Oshana Region residents, of services such as water, electricity, and secondary education likewise is a matter of concern.

For example, Ekkolanahambo, a traditional village, in the Ondanagwa rural constituency consists of 40 homesteads, the majority of which are headed by pensioners. Pensioners depend on government social grant of N\$600.00 per month. With this little amount of money, they buy food and other household related needs. It is for this reason that affordability of other services mentioned above is a huge challenge to this category of community members. Other traditional villages in the Oshana Region could also be classified into the above category in which homesteads are headed by pensioners as well as minors whose parents passed on. Surely, these people cannot afford to pay for services in order to access them. This category of people needs

government to assist them in terms of providing basic services so that their standard of life can be improved. Therefore, sub-national level institutions, with the assist from central government and other stakeholders should work out the modality to ensure that the issue of service affordability by residents are addressed and all people are brought into the mainstream of economy. In addition, major public transportation is another issue of concern especially to the people in rural areas, making it difficult for them to access essential services within a reasonable possible time. Figure 6.7 illustrates the extent to which services are accessible to people in the Oshana Region especially those living in rural areas. In essence, this means that although most services are available, the Oshana Region Council should continue to work hard to ensure that all people have easy access to public services.

**Figure 6.7: Access to Services in the Oshana Region**

| Services                          | 0-1 km | 2-5 km | 6-10 km | 11-20 km | 21-50 km | >50 km | Total number of Households |
|-----------------------------------|--------|--------|---------|----------|----------|--------|----------------------------|
| Distance to drinking water        | 90.5   | 9.3    | 0.2     | -        | -        | -      | 35087                      |
| Distance to health facility       | 22.1   | 44.3   | 21.6    | 10.1     | 1.9      | -      | 35087                      |
| Distance to public transport      | 62.6   | 26.7   | 8.0     | 1.4      | 0.5      | -      | 35087                      |
| Distance to local shop and market | 43.6   | 33.3   | 10.5    | 8.2      | 4.4      | -      | 35087                      |
| Distance to combined school       | 33.7   | 39.4   | 18.9    | 14.0     | 2.3      | 0.6    | 35087                      |
| Distance to primary school        | 44.7   | 43.6   | 16.0    | 9.7      | 1.5      | 0.5    | 35087                      |
| Distance to high school           | 24.1   | 31.4   | 16.4    | 17.8     | 18.7     | 7.9    | 35087                      |
| Distance to post office           | 16.5   | 35.1   | 14.7    | 21.4     | 10.3     | 2.1    | 35087                      |
| Distance to police station        | 21.4   | 38.5   | 19.0    | 14.1     | 6.5      | 0.4    | 35087                      |
| Distance to magistrate            | 14.4   | 29.6   | 20.2    | 23.9     | 9.7      | 2.1    | 35087                      |
| Distance to pension pay point     | 25.5   | 54.5   | 17.8    | 1.8      | 0.3      | -      | 35087                      |

*Source: Namibia Statistics Agency (2012:84-96); Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) 2009/2010*



As the country marches into the future, good governance practices and effective service delivery become important tools towards meeting NDPs targets and subsequently realising Vision 2030. Namibian citizens look upon the government to fulfil the promises made in National Development Plans and Vision 2030. Good governance practices enable sub-national authorities to provide effective services to people thereby contribute to the broader objectives of the Namibian government achieving NDP goals. Basically, figure 6.7 indicates that progress has been made in the Oshana Region in attaining government objectives concerning governance and service delivery. In this respect, the Namibian government has put in place ambitious strategies for which intended outcomes can improve the people's standard of living. For example, the current NDP4 sets ambitious performance outcomes to be achieved by 2017 (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2012:27). The current pace at which services are delivered is not acceptable. In particular, in areas of housing, electricity and education more need to be done in terms of improving performance. Only 41% of the Namibian population live in modern houses. Education system is performing poorly as only 17.9% of the grade 10 learners achieve passing marks, while 29.5% of grade 12 learners achieve 25 points and above which is a requirement to admission at high institutions of learning (Government of Republic of Namibia, 2012:27).

Basically, the achievement of the above-mentioned objectives is dependent on existing governance practices and the degree to which such services are being delivered. It should be noted that service delivery is only meaningful when such services are available and accessible, as this can contribute to improvement of people's livelihoods. The above-mentioned ambitious NDP4 targets can be realised by designing and exercising good governance practices. Therefore, it is argued in this study that the success of governance structures, service delivery and subsequently achieving NDPs goals are attributed to a number of multiple governance factors. Stakeholders' commitment, availability of resources, governance institutions' accountability and public participation are some of the key factors that should be taken into consideration. This study is also acknowledging that the progress that has been made so far in Namibia regarding service delivery is, to a large extent, appropriate governance practices. However, more still need to be done to promote equity.

Against the backdrop of the above explanation and analysis made in chapter three and four of this thesis, governance and service delivery aspects have been further contextualised by means of data obtained through face-to-face interviews and observation made in the Oshana Region case study as explained in chapter five. This was done to provide explicit understanding of the

extent to which governance practices has impacted the provision of services in Namibia. This is importance because it may result in improved service delivery. In addition, information was gathered to ascertain service delivery programmes' performance since independence in 1990 and the benefits accrued from governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Essentially, the rationale behind the case study was to explain, discuss and put into context governance practices and service delivery to arrive to scientific findings, make informed conclusion and provide recommendations.

## **6.5 SUMMARY**

Chapter six provided and discussed services availability and performance of selected areas of service delivery in Namibia. Findings put forward in this chapter revealed that the Namibian government has, since independence in 1990, made a tremendous effort to put in place functional structures and practices of governance to deliver effective services to the people. Several basic services including education, health, clean water, sanitation, electricity, and road and communication network have been made available to various communities across Regions including the Oshana Region. It was also noted in this chapter that, despite limited resources, sub-national governments are doing their level best to ensure that resources are utilised in the best interest of the citizens.

Notwithstanding the above, it was found that the Namibian government still needs to do more to make sure that much service delivery reach all corners of the country and benefit all the people. In the Oshana Region in particular, it was found that twenty-four years after independence some people continue to endure hardship and struggle to make ends meet. People travel long distances to access basic services. Some constituencies do not have health facilities. Residents of the constituencies where clinics are not available, travel to neighbouring constituencies to access medical treatments. Thus, such undesirable situation should be coordinatively addressed to improve the livelihood of the people in Namibia. The next chapter seven summarised the content of the study, made conclusions and provide recommendations that can assist stakeholders in governance and service delivery to improve the situation.

## CHAPTER 7

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 7.1 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It was argued in this study that the primary objective and focus of the Namibian government is to deliver services in order to improve the living standard of all people. To deliver effective and inclusive services, government institutions should put in place appropriate governance frameworks, structures and practices to guide and shape public service performance. In this respect, the research analysed relevant governance theories and models in an attempt to answer the research question that asks: *What impact do good governance practices have on the delivery of services at sub-national levels in Namibia and in the Oshana Region?* The answers to the above-mentioned question were significant because they addressed the research problem that was identified and examined in this study.

As stated in chapter one, the problem statement is regarding *“the regional and local governance structures in Namibia that are not addressing service delivery to citizens in a manner that is effectively contributing to equitable service delivery at sub-national levels. Government structures seem to lack coordination, transparency and accountability. There appear to be lack of citizen participation, while slow policy implementation adversely affects public service performance and eventually service delivery at sub-national levels. In addition, essential services such as water and health are not decentralised to sub-national structures, thus, negatively affected the livelihoods of rural people especially the previously disadvantaged communities”*.

The study noted that a significant progress has been made by the Government of Republic of Namibia since independence in 1990 to promote good governance practices and increase service delivery. This was discussed in chapter three and four respectively. However, as revealed in chapter five through empirical evidence collected from the Oshana Region case study, some people in rural areas continue to endure hardships in accessing basic services. Some shortcomings affect governance and service delivery processes in the Region. Arguably so, this is an indicative of the fact that more still need to be done in order for the government to address the needs and aspirations of people especially those living in rural areas. Accordingly, the Government of Republic of Namibia should put in place appropriate and more workable

governance practices to improve the governance system. Such practices could compel public officials to respect and adhere to governance principles. The principles referred to are rule of law, accountability, transparency, openness, integrity, public participation, communication and consultation. The above-mentioned governance principles promote inclusive decision-making, effective policy implementation and ultimately contribute to equitable service delivery particularly at sub-national levels. This study analysed and discussed governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia as summarised in the following sections.

Chapter one provided the introduction and background of the study. The research question, study objectives and problem statement were outlined, and motivation of the study as well as definition of key concepts was provided. Chapter one concluded by providing the general outline of each chapter contained in the study. Conceptually, chapter one forms the introductory part of the thesis, hence, provided broad, clear and concise overview of the study. Chapter two explained the research methodology that was utilised in the study. It was discussed in chapter two that qualitative research design was used because of the nature of the data required and extent to which such data can be analysed and interpreted to provide in-depth understanding of good governance and service delivery in Namibia. To achieve such objective, a case study of the Oshana Region was utilised as a unit of analysis. Respondents in the Oshana Region provided important views and opinions on governance practices and the extent to which public services are being delivered in the Region. This supported governance and service delivery theories and models discussed in chapter three and four. Chapter two recognised the challenge faced by this study in terms of covering as many areas and locations in the Oshana Region as possible and collect comprehensive data. The reason behind this shortfall was overtly explained.

Chapter two dealt with the research methods and design employed to collected data. In this regard, it was discussed in this chapter that the data received from respondents in the Oshana Region has provided a valuable insight to explain and contextualise the issues under consideration in order to answer the research question. Furthermore, chapter two explained how the data which was collected was carefully analysed and interpreted to ensure validity and reliability. Qualitative data analysis tools such as documentation, re-familiarising, categorising, text analysis and sorting and writing were used. In effect, data analysis and interpretation followed a “*flow model*” process as discussed in chapter two. Chapter two concluded by providing the scope, limitations and significance of the study.

Chapter three dealt with the conceptual framework of governance and service delivery. It discussed the relationship between Public Administration, good governance and service delivery. It was noted in chapter two that Public Administration evolved over the years in an attempt to reform and improve public service performance. In this respect, it was discussed that this symbiotic relationship between Public Administration, governance and service delivery could be better understood and contextualised through four eras of public administration reformation. These eras were pointed out and discussed. Although the primary purpose of public administration is generally the same; the application, approaches and models might vary from one country to another depending on the political, social and economic environment. In light of the above, this study examined existing governance and service delivery in Namibia to recommend an appropriate approach that assists public service to effectively contribute to national development plans in order to realise Namibia's Vision 2030. The "*Thatcher Revolution*" approach was referred to and discussed to illustrate how robust public service reform can improve governance and contribute to socio-economic development, and subsequently service delivery. Fundamentally, the *Thatcher Revolution* represents a modern approach to public service reform, governance and service delivery.

Furthermore, chapter three used the "*Mercy Model*" as benchmark to suggest and design a governance model that might be applicable to Namibia. The benchmarked model was discussed and its successes were pointed out. The study acknowledged that although "*Mercy Model*" was initiated as humanitarian agency, ultimately it gained prominence in promoting good governance practices. In this respect, the study suggested a *Process Model*. Chapter three argued that the effectiveness of public service is dependent on a number of interdependent factors. They are; good legal frameworks, legitimate governance structures and practices, proper institutional arrangement, coordination among role-players and governance principles. In addition, proper planning, controlling and supervision contribute to good governance system and quality service delivery. It was suggested in chapter three that if the above-mentioned arrangements are put in place they could promote good governance practices and increase service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia.

Furthermore, chapter three discussed relevant governance frameworks available in Namibia. It discussed the Namibian Constitution, Namibia's Vision 2030, National Development Plans, Regional Councils Act, Local Authorities Act and Decentralisation policy and Decentralisation Enabling Act. The role of Namibia Institute of Public Administration (NIPAM) in governance

and service delivery was discussed. Finally, chapter three discussed the oversight mechanisms, such as the Ombudsman's Office and Anti-Corruption Commission, to governance and service delivery. Thus, it was concluded that appropriate governance structures and practices, effective leadership, proper training of public sector officials, sufficient resources, coordination among public sectors and public participation are important to ensure that the Government of Republic of Namibia achieve social and economic goals.

Chapter four provided a general overview of governance and service delivery. It discussed governance and principles of good governance in relation to service delivery. As was argued in chapter three, public institutions could not provide effective and efficient services to citizens if they lack democratic principles and values. Chapter four pointed out that rule of law, accountability, transparency, decentralisation, public participation, effectiveness and efficiency are crucial elements of governance and service delivery in Namibia. Government's commitment to the above-mentioned principles and values could bridge the gap between governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels where the majority of citizens are in need of basic services and amenities to sustain their livelihoods.

Chapter four discussed the evolution of governance and service delivery by identifying and explaining the three phases of governance that took place in Namibia. They are: Governance under German rule from 1884 to 1915; Governance under South African colonial rule between 1915 and 1988; and Governance in post-independent Namibia from 1990 to date. Each of the above-mentioned phases was discussed in details and shortfalls were explained. In essence, the reforms that took place changed the manner governance practices were applied and gradually the degree to which basic services were delivered. Particularly, since Namibia's independence in 1990, the Namibian Constitution was adopted, thus, paved the way for robust public service reform. The reformation of public service was a deliberate action to governance and service delivery. Despite public service reform and various strategies to improve governance and service delivery, many citizens continued to demand for better services and responsive governance system. In addition, lack of institutional coordination exists, and citizens' participation remains a challenge to effective service delivery. In this regard, the government of Republic of Namibia ought to commit sufficient resources to sub-national levels to promote good governance practices and approaches. This can improve service delivery at grassroots levels.

Furthermore, chapter four provided background information in terms of governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Development issues such as urbanisation and its impact on governance and service delivery was discussed. In addition, chapter four identified and explained challenges faced by the regional council and local authorities in the Oshana Region in terms of delivering equitable services and make them accessible to the people. Basically, it was found that governance structures are in place in the Oshana Region. The problem of lack of governance practices seems to have emanated from deficiency of institutional capacity with regard to financial and human resources. In addition, lack of coordination between line ministries and the Oshana Regional Council as well as poor public participation, to a large degree, have contributed to poor service delivery in rural areas of the Oshana Region. The above-mentioned issues should be addressed in order to improve governance and promote service delivery.

Chapter five dealt with analysis and interpretation of data collected from the case study. However, in order to put into context the information provided by respondents, the analysis and interpretation of such data were followed by discussion on findings on the performance of selected service delivery in Namibia in chapter six. The purpose was to provide research findings on which conclusions and recommendations could be drawn.

The central focus of chapter five was to analyse and interpret respondents' views and opinions on the issues of governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region. Response by public officials indicated that they understanding the concepts governance, good governance and service delivery. Emphasis was placed on the importance of accountability, transparency, public participation, consultation and communication in the governance process. It was maintained that existing governance and service delivery frameworks should be complemented by adequate resources. Decentralisation of functions and services was pointed out to be an indispensable element of good governance that can promote equitable service delivery at sub-national levels. It was also revealed in chapter five that certain aspects governance such as poor politicians-administrators work relationship, poor quality of councils' debates and lack of institutional capacity are impacting governance practices and service delivery negatively in Namibia in general and the Oshana Region in particular.

Besides, interviews conducted with community members in ten constituencies in the Oshana Region provided mixed views and opinions, depending on the area or location where respondents live. Rural communities are negatively affected by lack of governance practices and poor service delivery than those living in urban areas. Similarly, communities in the peripheries of the three towns in the Region indicated that they, too, experienced difficulties in accessing basic services. In effect, the above explanation confirmed government statistics provided in *figure 5.7* regarding basic services accessibility. In this regard, it was found that there is need for proper institutional arrangement and capacity building particularly at sub-national levels. In addition, not all functions and services necessary for human survival have been decentralised. It was, therefore, concluded in chapter five that the Government of Republic of Namibia ought to do more to improve governance practices and service delivery at sub-national levels. Sub-national governance structures must be strengthened by providing the necessary financial and human resources, and decentralise all functions and services.

The research findings were provided in chapter six. Chapter six discussed research findings based on secondary sources or literature review and empirical evidence on the governance and service delivery issues identified and contextualised in this study. This chapter discussed performance of selected areas of service delivery and identified relevant policy and programme interventions designed by the Government of Republic of Namibia specifically to address service delivery. In this regard, chapter six discussed the delivery of potable water and sanitation, electricity, education, health and road communication in Namibia in general and the Oshana Region. Performance of the above-mentioned services examined and provided in table forms to illustrate the degree to which they are accessible to the people. Through analysis, the study found that most basic services are provided and available at sub-national levels. However, the distribution thereof is not equally done. This made such services not easily accessible to people especially the rural communities. Statistics also revealed that some people in rural areas continued to travel long distances to access basic services. Therefore, for effective governance and service delivery the involvement of all stakeholders is fundamental in achieving government objectives. This is supported by “stakeholder theory” (Freeman, 2004) discussed in chapter 3.

Chapter seven presented a brief and concise summary of the thesis. It summarised what discussed in each chapter contained in the thesis. Namibia’s public service reform has evolved since the inception of democracy on 21 March 1990. Such reform was accompanied by various government policy interventions aimed at promoting good governance practices and increase



service delivery. However, 24 years after independence some people in Namibia continued to endure difficulties to access basic services and amenities.

The research has considered all key issues identified and discussed in the thesis and analysed challenges associated with governance and service delivery. In this respect, chapter seven made conclusions based on findings and put forward appropriate recommendations to improve governance practices and service delivery in Namibia. It was maintained in chapter seven that effective services could only be delivered if the Government of Republic of Namibia adopts holistic approaches to governance and service delivery. This includes forming effective partnership with private sector, enforcing accountability, transparency and openness, decentralisation of all functions and services, investing in training public sector officials and promoting active public participation. Review of literature and analysis of governance and service delivery theories, models and processes as well as empirical evidence collected from the case study enabled this study to make the following conclusions: *Firstly*, good governance practices are crucial to effective public service delivery in Namibia. For public service to effectively meet the demands and expectations of society it requires concerted efforts and collaboration of all stakeholders. In other words, public-private partnership is needed. In addition, democratic approach is required to promote inclusiveness in decision making on political, social and economic issues that affect citizens. The Government of Republic of Namibia should put in place appropriate institutional arrangements that can strengthen institutional capacity at regional and local government levels. It was also concluded that existing governance frameworks and structures can become ineffective if they are not complemented and supported by unremitting application of good governance models and practices.

*Secondly*, the research concluded that the Government of Republic of Namibia's relevant national policy interventions on water supply and sanitation, education, health, rural electrification and road networks can achieve their intended objectives and benefit the majority of citizens if the implementation thereof is carried out by regional and local government. In this regard, sufficient resources must be made available to sub-national governments. Furthermore, it was concluded that improving skills and competences of public sector officials at sub-national levels is crucial to effective and efficient implementation of government programmes and projects. However, policy implementation cannot be done in isolation. Active participation by other sector of society such as civil society and ordinary members of the community is important in realising government's goals and objectives. Therefore, governance processes ought to

involve all stakeholders in policy interventions that are aimed at addressing the plight of the people in Namibia.

*Finally*, the decentralisation process, though a necessity for socio-economic development in Namibia, is moving at “*snail pace*”. Fourteen years after the adoption of the policy on decentralisation and enactment of the Decentralisation Enabling Act, some key functions are yet to be decentralised. Functions such as finance, water supply and sanitation, education and health could be performed more effectively if they are devolved to regional governments. The above-mentioned functions, once devolved, will enable public sector officials at sub-national levels to plan and deliver services to people timely and effectively. The current function-delegation approach might not be an effective manner of providing services to the people especially those residing in rural areas. Bureaucratic procedures made the above-mentioned approach cumbersome and slow in addressing people’s needs and demands on time. As discussed in this thesis, the purpose for existence of sub-national levels of government must be fully realised. This can be achieved through complete decentralisation of functions and services. Therefore, devolution of key functions and services might fast-track service delivery in order to enhance the living standard of the people.

## **7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Public service is the most indispensable undertaking of any government because it promotes social and economic development of the country within the context of existing political arena. For public service to be effective it is dependent on governance structures and practices. Thus, the government of Republic of Namibia, as an independent and democratic entity must unequivocally abide to democratic principles in order to promote good governance practices and increase service delivery to the people. This study has proposed a “*process model*” approach to governance, as discussed in chapter three, in an attempt to address problems of governance and service delivery in Namibia. It has to be noted that this study is in no way implying that Namibia is ungovernable. As was discussed in chapter three, the Government of Republic of Namibia has in place appropriate legal frameworks which are supported by governance structures both at central, regional and local levels. The purpose to suggest the “*process model*” and eventually put forward recommendations is to provide useful but yet scientific guidelines that can help the public service in its quest to improve governance practices and the delivery of effective services to the people. The ‘*process model*’ way of governance allows stakeholders to come together and

address pertinent societal issues. It promotes rule of law, accountability, transparency and responsiveness. As such, institutional capacity is strengthened and inclusive decisions are made to deliver effective services to the people. It is, therefore, significant for public service in Namibia to adopt this model. In this regard, various recommendations were put forward. It has to be noted that the recommendations suggested by this study have taken into consideration the political, social and economic environment of Namibia. Thus, practical application of the under-mentioned recommendations may vary from one administrative region to another depending on the socio-economic environment. The recommendations are as follow:

***The Government of Republic of Namibia must adopt and apply good governance practices across all sectors of public service.*** The adoption and application of good governance practices are central to acceptable performance of public institutions. Public service officials, by the nature of their responsibilities, are servants of the people. What they do is prescribed in the Namibian Constitution and other relevant laws. The Regional Councils Act and the Local Authorities Act prescribed what public officials must done to promote good governance and enhance effective service delivery at sub-national levels. In addition, the Public Service Act provides guidelines to be followed to ensure a well-balanced staff component at both central and sub-national levels. In this respect, those entrusted with government constitutional responsibility of promoting the country's socio-economic development and rendering equitable services to citizens are expected to correctly interpret and proactively apply the provisions contained in the above-mentioned laws.

Good governance practices call for the Government of Republic of Namibia's commitment to the course and spirit of the Constitutional provisions. This study indicated that the Constitution established Namibia as a democratic country that is governed by rule of law and collective will of the people. In essence, governance is a shared responsibility that requires involvement of all sectors of society. This means that Namibia's public service ought to apply and promote good governance practices in the process of delivering services to citizens. In the same vein, private sector must contribute and complement government's efforts to promote socio-economic development. Civil society must advocate on governance issues, and ordinary members in their respective constituencies must demand government's accountability and transparency regarding governance process and service delivery. Basically, good governance calls for concerted efforts of all sectors of society to ensure that government strategies produce necessary changes that are

beneficiary to people. Notwithstanding the above, the Government of Republic of Namibia as the custodian of laws and policies ought to assume a leading role in this regard.

Good governance practices require the government to have in place functional governance structures at central, regional and local levels. In addition, human and financial resources capacities are crucial to implementing and sustaining good governance practices. Currently, the Government of Republic of Namibia has regional council offices in all thirteen regions in the country. In addition, constituency offices have been built in most constituencies. In the Oshana Region in particular, in addition to the Regional Council Headquarters, there are constituency offices in all ten constituencies. Theoretically, the above-mentioned infrastructure may facilitate governance and service delivery at sub-national levels. However, and arguably so, the mere fact that infrastructure are available do not necessarily imply that there are good governance practices. Neither does this mean that essential services are provided to the needy. This study suggests that the actual action of public officials and the manner they do things, influence governance practices, and subsequently determine service delivery outcomes. In this regard, public officials must be effective in carrying out their responsibilities. They must plan and control public institutions' day-to-day activities, and prepare administration narratives and reports which give account of their actions.

Good governance practices are the products of public service officials' performance. It concerns with the application of democratic principles to facilitate an acceptable process of governance and service delivery. Likewise, it implies proper mechanisms to carry out what the country's laws, policies, rules and regulations that guide public institutions require one to do to deliver public goods and services. This study suggests that good governance practices promote the notion of "*putting the people first*" (South African government coined the phrase as *Batho Pele*) and perform one's duties and responsibilities in the best interest of the people. The aspects of rule of law, accountability, transparency, honesty, integrity, capacity building, effectiveness and efficiency are central components of good governance practices and consequently effective and efficient public service performance.

To develop good governance practices at sub-national levels, this study suggests that the Government of Republic of Namibia ought to take the following approaches:

Firstly, the Government of Republic of Namibia must train regional and local councillors on governance and service delivery related aspects. This category of public service officials needs to be properly guided through constant training and workshops in order to equip them with the knowledge, skills and competencies necessary to provide good governance leadership at sub-national levels. Such training will also increase councillors' participation in and improve quality of debates during the councils' meetings. Efforts should be made to ensure that all councillors attend training of this nature. In particular, the Middle Management Development Programme for Regional and Local Government (MMDP-RLG) offered by the Namibian Institute for Public Administration and Management (NIPAM) must be made compulsory for all councillors to attend.

Furthermore, the identification and selection criteria utilised by various political parties in Namibia to field candidates for regional and local councils' elections need to be revised. Once elected, councillors assume government responsibility of governance and service delivery. Therefore, this study suggests that potential candidates must be identified and selected based on merits and knowledge in areas such as governance, leadership, finance, communication as well as knowledge and understanding of regional and local governance in Namibia. Consideration of their level of education is also significant to ensure that competent councillors are elected to this important public position of authority. It has to be noted that once elected and sworn in, councillors are expected to discuss and make decisions on issues affecting the living standard of the people. In addition, councillors have to act as link between community members and regional and local authority councils. Therefore, if a councillor lacks the above-mentioned knowledge, skills and competences it will result in important issues not being addressed. Similarly, regional and local councillors make decisions that have direct impact on administrative functions. Issues such as by-laws, budget and recommendations on the appointment of personnel emanate from councillors' deliberations and decisions. Thus, the quality of council's debate, councillors' skills and knowledge of governance, to a certain degree, influence the direction policy implementation will take, the performance by administrative officials and eventually service delivery.

Secondly, skilled and competent administrative officials must be recruited and human capacity must be developed in areas such as regional and town planning, land survey, engineering and local economic development. In addition, vacant positions at constituency levels must be adequately filled in order for community members to be assisted anytime they need the assistance. Availability of skilled and competent administrative officials is crucial to public service performance in promoting good governance practices. Administrative officials craft and implement governance practices to deliver services to citizens. Their actions matter most in terms of supervision, control and eventually public service performance. In this regard, administrative officials at both regional and local government levels must commit and dedicate their efforts to serving the nation to the best of their abilities. Therefore, they must possess appropriate knowledge, skills and competences to run public institutions.

***The Government of Republic of Namibia ought to provide conducive environment that encourage stakeholders involvement in policy implementation in order to promote public participation in governance and service delivery.*** Effective and inclusive policy implementation is necessary for the survival and wellbeing of citizens. Government policies are crafted and executed to address needs and aspirations of the people. Public sector officials who are tasked with responsibility of governance and service delivery must make sure that policy implementation process involves the very same people to whom services are intended. Public participation is more important to the people at grassroots levels. In the absence of active public participation, effective delivery of essential services such as clean water and sanitation, health, education, electricity, road networks and other amenities may not be realised. Likewise, the majority of the people especially those living in rural areas may not benefit from public services if they are not actively involved.

Public participation implies that regional and local governments ought to engage ordinary community members on a continuous basis. The government officials should consult and communicate with the people on all issues related to social and economic development. Regional and local governments must established appropriate public institutions for consultation and communication both in urban and rural areas respectively. Community halls must be erected at regional, local and constituency levels. Similar opportunities should be created at community levels. Traditional leaders must be empowered to be able to influence their subjects and encourage them to participate in government programmes and projects. Information must be made easily accessible either through radio, television and newspapers. Regular holding of

meetings with community members in rural areas is an effective strategy to ensure that the majority of the people have access to social and economic development information. It has to be noted that community leaders are institutions that are very close to ordinary members of the community. When traditional leaders have access to governance and service delivery information, they may easily disseminate such information through to their respective subjects. This will result in compliance among community members on policy implementation. Basically, public participation is one of the key factors towards achieving the national development plans' goals and the realisation of Vision 2030 dream.

In Namibia, the availability and accessibility of basic services especially in rural areas is a matter of concern. Public sector officials indicated that slow pace of decentralising functions and lack of resources place further constraints on their efforts to provide services to the people. Community members claimed that public services are not sufficient, and where services are available some people have to travel long distance to access those services. Community members attributed this to lack of proper consultation and poor public participation in the planning, design and implementation of government programmes and projects. Certainly, community members know their needs better than public sector officials. They are in a better position to advise public officials on suitable locations and/or areas in a particular constituency where service facilities can be erected or built. For example, community members, if consulted, may advise better on where a school, a clinic, community hall or community water point can be erected.

Despite the above, it appears that public participation, though provided for in the Regional Councils Act and Local Authorities Act, has not been given the full support and consideration by public sector officials. This study suggests that the oversight thereof has created discrepancies regarding governance and service delivery at sub-national levels especially in rural areas. For this reason, it is important for public sector officials to bridge the gap between public institutions and community members and start to consult more with them in order to promote public participation in policy and programme implementation.

***The Government of Republic of Namibia ought to provide adequate financial resources to sub-national levels of government in order to strengthen their financial capacities.*** Central government is the main source of funding to sub-national government institutions in Namibia. Regional and local government rely heavily on central government's coffers for funding. In this

regard, good governance practices and effective service delivery at sub-national levels may not be realised if there is no sufficient financial resources from central government. In the Namibian context, money is provided to regional and local government through Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development. Although budgeting is done at sub-national levels the Ministry bears responsibility as to what amount should be allocated to which regional councils or local authorities respectively. In addition, competing priorities may influence the allocation of funds to regional and local government. This indicates that sub-national levels of government in Namibia may not necessarily receive an equal share from the national budget. It should be noted that all fourteen Regional governments in Namibia shoulder the same responsibility of governance, social and economic development, and delivery of services to the people. The question is what is considered as a priority item. Priority items in Region A might not necessarily be a priority in Region B. Namibia is a diverse country with many but different societal needs and aspirations. In this respect, sub-national governments prepare and submit their respective budget depending on citizens' needs and demands.

This research suggests that central government, as custodian of state resources, must allocate sufficient financial resources to all regional and local governments to enable them to operate and finance social and economic development programmes. In the same vein, the Government of Republic of Namibia should make sure that funds are allocated and released on time to speed up policy implementation and increase service delivery at sub-national levels. Essentially, the Ministry of Finance and Namibian Parliament must make sure that Appropriation Bill is tabled on time in Parliament, and discussion and debates on the Bill are not unnecessarily prolonged. This can avoid '*financial vacuum*' that usually take place from the end of financial year (March) until the new budget is approved and released. This study also suggests that mechanisms should be designed to accelerate transfer of funds to regional and local government. This means that public institutions must receive their allocations timely in order to utilise them as planned. Late allocation of funds to government institutions especially to regional and local government results in underspending and eventually returning of much needed funds back to Treasury. Therefore, there is a need for improvement in terms of fund allocation and the process of budget approval and transfer.



Financial resources have a direct influence on governance and service delivery. It enables skilled and competent human resources to apply and implement good governance practices. In this regard, public institutions need sufficient funds to recruit and appoint the above-mentioned personnel. Similarly, effective and inclusive service delivery may only be realised if sufficient financial resources are made available. Furthermore, funding is also needed to develop effective leadership at regional and local government levels. Public sector officials must be exposed to good governance practices through training, workshops, conferences and on-the-job training to improve governance and service delivery. Training can improve public sector officials' capacity to manage financial resources. This study, therefore, suggests that, in the absence of finance devolution, the Government of Republic of Namibia ought to provide sufficient financial resources to regional and local government on an equal basis. Transfer of funds by the Ministry concerned should be done timely to avoid underspending. In addition, Constituency Development Fund must be established and financed from the national budget.

***Regional and local government institutions in Namibia must be properly equipped with skilled and competent officials in areas that are fundamental to governance and service delivery.*** One of the challenges associated with poor governance and service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia is acute shortage of staff in key areas. Empirical evidence revealed lack of regional and town planners, engineers, land surveyors, local economic development officers and qualified accountants at constituency levels. Where the above-mentioned skills and competences are available, institutions are understaffed. The lack of personnel in key areas impacts negatively on governance and service delivery at regional local government levels. It was noted that Namibia has backlog of skills and competencies in areas mentioned above. However, over the past twenty-two years of existence of regional and local governments the Government of Republic of Namibia has done little to address human resources capacity at regional and local government levels. This research suggests a robust approach to above-mentioned issues. Regional and local councils should identify suitable candidates and sponsor them for further studies in the aforementioned areas on condition that, upon completion of their studies, the graduates will serve those councils for a specified period of time. Regional and local councils, in consultation with Public Service Commission, should introduce reasonable incentives in order to attract potential regional and town planners, engineers, land surveyors to apply for those positions once advertised. The question of what 'reasonable incentives' are should be addressed through adopting competitive market-related remuneration in the above-mentioned areas.

Although appointment of public servants is made by the Public Service Commission of Namibia (PSC), identification of human resources needs and budgeting for such needs are initiated at regional and local government levels. In other words, regional and local councils' management committees advertise, select, interview and recommend suitable candidates for appointment by PSC. In this regard, this study suggests that regional and local governments must make sure that those institutions are properly equipped with skills and competences necessary to promote good governance and service delivery. Society expects sub-national levels of government to put in place appropriate strategies to address their needs and demands. In this respect, government institutions must build human resources capacity compatible to meet the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

***The Government of Republic of Namibia is duty-bound to build capacity in all areas of socio-economic development at sub-national levels in order to accelerate service delivery to the people.*** Investing in infrastructure and human resources is the cornerstone to socio-economic upliftment of citizens. No single nation around the world has managed to address governance and service delivery issues in the absence of appropriate infrastructure. In the same way, the Government of Republic of Namibia cannot resolve the problem of governance and service delivery if it does not put in place relevant infrastructure. Capacity building cuts across a wide range of issues that can contribute to good governance practices and effective service delivery. It includes but not limited to relevant institutions, sufficient funding, communities and individuals. In this regard, this research suggests the following approaches.

Firstly, capacity building at institutional level requires proper institutional arrangements, good leadership, user friendly policies, rules and guidelines as well as skilled and competent public sector officials. Creating and strengthening public institutions, training and robust development of human resources are part of institutional capacity building. Likewise, improving accountability and transparency in executing public service contribute to capacity building at sub-national levels. Essentially, appropriate institutions must be created whether at regional, constituency, local authority or community levels. Building capacity at institutional levels must include budgeting, policy implementation, performance, evaluation and monitoring, revenue collection, financial and human resources management. If the above-mentioned approach is taken it will promote good governance practices and subsequently increases service delivery to the people.

Secondly, building capacity at community level helps to promote public participation and involvement in government's efforts to address societal issues. In this regard, communities must be educated on national laws, policies as well as government social and economic development programmes. Constant information sharing should take place between public sector officials and society. Society must be afforded ample opportunity and appropriate platform to freely approach and access government institutions and officials to discuss social issues that affect them. Civil society, community leaders and community activists must have access to governance and service delivery information to be able to advocate, assist and guide the society accordingly. Capacity building at community levels, therefore, is an effective strategy that can promote good governance practices. It allows society an opportunity to reflect and recognise its responsibility to contribute towards achieving National Development Plans' goals in order to realise Namibia's Vision 2030.

Finally, this research suggests that the Government of Republic of Namibia must create capacity at an individual level. Government objectives are easily attainable in an environment where individuals in society are well informed and conversant with political, social and economic policies. The success of policy implementation, to a large extent, depends on individual citizens' cooperation and compliance. In this regard, individuals include officials, ordinary members of society, women and the youth. When individuals in society lack information or are not properly consulted, government's efforts to address the plight of the people will not bear fruit. It is reiterated here that sub-national governments were created to add value in the lives of the people. They are there to assist ordinary people to realise their dreams in order to improve their living standards. Capacitating these individuals will provide an opportunity for them to understand governance practices and actively participate in implementation of government programmes and projects.

***The Government of Republic of Namibia must decentralise all functions necessary for effective service delivery and improvement of the people livelihoods.*** Decentralisation is crucial to good governance practices and service delivery in Namibia. Decentralisation gives power to lower levels of government to make decisions based on the environment in which they operate. The unitary nature of the Namibian State allows for either deconcentration, delegation or devolution of powers and functions to lower levels of government. This means that any function can be decentralised as long as it is accompanied by the necessary legislation or, in the extreme, the amendment of the relevant provision of the Constitution. It has to be noted that except

chapter 3 of the Namibian Constitution, other constitutional provisions as well as other laws and policies are not casted on the stone. They can either be amended or repealed if they are not serving the interest of the people. Thus, this study suggests that essential functions and services such as finance, health, education, water supply and rural electrification must be devolved to regional and local government levels. If necessary, the relevant laws should be amended to facilitate such devolution. A strong link exists in literature that decentralisation improves accountability, responsiveness and citizens participation.

The current state of affairs in which regional and local governments in Namibia are relegated to coordination and advisory roles is not conducive to governance and service delivery. The above-mentioned government agencies have no powers to decide on certain services other than advising line ministries in terms of where and when to deliver services. Line ministries are directly responsible for delivering services such as water, health, education, electricity and road networks to people in rural areas. The budget for those services is also determined and decided at central government level. The research also suggests that if the rationale behind the creation of regional and local governments was to bring government and services closer to the people, the Government of Republic of Namibia should consider decentralising all functions necessary to enhance governance and promote service delivery in order to improve people livelihoods especially those reside in rural areas. Essentially, decentralising functions and services, by means of devolution, provide opportunity to regional and local governments to plan, decide and implement government policies services in order to delivery timely and effective services.

Decentralisation promotes democracy and encourages citizens' active participation in political, social and economic activities. Decentralisation of functions and services has far-reaching effects in terms of institutional and people empowerment. In essence, devolution of functions and services improve institutional capacity since sufficient financial and human resources may accompany functions and services so devolved. In this regard, decentralising functions help regional and local governments to develop values for locally-managed services and sustain them.

The benefits accrued from decentralised functions go beyond good governance practices and effective service delivery. In addition, it promotes women and youth development to ensure that they, also, play significant role and contribute to the country's socio-economic development agenda. As discussed in this chapter, decentralisation in form of devolution may address lack of financial and human resources at constituency levels and empower constituency councillors to

confidently provide solutions to communities in rural areas. It must be noted that the delegation from of decentralisation that has been in place for the past fourteen years did not produce significant results. In fact, it only increased bureaucracy and bottle-neck in terms of governance practices and service delivery. It gave more powers to central government ministries to decide and deal with service delivery issues that are located far away from them. Such situation is counter-productive in terms of good governance and service delivery. This study recommends that all functions and services which are currently performed by line ministries at sub-national levels should be devolved to regional and local governments respectively. The staff that is currently performing those functions and services, infrastructure and equipment should be transferred to lower levels of governments. When necessary, relevant laws must be amended to facilitate such process.

***The Government of Republic of Namibia ought to develop effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to regularly assess governance and service delivery at sub-national levels.*** Lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms contribute to ineffective utilisation of meagre public resources. In addition, it weakens governance practices and slow down service delivery. Monitoring usually involves gathering and analysing information on programmes and projects implementation thereby provides timely feedback. It also serves as early warning concerning hitches experienced by public institutions regarding governance practices and service delivery. In contrast, evaluation deals with the applicability, effectiveness and the impact of policies, programmes and projects on society. Therefore, effective monitoring and evaluation are significant to governance processes and service delivery because they provide instant indications on shortcomings which hinder progress and suggest possible solutions at an early stage.

The research suggests that the Government of Republic of Namibia should develop and implement effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to identify and address problems of bad governance practices in public institutions at central, regional and local government levels. Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms provide an opportunity for administrative officials, councillors, civil society and ordinary members in society to identify governance and service delivery challenges and resolve them amicably. Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms must focus on, but not limited, skills and competences of public sector officials, impact of governance and service delivery on society, quality of services and effectiveness of services being delivered. In this regard, performance appraisal should be strengthened, methods of accountability and practical reporting procedures must be defined, and service delivery beneficiaries' assessment

must be encouraged. In order to make it effective, this study suggests that monitoring and evaluation must involve public sector officials, councillors, regional development committees, constituency/community development committees, civil society organisations, community leaders and ordinary community members. Central to monitoring and evaluation is that information accessibility and instant feedback should be encouraged.

Essentially, the above-mentioned strategies can increase sense of ownership and responsibility of governance processes and service delivery in Namibia. Furthermore, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms must be supported by adequate financial and human resources capacity. It also requires proper institutional arrangements, capacity building and practical decentralisation of functions and services as well as good governance practices. Finally, this study suggests that monitoring and evaluation mechanisms should be aligned with the national development plans' and objectives and Vision 2030 goals. Perhaps public institutions in Namibia should embrace and incorporate governance models as discussed in chapter four, section 4.5. The integration of managerial, consultative and participatory models of governance can improve governance practices and accelerate service delivery.

In summary, it has to be noted, though, that the recommendations provided above is “*not a one size fits all*” approach. Namibia is a unique country with people of diverse needs and aspirations. The adoption, application and implementation of any of the above-mentioned recommendations must be cautiously approached and be informed by the social and economic environment of a particular Region. In addition, societal setup, cultural environment and collectiveness of communities ought to be taken into consideration. Finally, the *Process Model* of good governance practices suggested in chapter three, section 3.5 might be of assistance to regional and local governance if adapted and applied in accordance with social and economic environment of a particular region.

### **7.3 AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH.**

This study has dealt with and discussed governance structures and good governance practices, and the impact they may have on service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia. The purpose was to provide an in-depth understanding of the relationship between good governance practices and service delivery, and the extent to which they promote socio-economic development in order to address the plight of the Namibian people. In so doing, it came to light that good governance practices will not achieve the intended objectives in the absence of democratic principles such rule of law, accountability, transparency, integrity and openness and active public participation. The Government of Republic of Namibia and its officials cannot afford to remain disconnected from the very same people to whom public services are intended. Consequently, institutional arrangements, financial and human resources capacities, public-private sector collaborations, and appropriate oversight mechanisms are very crucial in achieving government objectives in terms of governance and service delivery. It was noted in this study that there are many issues that have an influence on good governance practices and service delivery, some of which need further research in order to provide answers and contribute to constant Public Administration growing body of knowledge. The above explanation denotes an acknowledgement by this study that in addition to issues that have been identified, examined and discussed in this thesis, there are still many aspects that need to be scientifically researched in order to provide further understanding of governance and service delivery in Namibia.

Against the backdrop of the above-mentioned exposition, this study suggests that future researchers should consider studies on the importance of financial and human resources management on service delivery, public participation, and the impact of decentralisation on social and economic development and sustainability at sub-national levels in Namibia.

## REFERENCE LIST

### Books

Adetula, V A O. 2011 'Measuring democracy and good governance in Africa: A Critique of assumptions and methods', in Kondlo, K & Ejiogu, G. (ed.) *Governance in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: democracy, governance and service delivery*, Cape Town: HSRC, (Pp.10-25.).

Ahrens, J. 2011. Governance, Development, and Institution Change in Times of Globalisation. (In Ahrens, J., Caspers, R. & Weingarh, J. 2011. (Eds.). *Good Governance in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Conflict, Institutional Change, and Development in the Era of Globalisation*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd. (Pp.1-24).

Albritton, R B & Bureekul, T. 2009. *A Comparative survey of democracy, governance and development*. Chile: Global Barometer.

Amoo, S.K. & Skeffers, I. 2008. The Rule of Law in Namibia. In Horn, N. & Bosl, A. 2008. *Human Rights and the Rule of Law in Namibia*. Windhoek: Konrad Adenauer Stiftung. (Pp.17-36).

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2010. *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, R & Schutt, RK. 2011. *The practice of research in criminology and criminal justice* 4<sup>th</sup> edition. London: Sage.

Bazeley, P. 2007. *Qualitative Data Analysis with NVivo*. London: Sage Publications.

Berg, BL & Lune, H. 2012. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. London: Pearson.

Berg, BL. 2004. *Qualitative research methods for social sciences, 5<sup>th</sup> ed*. Boston: Pearson.



Bernard, HR & Ryan, GW. 2010. *Analysing qualitative data: Systematic approaches*. California: Sage.

Bernard, HR. 2011. *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches, 5<sup>th</sup> Ed.* Estover Road, Plymouth: AltaMira.

Boons, F., Van Buuren, A., Gerrits, L & Teisman, G. 2009. Towards an approach of evolutionary public management. In Teisman, G., Van Buuren, A. & Gerrits, L. (Eds) 2009. *Managing complex governance systems: Dynamics, self-organisation and co-evolution in public investments*. New York: Routledge.

Brink, H., Van Der Walt, C & Van Rensburg, G. 2009. *Fundamentals of research methodology for health care professionals (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Cape Town: Juta.

Brinkerhoff, DM & Brinkerhoff, TM. 2013. Development management and policy implementation: Relevance beyond the global south. In Araral, E., Fritzen, S., Howlett, M., Ramesh, M & Wu, X. 2013. *Routledge handbook of public policy*. New York: Routledge. (pp. 374-384)

Brynard, PA & Hanekom, SX. 2005. *Introduction to research in public administration and related academic disciplines*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Burkey, S. 1993. *People first: A guide to self-reliant participatory rural development*. London: Zed Books.

Burton, M. 2013. *The politics of public sector reform: From Thatcher to the coalition*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Burton, P., Leoschut, L & Popovac, M. 2011. *Protecting the Flame: Overcoming Violence as a Barrier to Education in Namibia*. Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention.

Chabal, P. 2009. *Africa: The Politics of Suffering and Smiling*. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal Press.

Charmaz, K. 2011. *Constructing grounded theory: A Practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: Sage.

Cheema, GS & Rondinelli, DA. 2007. "From government decentralisation to decentralised governance" In Cheema, G.S. & Rondinelli, D.A (Eds.). 2007. *Decentralising governance: emerging concepts and practices*. Washington DC: Brookings Institution Press, (pp.1-20.)

Ching Yuen Luk, S. 2013. E-Government in China: Opportunities and Challenges for the Transformation of Governance in the Information Age. (In Wu, B., Yao, S. & Chen, J. 2013. (Eds.). *China's Development and Harmonisation: Towards a balance with Nature, Society and the International Community*. New York: Routledge. (192-206).

Clayman, SE & Gill, VT. 2004. "Conversation analysis". In Hardy, M & Bryman, A. 2004 (Eds.). *Handbook of data analysis*. London: Sage. (589-606).

Coffey, A & Atkinson, P. 1996. *Making sense of qualitative data*. London: Sage.

Das, S.L. 2010. *Bureaucracy and Development Administration*. New Delhi: Global Media.

Democracy Report. 2011. *Namibia labour force survey of 2008*. Windhoek: Institute for Public Policy and Research.

Denhardt, RB & Denhardt, JV. 2009. *Public administration: An action orientation (6<sup>th</sup> Ed.)*. Boston: Wadsworth.

Denzin, NK & Lincoln, YS. 2008. "Introduction: The Discipline and practice of qualitative research". In Denzin, NK & Lincoln, YS 2008. (Eds.). *Strategies of qualitative inquiry*. London: Sage, (pp.1-44.).

Diescho, J. 2010. *The Concepts of Rights and Constitutionalism in Africa*. (In Bosl, A. & Du Pisani, A. 2010. (Eds.). *Constitutional Democracy in Namibia: A Critical Analysis after two Decades*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia. (Pp.17-34).

Du Pisani, A. 2010. The Paradigm of Constitutional Democracy: Genesis, Implications and Limitations. (In Bosl, A., Horn, N, & Du Pisani, A. 2010 (Eds.). *Constitutional Democracy in Namibia: A Critical Analysis after Two Decades*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia. (Pp. 3-15).

Dwivedi, O.P. & Mishra, D.S. 2007. Good Governance: A Model for India. (In Farazmand, A. & Pinkowski, J. 2007 (Eds.). *Handbook of Globalisation, Governance, and Public Administration*. Boca Raton: Taylor and Francis. (Pp. 702-758).

Erasmus, G. 2010. The Constitution: Its Impact on Namibia Statehood and Politics. (In Keulder, C. 2010. (Ed). *State, Society and Democracy: A Reader in Namibian Politics*. Windhoek: Macmillan Education Namibia. (Pp.77-107).

Fjeldstad, OH., Geisler, G., Nangulah, S., Nygaard, K, Pomuti, Shifotoka, A & van Rooy, G. 2005. *Local governance, urban poverty and service delivery in Namibia*. Bergen, Norway: Chr. Michelsen Institute.

Flick, U. 2009. *An introduction to qualitative research (4<sup>th</sup> Ed)*. London Sage.

Fox, W & Bayat, MS. 2011. *A guide to managing research*. Lansdowne: Juta.

Friedman, J.T. 2011. *Imagining the Post-Apartheid State: An Ethnographic Account of Namibia*. New York: Berghahn Books.

Fuentes-Milani, R. 2014. The European Union: Relations with Namibia. In Bosl, A., Du Pisani, A. & Zaire, D.U. (Eds.). 2014. *Namibia's Foreign Relations: Historic Contexts, Current Dimensions, and Perspectives for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia.

Geingob, H.G. 2010. Drafting of Namibia's Constitution. (In Bosl, A., Horn, N, & Du Pisani, A. 2010 (Eds.). *Constitutional Democracy in Namibia: A Critical Analysis after Two Decades*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia. (Pp. 3-15).

Ghaus-Pasha, A. 2007. *Governance for the Millennium Development Goals: Core Issues and Good Practices*. The 7th Global Forum on Reinventing Government Building Trust in Government 26-29 June 2007, Vienna, Austria.

Gregory R. 2007. Accountability in Modern Government. (In Peters, G. & Pierre, J. 2007. (Eds.). *The Handbook of Public Administration: Concise Paperback Edition*. London: Sage Publications. (Pp. 339-350).

Heigham, J & Crocker, RA. 2009 (Eds.). *Qualitative research in applied linguistics: A practical introduction*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Herbert, R & Gruzd, S. 2009. *The African peer review mechanism: Lessons from the pioneers*. Johannesburg: The South African Institute of International Affairs.

Hesse-Biber, SN & Leavy, P. 2011. *The practice of qualitative research, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed*. London: Sage.

Heymans, C. 2002. Establishing Sound Partnership Principles; In Plummer, J. 2002. (Ed.) *Focusing Partnerships: A Sourcebook for Municipal Capacity Building in Public-Private Partnerships*. London: Earthscan Publications, (Pp.213-230)

Horn, N. 2010. The Forerunners of the Namibian Constitution. (In Bosl, A., Horn, N, & Du Pisani, A. 2010 (Eds.). *Constitutional Democracy in Namibia: A Critical Analysis after Two Decades*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia. (Pp. 3-15).

Hyden, G. 2007. Challenges to decentralised governance in weak states. (In Cheema, G.S. & Rondinelli, D.A. 2007. *Decentralised Governance: Emerging Concepts and Practices*. Washington D.C: Brookings Institution Press. (Pp. 212-228).

Ipinge, S.M. 2001. *Quality in education and access to education in Namibia: Goals of education after years*.

Jacobs, W.R.1993. The Relevance of Stratification Analysis for Planning and Development in Namibia. (In Prah, K.K. 1993 (Ed.). *Social Science Research Priorities for Namibia*. Epindust: Creda Press. (Pp. 36-42).

Jolly, R., Emmeriji, L., Ghai, D. & Lapeyre, F. 2004. *UN Contributions to Development Thinking and Practice*. Indianapolis: Indiana University Press.

Jones, R & Pendlebury, M. 1996. *Public sector accounting (4<sup>th</sup> Ed)*. London: Pitman.

Kaapama, F., Blaauw, L., Zaaruka, B & Kaakunga, E. 2007. *Consolidating democratic governance in Southern Africa: Namibia*. Johannesburg: EISA.

Kets De Vries, M. 2006. *The Leadership Mystique: Leading Behaviour in the Human Enterprise*. London: Prentice Hall.

Keulder, C. 2010. "Introduction". In Keulder, C. 2010 (ed). *State, society and democracy: A reader in Namibian politics*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia.

Kets De Vries, M. 2006. *The Leadership Mystique: Leading Behaviour in the Human Enterprise*. London: Prentice Hall

Keyter, C. 2007. *Reinventing service delivery in Namibia*. Conference paper presented at International Conference on Entrepreneurship and Innovation, Polytechnic of Namibia - Windhoek.

Koliba, C., Meek, JW & Zia, A. 2011. *Governance networks in public administration and public policy*. London: CRC Press.

Kruger, G. 2008. The Golden Age of the Pastoralists: Namibia in the 19<sup>th</sup> Century .In Zimmerer, J. & Zeller, J. 2008. (Eds.). *Genocide in German South West Africa: The Colonial War of 1904-1908 and its Aftermath*. Berlin: Merlin Press. (Pp. 3-16).

Lee, RM & Fielding, NG. 2004. "Tools for qualitative data analysis". In Hardy, M & Bryman, A. 2004 (Eds.). *Handbook of data analysis*. London: Sage, (Pp530-546).

Leedy, PD & Ormrod, JE. 2010. *Practical research: Planning and design*. 9<sup>th</sup> Ed. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.

Lockwood, M. 2006. *The state they' re in: An agenda for international action on poverty in Africa*. Warwickshire: Practical Action Publishing.

Loffler, E. 2009. "Public governance in a network society". In Bovaird, T & Loffler, E. (Eds.). 2009. *Public management and governance*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. New York: Routledge (pp. 215-232).

Maheshwari, S.R. 2007. Good Governance: Its Theory and Practice in India. (In Farazmand, A. & Pinkowski, J. 2007 (Eds.). *Handbook of Globalisation, Governance, and Public Administration*. Boca Raton: Taylor and Francis. (Pp. 313-324).

Marczyk, G., DeMAteo, D & Festinger, D. 2005. *Essentials of research design and methodology*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Mason, J & Davies, K. 2011. "Experimenting with qualitative methods: Researching family resemblance". In Mason, J & Dale, A. 2011 (eds.). *Understanding social research: Thinking creative about method*. London: Sage,(pp. 33-48).

Matthews, B. & Ross, L. 2010. *Research Methods: A Practical Guide for the Social Sciences*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

McCourt, W. 2013. *Models of Public Service Reform: A Problem Solving Approach*. Washington DC: World Bank.

McLennan, A. 2009. "Delivery paradox". In McLennan, A & Munslow, B. 2009 (eds.). *The politics of service delivery*. Johannesburg: Wits University Press.

Melber, H. 2010. The Impact of the Constitution on State and Nation Building. (In Bosl, A. & Du Pisani, A. 2010. (Eds.). *Constitutional Democracy in Namibia: A Critical Analysis after two Decades*. Windhoek: MacMillan Education Namibia). (Pp. 35-44).

Minnaar, F & Bekker, K. 2005. *Public Management in the Information Age*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mouton, J. 2011. *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies: A South African guide and resource book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Muhith, AMA. 2007. *Good governance*. Internet material.

Neather, E. 2008. Introduction to English Edition. .In Zimmerer, J. & Zeller, J. 2008. (Eds.). *Genocide in German South West Africa: The Colonial War of 1904-1908 and its Aftermath*. Berlin: Merlin Press. (Pp. I-xxxvi).

Nef, J. 2007. Public Administration and Public Sector Reform in Latin America. (In Peters, G. & Pierre, J. 2007. (Eds.). *The Handbook of Public Administration: Concise Paperback Edition*. London: Sage Publications. (Pp. 323-335).

Olowu, D. 2004. Governance, Institutional and Public Policy Reform in Southern Africa. (In Olowu, D. & Mukwena, R. 2004. (Eds.). *Governance in Southern Africa and Beyond: Experiences of Institutional and Public Policy Reform in Developing Countries*. Windhoek: Gamsberg Macmillan. Pp.3-20).

Patton, MQ. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Peters, G. & Pierre, J. 2012. Introduction: The Role of Public Administration in Governing. (In Peters, G. & Pierre, J. 2012. (Eds.). *The Handbook of Public Administration: Concise Paperback Edition*. London: Sage Publications. (Pp. 1-12).

Pickard, AJ. 2008. *Research methods in information*. London: Facet.

Pierre, J & Peters, BG. 2000. *Governance, politics and the state*. New York: St. Martin Press.

Pieterse, E. 2002. Participatory Local Governance in the Making. In Parnell, S., Pieterse, E., Swilling, M., & Wooldridge, D. 2002, (Eds.). *Democratising Local Government: The South African experiment*. Landsdowne; University of Cape Town Press.

Plummer, J. 2002. A Strategic Framework for Municipal Capacity Building; In Plummer, J. 2002. (Ed.) *Focusing Partnerships: A Sourcebook for Municipal Capacity Building in Public-Private Partnerships*. London: Earthscan Publications, (Pp.9-16).

Plummer, J. and Gentry, B. 2002. Establishing Appropriate Organisational and Contractual Arrangements; In Plummer, J. 2002. (Ed.) *Focusing Partnerships: A Sourcebook for Municipal Capacity Building in Public-Private Partnerships*. London: Earthscan Publications, (Pp. 179-211)

Pope, J. 2007. Dimensions of Transparency in Governance. (In Cheema, G.S. & Rondinelli, D.A. 2007. *Decentralised Governance: Emerging Concepts and Practices*. Wahington D.C: Brookings Institution Press. (Pp.115-150).

Prinsloo, E.D. 2000. Ubuntu Culture and Participatory Management. In Coetzee, P.H. & Roux, A.P.J. 2000. (Eds.). *Philosophy From Africa: A Text with Readngs*. London: Routledge. (Pp. 41-51).

Reitan, EA. 2003. *The Thatcher revolution: Margret Thatcher, John Major, Tony Blair and the transformation of modern Britain (1979-2001)*. New York: Rowman & Littlefield.

Ridenour, CS & Newman, I. (2008). *Mixed methods research: Exploring the interactive continuum*. Carbondale: South Illinois University Press.

Robinson, J.A. 2009. *Botswana as a role model for country success*. Helsinki: UNU-WIDER.



Rothstein, B. 2012. Political Legitimacy for Public Administration. (In Peters, G. & Pierre, J. 2012. (Eds.). *The Handbook of Public Administration: Concise Paperback Edition*. London: Sage Publications. (Pp. 407-421).

Sandima, H.J. 1995. *Africa's Agenda: The Legacy of Liberalism and Colonialism in the Crisis of Africa Values*. London: Greenwood Press.

Schmidt, M. 2009. *Poverty and inequality in Namibia: An overview*. Windhoek: In Institute for Public Policy Research and Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

Sebudubudu, D. 2010. The Impact of Good Governance on Development and Poverty in Africa: Botswana- A Relatively Successful African Initiative. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations* 4(7): 249-262.

Shafritz, JM. & Hyde, A.C. 2012. *Public Administration: Classic Readings, 7<sup>th</sup> Ed.* Wadsworth: Cengage Learning.

Shank, GD. 2006. *Qualitative research: A personal skills approach. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.* Upper Saddle River: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Sherazi, M. 2011. Explaining the Constitution. (In Namibia Institute for Democracy (NID), and Institute for Public Policy Research (IPPR). 2011. *The Constitution in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: Perspective on the Context and Future of Namibia's Supreme Law*. Windhoek: John Meinert Printing.

Shilongo, E. 2004. *Historical Overview of Educational Assessment in Namibia, Education Reform Forum*, September 2004.

Shivute, P. 2008. The Rule of Law in Sub-Saharan Africa. An Overview. In Horn, N. & Bosl, A. 2008. *Human Rights and the Rule of Law in Namibia*. Windhoek: Konrad Adenauer Stiftung. (Pp.213-220).

Skelcher, C. 2008. Does governance performance? Concepts, evidence, causalities and research strategies, In Hartley, J., Donaldson, C., Skelcher, C. & Wallace. 2008. *Managing to improve public services*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Snape, D & Spencer, L. 2012. "The foundations of qualitative research". In Ritchie, J & Lewis, J. 2012 (Eds.). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage, (pp1-23.).

Stake, RE. 2012. "Qualitative case studies". In Denzin, NK & Lincoln, YS. 2012 (Eds.). *Strategies of qualitative inquiry*. London: Sage.

Stewart, TD. 2002. *Principles of research in communication*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Stoll, P.T. 2011. Global Governance and the Private Sector. (In Ahrens, J., Caspers, R. & Weingarh, J. 2011. *Good Governance in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Conflict, Institutional Change, and Development in the Era of Globalisation*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd. Pp.263-271.).

Stringer, ET. 2007. *Action research* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). London: Sage.

Swanepoel, H. & De Beer, F. 2010. *Community Development: Breaking the Cycle of Poverty*, 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. Cape Town: Juta & Co Ltd.

Sweeney-Bindels, E. 2012. *Housing Policy and Delivery in Namibia*. Windhoek: Institute for Public Policy Research.

Szeremeta, J. & Kerby, R. 2007. E-Government: Providing Values to Citizens. In United Nations. 2007. *Public Administration and Democratic Governance: Government Serving Citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> Global Forum on Reinventing Government Building Trust in Government*, 26-29 June 2007, Vienna, Austria, pp.142-173.

Totemeyer, G.K.H. 2004. The Legitimacy of Modern Self-Government: The Namibia Case. (In Olowu, D. & Mukwena, R. 2004. (Eds.). *Governance in Southern Africa and Beyond: Experiences of Institutional and Public Policy Reform in Developing Countries*. Windhoek: Gamsberg Macmillan. Pp.61-84).

Totemeyer, G.K.H. 2010. Decentralisation and State-Building at the Local Level. (In Keulder, C. 2010. (Ed). *State, Society and Democracy: A Reader in Namibian Politics*. Windhoek: Macmillan Education Namibia. (Pp.108-149).

United Nations Development Programme. 2006. *Governance for the future: Democracy and development in the least developed countries*. New York: UNDP.

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. 2006. *The State of Governance in Botswana 2004: Final Report*. Gaborone: Bay Publishing Ltd.

United Nations. 2008. *World Urbanisation Prospects: the 2007 Revision*. New York: United Nations Economic and Social Affairs.

Van der Waldt, G. 2007. "Fostering local democracy". In Van Der Waldt, G. 2007 (ed). *Municipal management: Servicing the people*. Lansdowne: Juta.

Von Oertzen, D. 2009. *Namibia's Electricity Supply*. Swakopmund: VO Consulting.

Von Oertzen, D. 2010. *Meeting Changing Needs: Namibia's Electricity Supply Sector*. Swakopmund: VO Consulting.

VonDoepp, P. & Villalon, L.A. 2005. Elites, Institutions, and the Varied Trajectories of Africa's Third Wave Democracies. In Villalon, L.A. & VonDoepp, P. 2005 (Eds.). *The Fate of Africa's Democratic Experiments: Elites and Institutions*. Indianapolis: Indian University Press. (Pp. 1-26).

Wallace, M. & Kinahan, J. 2011. *A History of Namibia*. Cape Town: Jacana.

Weingarth, J. & Wiederer, A. 2011. Africa: Sad Proof that Institutions Do Matter. (In Ahrens, J., Caspers, R. & Weingarth, J. 2011. *Good Governance in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: Conflict, Institutional Change, and Development in the Era of Globalisation*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd. Pp.175-204.).

Welman, JC & Kruger, SJ. 2002. *Research methodology*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Oxford University Press.

World Bank. 2010. *Malaysian Economic Monitor: Growth through Innovation*. Washington DC: World Bank.

Yin, RK. 2003. *Case study research: Design and methods*, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Zimmerer, J. 2008. The Model Colony: Racial Segregation, Forced Labour and Total Control in the German South West Africa. In Zimmerer, J. & Zeller, J. 2008. (Eds.). *Genocide in German South West Africa: The Colonial War of 1904-1908 and its Aftermath*. Berlin: Merlin Press. (Pp. 17-37).

### **Acts of Parliament**

Government of Republic of Namibia. 1993. *National Housing Enterprise Act 5 of 1993*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 1990. *The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia Act 1990 (Act 1 of 1990)*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 1992. *Local Authorities Act (Act 23 of 1992)*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 1992. *Regional Councils Act (Act 22 of 1992)*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 1995. *Public Service Act (Act 13 of 1995)*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2000. *National Housing Development Act 28 of 2000*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2000. *Decentralisation Enabling Act (Act 33 of 2000)*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2001. *Education act 16 of 2001*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2002. *Communal Land Reform Act (Act 5 of 2002)*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2004. *Water Resources Management Act 24 of 2004*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2007. *Electricity Act 4 of 2007*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2010. *Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management Act 10 of 2010*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2010. *Special Advisors and Regional Government Appointment Act 2010 (Act 15 of 2010)*. Windhoek: Ministry of Justice.

Government of Republic of South Africa. 1996. *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, No. 108 of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

### **Government Publications**

Anti-Corruption Commission. 2010. ACC Strategic Plan 2010-2014. Anti-Corruption Commission: Government Printers.

Anti-Corruption Commission. 2011. *Namibia National Urban Corruption Perception Survey Report 2011*. Anti-Corruption Commission: Government Printers.

Anti-Corruption Commission. 2012. *Annual Report 2011-2012*. Anti-Corruption Commission: Government Printers.

Anti-Corruption Commission. 2013. *Annual Report 2012-2013*. Anti-Corruption Commission: Government Printers.

Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry. 2008. *Water Supply and Sanitation Policy*. Windhoek: Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry.

Ministry of Basic Education and Culture. 2004. *National Report on the Development of Education in Namibia*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Finance. 2011. *Medium Term Expenditure Framework 2011/2014*. Windhoek: Ministry of Finance.

Ministry of Education. 2013. *Sector Policy on Inclusive education*. Ministry of Education: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education. 2012. *Strategic Plan 2012-2017*. Ministry of Education: Government Printers.

Ministry of Finance. 2012. *Budget Statement of 2012/13, Fiscal sustainability and Job Creating Growth, by Honourable Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila*. Windhoek: Ministry of Finance.

Ministry of Finance. 2013. *Budget Statement of 2013/14, Growing the Economy, Optimising Development Outcomes, by Honourable Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila*. Windhoek: Ministry of Finance.

Ministry of Finance. 2014. *Budget Statement of 2014/15, Inclusive Growth and Fiscal Sustainability, by Honourable Saara Kuugongelwa-Amadhila*. Windhoek: Ministry of Finance.

Ministry of Health and Social Services. 2008. *Health and Social Services System Review*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Health and Social Services. 2009. *Strategic Plan 2009-2013*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Health and Social Services. 2013. *Annual Report 2012/2013*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Labour and Social Service. 2008. *Namibia Labour Force Survey*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Mines and Energy. 1998. *Energy White Paper. Ministry of Mines and Energy*: Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Regional, Local Government, Housing and Urban Development, 1998. *Decentralisation Policy*. Windhoek: Government Printers

Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development. 2009. *National Housing Policy, Cabinet Approved 1991 and Reviewed in 2009*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development. 2009. *Strategic Plan 2009-2014*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Namibia Institute of Public Administration and Management (NIPAM). 2012. *Annual Report 10 October 2010 to 31 March 2012*. Windhoek: NIPAM.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2010. *Namibia Household Income & Expenditure Survey (NHIES) 2009/2010*. Windhoek: Namibia Statistics Agency.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2012. *Namibia 2011 Population and housing census regional tables*. Windhoek: Namibia Statistics Agency.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2012. *Population and housing census 2011 preliminary results*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2012. *Namibia Population and housing census basic report 2011*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2012. *Population and Housing Census 2011*. Windhoek: Namibia Statistics Agency.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2013. *Namibia Labour Force Survey Report*. Windhoek: Namibia Statistics Agency.

Namibia Statistics Agency. 2013. *Profile of Namibia: Facts, Figures, and other Fundamental Information*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

National Planning Commission. 2007. *Oshana Regional Poverty Profile: Village-level Participatory Poverty Assessments between 2005 and 2006*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

National Planning Commission. 2007. *Third National development plan 2007/08-2011/12*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

National Planning Commission. 2011. *Targeted Intervention Programme for Employment and Economic Growth*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

National Planning Commission. 2012. *Namibia 2011 Population and Housing Census Preliminary Results*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

National Planning Commission. 2012. *Namibia's Fourth National Development Plan 2012/13 to 2016/17*. Windhoek: Government Printers.



National Planning Commission. 2013. *Namibia's Fourth National Development Plan 2012/2013-2016/2017*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Office of the Ombudsman. 2011. *Annual Report 2010 - 2011*. Office of the Ombudsman: Government Printers.

Office of the Ombudsman. 2012. *Annual Report 2011- 2012*. Office of the Ombudsman: Government Printers.

Office of the President. 2004. *Namibia 2004 Millennium Development Goals*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Office of the President. 2004. *Namibia Vision 2030: Policy Framework for Long-Term National Development. Summary Document*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Office of the President. 2008. *State of the Nation Address*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Office of the President. 2009. *State of the Nation Address*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Office of the President. 2011. *State of the Nation Address*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Office of the President. 2013. *Presidential Commission Report into the Activities, Affairs, Management and Operations of the Ministry of Health and Social Services in Namibia*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Office of the President. 2013. *State of the Nation Address delivered in Parliament on 3 April 2013*. Windhoek: Office of the President.

Oshana Regional Councils. 2001. *Oshana Regional Development Plan 2001/02 -2005/06*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 1998. *Decentralisation Policy*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2004. *Civic Organisations Partnership Policy*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Government of Republic of Namibia. 2006. *Second National Development Plan (NDP2): Regional Development Perspectives*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2006. *Second National Development Plan (NDP2): Regional Development Perspectives*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2007. *Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme: Planning for a Learning Nation, Programme Document: Phase 1 (2006-2011)*. Windhoek: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2008. *State of the Nation Address by His Excellence, Hifikepunye Pohamba, the President of the Republic of Namibia*. Windhoek: State House.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2008. *Third National Development Plan (NDP3), 2007/2008-2011/2012. Volume 1*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2008. *Water Supply and Sanitation Policy*. Windhoek: Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2009. *Auditor-General Report: Report of the Auditor-General on the Account of the Regional Council of the Oshana Region for the Year ended 31 March 2008 and 2009*. Auditor-General Office: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2009. *Decentralisation Policy Framework*. Windhoek: Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2009. *State of the Nation Address by His Excellence, Hifikepunye Pohamba, the President of the Republic of Namibia*. Windhoek: State House.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2010. *Auditor-General Report: Audit Report on the Accounts of the Town Council of Ongwediva for the Year ended 30 June 2010*. Auditor-General Office: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2010. *Namibia Public Service Charter*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2010. *Auditor-General Report: Audit Report on the Accounts of the Town Council of Ondangwa for the Year ended 30 June 2010*. Auditor-General Office: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2011. *Auditor-General Report: Audit Report on the Accounts of the Town Council of Oshakati for the Year ended 30 June 2010 and 2011*. Auditor-General Office: Government Printers.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2011. *State of the Nation Address by His Excellence, Hifikepunye Pohamba, the President of the Republic of Namibia*. Windhoek: State House.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2012. *Namibia's Fourth National Development Plan, 2012/13 to 2016/17*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2012. *National Human Resources Plans 2010-2025*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2013. *The Government's Accountability Report 2012/2013*. Windhoek: National Planning Commission.

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2013. *Statement by His excellence, Hifikepunye Pohamba, the President of the Republic of Namibia on the Occasion of the announcement of the President on the Recommendations of the 4<sup>th</sup> Delimitation Commission*. Windhoek: State House.

### **Other publications**

Electricity Control Board. 2012. Annual Report of 2012. Windhoek: Electricity Control Board.

Electricity Control Board. 2013. Annual Report of 2013. Windhoek: Electricity Control Board.

European Commission & Republic of Namibia. 2009. *Namibia Sanitation Strategy 2010/11-2014/15: Sanitation Situational Analysis Report*. Windhoek: European Commission/Government of the Republic of Namibia.

Saha, S. & Jayawickrama, S. 2010. *Approaches to Development and humanitarian actions: NGO profiles and synthesis*. Hauser Centre for non-profit organisations: Harvard University.

### **Conference papers**

Cheema, G S. 2007. “Linking governments and citizens through democratic governance”, In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: government serving citizens. the 7<sup>th</sup> global forum on reinventing government building trust in Government*, 26-29 June 2007 pp.29-51. Vienna, Austria: UNPD.

Katorobo, J. 2007. “Decentralisation and local autonomous for participatory democracy”. In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: Government serving citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> global Forum on reinventing government building trust in government*, 26-29 June 2007, pp.237-267. Vienna, Austria.

Pope, J. 2007. “Dimensions of transparency in governance”. In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: Government serving citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> global forum on reinventing government building trust in government*, 26-29 June 2007, pp.115-165. Vienna, Austria.

Rizvi, G. 2007. “Reinventing government: putting democracy and social justice back into the discourse”. In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: government serving citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> global forum on reinventing government building trust in government*, 26-29 June 2007, pp.78-115. Vienna, Austria.

Rondinelli, DA. 2007. “Governments serving people: The changing roles of public administration in democratic governance”. In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: government serving citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> global forum on reinventing government building trust in government*, 26-29 June 2007, pp.1-28. Vienna, Austria.

Satterthwaite, D. 2007. "Participatory governance in cities". In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: Government serving citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> global forum on reinventing government building trust in government*, 26-29 June 2007, pp.268-312. Vienna, Austria.

Tommasoli, M. 2007. "Representative democracy and capacity development for responsible politics". In United Nations. 2007. *Public administration and democratic governance: government serving citizens. The 7<sup>th</sup> global forum on reinventing government building trust in government*, 26-29 June 2007, pp.52-77. Vienna, Austria.

Totemeyer, GKH. 1993. "Introduction and comparative perspectives: Regionalism-Namibia experiences". In Humphries, R & Rapoo, T. 1993 (Eds.). *Governing the provinces: Proceedings of the two conferences convened by the centre for policy studies on forming new governments in Southern Africa regions*. Centre for policy Studies: Doornfontein.

## **Journals**

Baxter, P & Jack, S. 2008. "Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers". *The Qualitative Report* Volume 13 Number 4 December 2008: 544-559.

Cohen, S.A. 1993. "Defining and measuring effectiveness in public management"; in *Public Productivity and Management Review*, 17 (1): 45-57.

Diale, A., Maserumule, H. & Mello, D. 2007. Public Sector Administrative Reforms and Accountability: A Marriage of Inconvenience. *Journal of Public Administration*, Volume 42. Issue 7: 638-649.

Kakaza, L. & Ntonzima, L. The Adverse Impact of Some Community Development Projects on Non-Recipients. In *Administratio Publica*. Volume 18. Issue 4: .208-224.

Holtzhausen, N. 2004. The Role of Ethics and Values in Securing Public Accountability. In *Administratio Publica*. Volume 18. Issue 4: 261-280.

Sebudubudu, D. 2010. "The impact of good governance on development and poverty in Africa: Botswana- A relatively successful African initiative". *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations* 4(7): 249-262.

### **Internet Sources**

Aborisade, F. 2008. Research methodology for investigative journalism: An introduction. Centre for media and labour studies. Available:

<http://molambore.wordpress.com/2008/03/14/research-methodology-for-investigative-journalism-an-introduction1>. (21 July 2013).

African Development Bank. 2009. Namibia Country Strategy Paper 2009-2013. March 2009. [Online]. Available: <http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Namibia-CSP-OPs%20COM%206.pdf>. (31 October 2013).

African Good Governance Network. 2010. *Addressing Good Governance in Africa*. Discussion Paper at the 1<sup>st</sup> 2010 AGGN Seminar held on 21<sup>st</sup> – 27<sup>th</sup> March, in Bonn, Germany. [Online]. Available: [http://www.aggn.org/network/images/stories/Article\\_AGGN\\_AddressGoodGovernance.pdf](http://www.aggn.org/network/images/stories/Article_AGGN_AddressGoodGovernance.pdf). (18 May 2013).

Aktan, C.C & Ozler, H. 2008. *Good Governance: A New Public Managerialism*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.usak.org.tr/dosyalar/dergi/KyEcGJfbGfzYkvjh4Bq4zLcitmyZn3.pdf> . (15 August 2013).

Ayee, J.R.A. 2005. Public Sector Management in Africa: Economic Research Working Paper No 82 (November 2005). [Online]. Available: <http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/00457499-EN-ERWP-82.PDF>. (29 January 2014).

Badun, M. 2013. *Governance and Public Administration in the Context of Croatian Accession to the European Union*. [Online]. Available:

<http://www.ijf.hr/eng/Eu2/Badjun.pdf>. (18 May 2013).

Bertucci, G. 2007. Forward: governance for millennium development goals: Core issues and good practices. Available:

<http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpa025110.pdf>. [23 March.2013].

Besley, T. & Ghatak, M. 2007. Reforming Public Service Delivery. [Online]. Available:

<http://econ.lse.ac.uk/staff/mghatak/jae.pdf>. (23 November 2013)

Bovaird, T. & Lofter, E. 2003. Evaluating the Quality of Public Governance: Indicators, Models and Methodologies. [Online]. Available: [.http://ras.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/69/3/313](http://ras.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/69/3/313). (12 December 2013).

Briggs, L. 2007. Contemporary Government Challenges: Building Better Governance. [Online]. Available:

[http://www.apsc.gov.au/\\_data/assets/pdf\\_file/0010/7597/bettergovernance.pdf](http://www.apsc.gov.au/_data/assets/pdf_file/0010/7597/bettergovernance.pdf). (12 November 2013).

Brown, G.G. & Barnett, J.H. 2009. Social Organisation and Social Structure. *America Anthropologist*. Vol.44 Issue 1. (31-36). [Online]. Available:

<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1525/aa.1942.44.1.02a00040/abstract>. (30 January 2014).

Caldeira, E., Foucault, M. & Rota-Graziosi, G. 2010. Decentralisation in Africa and the Nature of Local Government Competition: Evidence from Benin. [Online]. Available:

<http://www.cerdi.org/uploads/ed/2010/2010.19.pdf>. (2 January 2014).

Charbit, C. 2011. *Governance of Public Policies in Decentralised Contexts: The Multi-Level Approach*. Paris: OECD. [Online]. Available:

<http://www.oecd.org/gov/regional-policy/48724565.pdf>. (7 August 2013).

Commonwealth Local Government Forum. 2009. Local government system in Namibia. [Online]. Available: <http://www.docin.com/p-555871294.html>. (3 October 2014).

Cronbach, LT & Meehl, PE. 1955. Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin*. Vol. 52. No.4. Available: <http://marces.org/EDms623/Cronbach%20%26%20Meehl>. (22 July 2013).

Damak-Ayadi, S., and Pesqueux, Y. 2005. Stakeholder Theory in Perspective. *Corporate Governance, Wiley-Blackwell*, 2005, 5 (2), pp.5-21. [Online]. Available: <https://halshs.archives-ouvertes.fr/halshs-00154129/document>. (9 February 2015).

Dax, T. 2008. *Delivering Services in Sparsely Populated areas*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.oecd.org/rural/krasnoyarsk/37619762.pdf>. (27 August 2013)

Diarra, G & Plane, P. 2011. Assessing the World Bank's Influence on the Good Governance Paradigm. [Online]. Available: [www.cerdi.org/uploads/ed/2011/2011.27.pdf](http://www.cerdi.org/uploads/ed/2011/2011.27.pdf). (1 August 2013).

Diescho, J. 2000. A Namibian perspective on good governance and ethics. Available: <https://www.nid.org.na/pub-docs/ethics.pdf>. (14.March.2013)

Fox, NJ. 2011. Induction: The sage encyclopaedia of qualitative research methods. Available: [www.Sage.pub.com/chamliss4e/study/chapter/encyc\\_pdf/\\_Induction.pdf](http://www.Sage.pub.com/chamliss4e/study/chapter/encyc_pdf/_Induction.pdf). (23 March 2014).

Freeman, L 1992. Contradictions of Independence: Namibia in Transition. [Online]. Available: <http://archive.lib.msu.edu/DMC/African%20Journals/pdfs/transformation/tran017/tran017004.pdf> (29 July 2014)

Freeman, R.E .2004. "A Stakeholder Theory of Modern Corporations", *Ethical Theory and Business*, 7th ed. [Online]. Available: <http://www.martonomily.com/sites/default/files/attach/Stakeholders%20theory.pdf>. (20 February 2015).

Fukuyama, F. 2011. What is Governance. Available: <http://fukuyama.stanford.edu/files/What%20Is%20Governance.pdf>. (14 March 2014).



- Goeieman, F. 2013. Namibians Still Gripped by Fear-Diescho. Available: <https://www.nshr.org.na/index.php?module+News&func+display&sid+1884>. [12 March 2013]
- Grandy, C. 2008. The efficient public administrator: Pareto and a well-rounded approach to public administration. Available: <https://www2.hawaii.edu/~grandy/Writings/efficiencyPaper-PrePrint081308.pdf>. (13March2013).
- Hegedüs, J., Péteri, G & Tönkö, A. 2013. Effects of governance models on affordability, sustainability and efficiency of the water services in three transition countries (Armenia, Hungary, Romania). Available: [http://www.gdn.int/html/workingpapers.php?mode=download&file=WP83-Hungary-Water\\_27d.pdf](http://www.gdn.int/html/workingpapers.php?mode=download&file=WP83-Hungary-Water_27d.pdf). (14 March 2014).
- Holmes, B. 2011. *Citizen Engagement in Policymaking and the Design of Public Services*. [Online]. Available: [http://www.aph.gov.au/About\\_Parliament/Parliamentary\\_Departments/Parliamentary\\_Library/pubs/rp/rp1112/12rp01](http://www.aph.gov.au/About_Parliament/Parliamentary_Departments/Parliamentary_Library/pubs/rp/rp1112/12rp01). (13 August 2013).
- Hopwood, G. 2005. Regional Councils and Decentralisation: At the Crossroads. [Online]. Available: [http://www.nid.org.na/pub\\_docs/no7\\_04.pdf](http://www.nid.org.na/pub_docs/no7_04.pdf). (12 January 2014).
- Hossen, M. & Anwar, K.A. 2011. *Problems and Possibilities of Good Governance in Bangladesh Hurdles to Achieve Sustainable Development*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.academia.edu/1292123/>. (30 July 2013).
- International Federation of Accountants, 2013. Good governance in the public sector: consultation draft for international framework. Available: <http://www.ifac.org/sites/default/files/publications/files/Good-Governance-in-the-Public-Sector.pdf>. (25 November 2013).
- Kapika, J. & Eberhard, A. 2010. Assessing Regulatory Performance: The Case of the Namibian Electricity Supply Industry. [Online]. Available: <http://www.erc.uct.ac.za/jesa/volume21/21-4jesa-kapika-eberhard.pdf>. (19 February 2014).

Kauzya, J.M. & Balogun, J. 2005. Governance and Public Administration Reforms and Innovations in African Countries: A Focus on the Achievements, Setbacks and Future Direction. [Online]. Available: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan019929.pdf>. (22 November 2013).

Kiwanuka, M.2010. Decentralisation and Good Governance in Africa: Institutional Challenges to Uganda's Local Governments. [Online]. Available: [www.jaalgs.net/journal/index.php/jals/article/download/23/20](http://www.jaalgs.net/journal/index.php/jals/article/download/23/20). (6 January 2014).

Kuusi, S. 2009. Aspects of Local Self Government. [Online]. Available: <http://www.kunnat.net/fi/palvelualueet/pohjoinen-etela/kuntatieto/namibia/Documents/Namibia%20Aspects%20of%20Local%20Self%20Government.doc>. 12 January 2014).

Ladi, S. 2008. *Good Governance and Public Administration Reform in the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC) Members States*. [Online]. Available: [http://www.icbss.org/media/110\\_original.pdf](http://www.icbss.org/media/110_original.pdf). (18 May 2013).

Latham, B. 2007. Sampling, what it is: Quantitative research methods. Available: [http://webpages.acs.ttu.edu/rlatham/Coursework/5377\(Quant\)\)/Sampling\\_Methodology.Paper.pdf](http://webpages.acs.ttu.edu/rlatham/Coursework/5377(Quant))/Sampling_Methodology.Paper.pdf). (21 July 2013).

Locke, J. 1690. *Two Treatises of Government*. In Laslett, P. 1965. (ed). New York: Mentor Books, New American Library. [Online]. Available: <http://press-pubs.uchicago.edu/founders/documents/v1ch17s5.html>. (19 September 2013).

Malumo, R., 2012. Vision 2030 - Namibia's roadmap to Industrialization: will NDP 4 achieve greater heights? [Online]. Available: [http://209.88.21.36/opencms/export/sites/default/grnnet/MICTv2/DocArchive/Publications/NR\\_March-Apr.2012xfinalx.pdf](http://209.88.21.36/opencms/export/sites/default/grnnet/MICTv2/DocArchive/Publications/NR_March-Apr.2012xfinalx.pdf). (12 October 2014).

Mandl, U., Dierx, A & Ilzkovitz, F. 2008. The effectiveness and efficiency of public spending. [Online]. Available:

[http://ec.europa.eu/economy\\_finance/publications/publication11902\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/economy_finance/publications/publication11902_en.pdf). (14 March 2014).

Maphunye, K. J. 2009. Public Administration for a Democratic Developmental State in Africa: Prospects and Possibilities. (Online). Available:

<http://www.cps.org.za/cps%20pdf/RR114.pdf>. (13 November 2013).

Matali, M. 2012. New Employment Projects for the Youth. [Online]. Available:

[http://209.88.21.36/opencms/export/sites/default/grnnet/MICTv2/DocArchive/Publications/NR\\_March-Apr.2012xfinalx.pdf](http://209.88.21.36/opencms/export/sites/default/grnnet/MICTv2/DocArchive/Publications/NR_March-Apr.2012xfinalx.pdf). 4 March 2014.

Mello, DM. 2007. Intergovernmental relations in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Published Thesis. University of Pretoria. Available: <http://upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-09182007-155614/unrestricted/00front.pdf>. (29 May 2014).

Mercy Corps Team. 2011. Mercy Corps Good Governance Framework Model. [Online]. Available: [http://www.mercycorps.org/sites/default/files/tsu\\_gap\\_external\\_r3\\_2.pdf](http://www.mercycorps.org/sites/default/files/tsu_gap_external_r3_2.pdf) (16 June 2013)

Mercy Corps Team. 2011. Mercy Corps' guide to good governance programming. Available: <https://www.mercycorps.org/gsd/docs/MCGoodGovernanceGuide.pdf>. (27 March 2013).

Mijiga, F. 2001. Public participation in the legislative process: A summary of results for nation-wide regional survey and a national conference conducted by the national council and the national democratic institute between April and October 2000. Available: ([http://www.ndi.org/files/1408\\_na\\_publicpart\\_093101.pdf](http://www.ndi.org/files/1408_na_publicpart_093101.pdf)). (29 April 2013).

Mizell, L & Allain-Dupre, D. 2013. *Creating Conditions for Effective Public Investment: Sub-National Capacities in Multi-Level Governance Context*. OECD Regional Development Working Papers, 2013/04. OECD Publishing. [Online]. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5k49j2cjbv5mq-en>. (27 August 2013).

Mouzas, S. (n.d.). Effectiveness versus effectiveness. Available:  
<https://www.impgroup.org/uploads/papers/4729.pdf>. (28 February.2013).

Mulikita, N.M. 2002. *Good Governance in Zambia's Public Administration: Challenges and Opportunities*. [Online]. Available:  
<http://www.unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/CAFRAD/UNPAN009299.pdf>  
(30 July 2013).

Muriisa, R.K. 2008. Decentralisation in Uganda: Prospects of Improved Service Delivery. (In *African development Journal*. Vol. XXXIII, No.4 (Pp. 83-95). [Online]. Available:  
<http://www.ajol.info/index.php/ad/article/view/57344/45724>. (6 August 2013).

Naidoo, G. 2004. Leadership and governance for a sustainable public service: The case for selected South African public service organizations. Published thesis. University of Pretoria. [Online]. Available: <http://upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-03302005-105316/>. (24 October 2013).

Namibian History. [Online]. Available:  
<http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/plaintexthistories.asp?historyid=ad32#ixzz2mdSRKR3Y>  
(21 September 2014).

NAMPOWER. 2014. Rural electrification. [Online] Available:  
<http://www.nampower.com.na/Page.aspx?p=149>. 19 January 2015.

Nayyar, D. 2012. The MDG after 2015: Some reflections on the possibilities. [Online]. Available: [http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/deepak\\_nayyar\\_Aug.pdf](http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/deepak_nayyar_Aug.pdf). (20 June 2014).

Ndue, P. N. 2005. *Democratisation, Good Governance and Administration Reform in Africa*. [Online]. Available:  
<http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/AAPAM/UNPAN025713.pdf>. (15 August 2013).

Niikondo, A. 2010. Migrants to cities and towns in Namibia: What their interests are? [Online] Available:

<http://ir.polytechnic.edu.na/bitstream/10628/249/1/Niikondo.%20Migrants%20to%20cities%20and%20towns%20in%20Namibia.pdf>. (15 October 2013).

Nyiri, Z. 2000. Decentralisation and Good Governance: Ten years of Hungarian Experience. [Online]. Available: [www.nispa.org/news/nyiri.rtf](http://www.nispa.org/news/nyiri.rtf). (6 January 2014).

Peterson, NA & Zimmerman, MA. 2004. Beyond the individual: Toward a nomological network of organisational empowerment. American journal of community psychology. Vol.34. No 12. Available: <http://deepblue.lib.urnich.edu/bitstream/handle/2027.42/44071/>. (18 July 2013).

Ribot, J.C. Africa Decentralisation: Local Actors, Powers, and Accountability. [Online]. Available:

[http://www.unrisd.org/unrisd/website/document.nsf/0/3345ac67e6875754c1256d12003e6c95/\\$FILE/ribot.pdf](http://www.unrisd.org/unrisd/website/document.nsf/0/3345ac67e6875754c1256d12003e6c95/$FILE/ribot.pdf). (2 January 2014).

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2013. Oshana regional Council: Mission and Vision. [Online]. Available:

[http://www.parliament.gov.na/national\\_council/nc\\_constituencies\\_show.php?const\\_id=77](http://www.parliament.gov.na/national_council/nc_constituencies_show.php?const_id=77) (13 June 2013).

Government of Republic of Namibia. 2010. Namibia: General Structures of Public Administration. [Online]. Available: <http://www.namibweb.com/pa.pdf>. (22 November 2013).

Sinvula, J. 2009. Regional Development Planning: A Brief Overview of the Oshana Region. [Online]. Available: [http://www.swapoparty.org/regional\\_development.html](http://www.swapoparty.org/regional_development.html). (8 January 2013).

Stillman, R.J. 2010. Public Administration: Concepts and Cases. [Online]. Available: <http://books.google.com.na/books?id=Q97BVAOxFvMC&pg=PA19&1pg=PA19&dg=eras+of+public+administration&source=b1&otz=ZvoLM97892>. (28 January 2014).

Storey, J., Bate, P., Buchanan, D., Green, R., Salaman, G. & Winchester, N. 2008. New Governance Arrangements in the NHS: Emerging Implications. [Online]. Available: [http://www7.open.ac.uk/oubs/research/pdf/SDO\\_Project\\_08\\_3.pdf](http://www7.open.ac.uk/oubs/research/pdf/SDO_Project_08_3.pdf). (29 November 2013).

SWAPO. 1989. *SWAPO Party Election Manifesto*. Windhoek: SWAPO. [Online]. Available: <http://sadblog.files.wordpress.com/2012/05/swapo-1989-manifesto-namibia.pdf>. (6 August 2013).

Totemeyer, GKH. 2000. Ethics and decentralisation. In Namibia institute for democracy. 2000. Ethics and Good Governance in Namibia. Available: <https://www.nid.org.na/pub-docs/ethics.pdf> (14 March 2013).

Totemeyer, GKH. 2001. State, society and democracy: Decentralisation and state building at the local level. Available: [https://www.kas.de/upload/aulandhomepages/namibia/State\\_Society\\_Democracy/chapter4.pdf](https://www.kas.de/upload/aulandhomepages/namibia/State_Society_Democracy/chapter4.pdf). (14.March 2013).

United Nations. 1995. Rethinking Public Administration: An Overview. New York: Department of Economics and Social Affairs. [Online]. Available: <http://www.unpan.org/Portals/0/60yrhistory/documents/Publications/Rethinking%20public%20administration.pdf>. (10 November 2013).

United Nations. 1998. Rethinking public administration: An overview. New York: Department of Economics and Social Affairs, United Nations. Available: <http://www.unpan.org/Portals/0/60yrhistory/documents/Publications/Rethinking%20public%20administration.pdf>. (10 November 2013)

United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE). 2008. Guidebook on promoting good governance in public-private partnership. New York: United Nations. [Online]. Available: [www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/ceci/publications/ppp.pdf](http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/ceci/publications/ppp.pdf). (3 April 2014).

United Nations (Department of Economic & Social Affairs). 2009. The Contribution of the United Nations to the Improvement of Public Administration: A 60-Year History. [Online]. Available:

[http://www.unpan.org/portals/0/60yrhistory/documents/book/full\\_book.pdf](http://www.unpan.org/portals/0/60yrhistory/documents/book/full_book.pdf) (29 January 2014).

United Nations. 2012. *League of Nations: Historical Security Council*. [Online]. Available <http://www.iberori.org/imun/The-League-of-Nations.pdf> (25 July 2012).

Yatta, F. & Vaillancourt, F. 2010. *Local Government Finance: The Challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, Second Global Report on Decentralisation and Local Democracy*. [Online]. Available: [http://www.urb-al3.eu/uploads/documentos/GOLD\\_II\\_ang.pdf](http://www.urb-al3.eu/uploads/documentos/GOLD_II_ang.pdf). (13 August 2013).

### **Newspaper Articles**

Angula, N. 2013. Constituencies need development funds. *New Era*, 3, October 9

Mbangula, W. 2013. Ongwediva Development Budget. *Informante*: 2, April 4 -10.

Mbangula, W.J. 2014. Oshana Stagnant NSSC Performance. *Informante*, 417, January, 23-29.

More Regions will not Improve Service Delivery. 2013. *The Namibian* 2, February 22.

Sasman, C. 2010. A Case for Rural Water Subsidies. *New Era*, 1, June, 8.

Shinovene, I. 2013. Ministries fail to utilise N\$1.2 billion. *The Namibian*, 1, October 1

Shinovene, I. 2013. Poor Households to get Free Water. *The Namibian*, 1, August 5.

Shivute, O. 2013. Ondangwa not a ghost town – Kashiupulwa. *The Namibian*, 5, May 3.

Smit, E. 2011. Namibia need coordination at all levels of government. *Namibian Sun*, 1, September, 16.

Staff Reporter. 2014. Oshana Toilet Funds Wasted Once More. *Informante*, 419, February, 6-12.

Von Francois, F. 2013. ALAN Highlights Municipal Challenges. *Namibian Sun*. 2 November, 27.

### **Theses.**

Geingob, G.H. 2004. *State Formation in Namibia: Promoting Democracy and Good Governance*. University of Leeds. Unpublished Thesis.

Mavhivha, E. 2007. *Leadership and Governance Perspectives in Local Government Administration in South Africa. Limpopo Province*. University of Pretoria. Unpublished Thesis.

Naidoo, G. 2005. *Leadership and Governance for Sustainable Public Service: The Case of Selected South African Public Service Organisations*. University of Pretoria. Unpublished Thesis.

Stortz, J. 2009. *Can integral theory develop public administration for twenty-first century challenges?* National University, California. Unpublished Master Thesis.



**Topic Title: An Evaluation of good governance and service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia: The case of the Oshana Region.**

**Dear participant,**

My name is Tuhafeni Helao. I am employed by the Polytechnic of Namibia as a Senior Lecturer. My contact details are: 061 207 2486 (w), or 0813384418/0812156136. Email [thelao@polytechnic.edu.na](mailto:thelao@polytechnic.edu.na). I am a student at the University of South Africa (UNISA), pursuing a Doctoral Degree in Public Administration. As a requirement, I have to undertake a scientific research on my chosen topic “*An Evaluation of Good Governance and Service delivery at sub-national levels in Namibia: The case of the Oshana Region*”, and subsequently write a thesis. The successful completion of the thesis will culminate in the award of the degree in question. As indicated above, I have selected the Oshana Region as my unit of analysis to conduct a scientific study and collect data. The study also includes the three Town Councils in the Region. The information required will help me to get a broader picture and understanding on good governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region in particular and Namibia in general.

You have, therefore, been selected to participate in this study. Please take note that the interview will take about **25-30 minutes**. Interview questions will be provided during the actual face-to-face interview.

The information you provide will be treated confidentially. No information will be disclosed to anyone or will be used for any other purpose other than the study in question. Your name will not appear in the thesis, and only the words “respondent, participant, public official or councillor” will be used to link your answers to the report. Please take note that your participation in this research is voluntary and you can withdraw from the study, or decline to answer interview questions any time you wish to do so.

However, by agreeing to participate in the envisaged face-to-face interview and provide answers to questions asked, it implies that you have given your consent to take part in the study. In this regard, your answers will be utilised during the writing up of this thesis.

Thanking you very much for your cooperation.

Please take note that your answers will be treated in a very confidential manner and your identity will not be exposed to any other person except the researcher (myself). There may be follow up questions (probing) to clarify certain issues.

### Structured questions

#### **A. Public officials of the Oshana Regional Council (politicians and administrative officials)**

1. How long have you been working for the Oshana Regional Council, and what are your responsibilities?
2. Can you explain to me what is meant by the concept 'good governance'?
3. Why are good governance practices important to public service and service delivery in Namibia in general and the Oshana Region in particular?
4. What governance structures does the Oshana Regional Council have in place to promote good governance practices and service delivery?
5. Tell me, and also explain the government services the Oshana Regional Council provide to communities at constituency level?
6. Mention and explain the strategies that the Oshana Region Council put in place to ensure that administrative components meet the needs of the communities at constituency level?
7. How is urbanisation affecting governance practices and service delivery in the Oshana Region in general, and the constituencies in particular?
8. What is being done by the Oshana Regional Council to mitigate the problem of migration from rural areas to towns in the Oshana Region?
9. What are the challenges facing the Oshana Regional Council face in terms of service delivery programmes and projects implementation?
10. How do you address the challenges mentioned in point 9?
11. Are there any other issues of concern regarding governance and service delivery in the Oshana Region that you want to discuss further to amplify what you have shared with me?

#### **B. Public officials at Town Council levels (politicians and administrative officials)**

1. How long have you been working for this institution, and what are your responsibilities?
2. Can you explain what is meant by the concept 'good governance'?
3. Why is good governance practices essential to Town Council in terms of service delivery in your town?
4. What governance structures did the Town Council put in place to promote good governance practices and enhance service delivery?

5. Tell me, and explain the services the Town Council provide to community members in your town?
6. Mention and explain the strategies the Town Council put in place to ensure that administrative components' activities meet the needs of the communities in your town?
7. How is urbanisation affecting governance and service delivery in your town?
8. What is being done by your Town Council to address the problems associated with migration from rural areas to towns in the Oshana Region?
9. What are challenges faced by the Town Council in terms of service delivery programme implementation?
10. What are the strategies put in place to mitigate the challenges mentioned in point 9?
11. Are there areas of concern regarding governance and service delivery in your town that you want to discuss further to amplify what you have shared with me?

### Semi-structured questions

#### **C. Ordinary community members, community leaders and Community activists**

1. How long have you been living in this constituency/town?
2. What services do you receive from the Oshana Regional Council/Town Council?
3. Are these services accessible and affordable to you as an individual member of this community?
4. Explain whether the services referred to in question 2 are readily available to the community members, and how are they being communicated to your community?
5. How do you compare the service delivery in your constituency/town to that of other constituencies/towns in the Oshana Region during the past five years?
6. What are the governance structures in place to promote service delivery in your Constituency/Town Council?
7. Are public sector officials (councillors and administrative officials) accessible to you in your constituency/town, and how often?
8. What are the community members doing to ensure that the Oshana Regional Council/Town Council provides the basic services that meet the needs and expectations of the people in your constituency/town?
9. Mention and explain the developments that have taken place in your constituency/town since Namibia's independence in 1990?
10. In your view, what must the Oshana Regional Council/Town Council do to improve governance and service delivery in your constituency/town?

\*\*\*\*\***Thank you**\*\*\*\*\*



REF: PAM/2013/004

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT:  
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

This is to certify that the application for ethics clearance submitted by

**Mr. T. Helao (student number 48283878)**

for the doctoral study

**An Evaluation of Good Governance and Service Delivery at Sub-National Level in  
Namibia: The Case of Oshana Region**

has received ethics clearance from the Research Ethics Committee of the Department of Public Administration and Management, CEMS. This approval will be sent to the CEMS Research Ethics Committee for notification.

Best wishes

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Werner Webb", is written over a light blue circular stamp.

Prof Werner Webb

Chair: PAM Research Ethics Committee

webbwn@unisa.ac.za

May 15, 2013



University of South Africa  
Pretorius Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane  
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa  
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150  
[www.unisa.ac.za](http://www.unisa.ac.za)



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

OSHANA REGION  
Office of the Governor

Tel: +264 65-220441  
Fax: +264 65-221432  
Tel: +264 65 220927  
[ch.kashuupulwa@oshanareg.gov.na](mailto:ch.kashuupulwa@oshanareg.gov.na)

Leo Shoopala Street  
Private Bag 5543  
Oshakati Namibia

Enquiries: CH KASHUUPULWA

Executive Director  
Research Ethical Review Committee  
University of South Africa  
South Africa

15<sup>th</sup> February 2013

Dear Sir /Madam


**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A SCIENTIF RESEARCH IN OSHANA REGION**

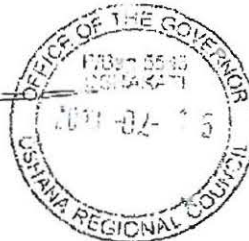
The Office of the Governor of Oshana Region herewith grants the permission to Mr **Tuhafeni Helao**, ID No: 64061000985, a student at the University of South Africa [UNISA] to do the scientific research under review in Oshana Region. The research will be conducted as requested during the period of July 2013 to September 2013.

His chosen topic is "An evaluation of Good Governance and Service Delivery at sub-national in Namibia: The case of Oshana Region." This Office believes that the research will be conducted for the purpose of the study as requested.

Please Director of Research Ethical Review Committee, accept the assurance of my highest consideration.

Yours Faithfully

  
Clemens .H. Kashuupulwa  
Regional Governor of Oshana Region







# OSHAKATI TOWN COUNCIL

Te: +264 65 229500  
Fax: +264 65 220435

906 Sam Nujoma Road  
Private Bag 5530  
OSHAKATI  
Namibia

Enq: A. Korea

06 May 2013

Mr. Tuhafeni Helao  
P. O. BOX 60677  
KATUTURA  
WINDHOEK

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH IN THE OSHAKATI TOWN COUNCIL: OSHANA REGION.**

The Council has received your letter dated 30 April 2013 concerning the above mentioned matter. It is therefore with great pleasure that the Council is granting you a permission to conduct a research on "An evaluation of Good Governance and service delivery at sub-national level in Namibia: The case of Oshana Region.

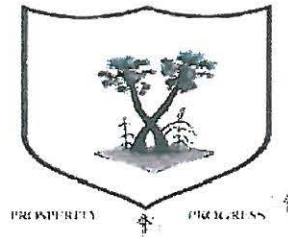
We hope you will find the above in order.

Yours sincerely

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
W. Jita  
CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER



ALL OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE MUST BE ADDRESSED TO THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER



## ONDANGWA TOWN COUNCIL

Private Bag 2032 Ondangwa Tel (065) 240101 ext 118 Fax (065) 240453

E-mail [admin@ondangwatown.com](mailto:admin@ondangwatown.com)

Enquiries: E. Shindove

7 May 2013

Mr. Tuhafeni Helao  
P.O.Box 60677  
Katutura  
Windhoek

Attention: Mr Helao

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.**

This letter serves as an acknowledgement and response to your letter dated 24 April 2013 regarding the above subject.

Kindly be informed that approval has been granted for you to come and do your research as per your request with effect from 1<sup>st</sup> July 2013 to 30<sup>th</sup> September 2013.

I hope that you will find this in order.

Yours faithfully,

  
**ONDANGWA TOWN COUNCIL**  
PRIVATE BAG 2032  
**MPELAGO**  
CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER  
05-2013  
**ONDANGWA**

*All official correspondence should be addressed to the Chief Executive Officer*