Service Delivery Challenges in South Africa

South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS)

COMPENDIUM OF RESULTS

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The South African Constitution

The South African Constitution contains a series of justiciable socio-economic rights. In terms of sections 26 and 27 obligations are placed on government (especially at local level) to ensure the progressive realisation of rights, within available resources, to housing, water, sanitation and related basic services such as electricity and refuse removal. At a formal level, basic services policy and legislation recognises the need to prioritise access by the poor to basic services, but this has proven to be challenging in practice. Part of the problem is distribution of resources between national government and municipalities, and within municipalities. It is clear that there is a need or greater redistribution of resources. This can be done through advocacy, responding to calls for public submissions on law and policy, as well as through enhancing coordination between social movements, NGOs and CBOs.

Even where infrastructure is in place, it is common practice to deny low-income tenants (particularly in inner city areas) free basic services and/or to disconnect services. It is thus necessary for people to know and understand their rights, and for research to be conducted as to what constitutes acceptable basic services for low-income households.

A lack of service delivery and housing, in particular, has led to violent confrontations between the police and communities angry at their lack of toilets, running water and housing. The Amarightza programme of the Department of Justice (2014) aims to educate not only the public but also government officials about the socio-economic rights enshrined in the Bill of Rights, and the importance of delivery in this area.

Introduction

South Africa is a state that faces many disparities because of its colonial and oppressive history. This has resulted in multiple socio-economic challenges that need redress across the different spheres of government to achieve transformation. Ensuring that redress occurs is complex, and the real needs of citizens are often overlooked. Though the South African government has made significant gains with regards to creating a more equal society, divides and challenges are still rife. Challenges include unemployment, poverty, crime and inequality. In addition to this, South Africans generally identify service delivery as a top priority. Chen, Dean, Frant and Kumar (2014:1) describe service delivery as "the distribution of basic resources citizens depend on like water, electricity, sanitation infrastructure, land, and housing" (Chen, et al, 2014). Based on the 2015 round of the HSRC's South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS), 78% of respondents identified unemployment as a major priority, followed by 46% identifying crime and safety, and 25% mentioning both poverty and service delivery.

Although government should be acknowledged for major infrastructure development initiatives, reports on service delivery indicate that progress has been uneven across the country with different issues facing different areas, reflecting variable socio-economic conditions and municipal competence (Department: Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs 2009). The pace of improvement in services and the quality of services provided do not in many cases match the expectations of many citizens. For example, in 2009, a significant number of municipalities were still

in distress and municipal service delivery was in a crisis. Nationally 46% (5.7 million) of households did not have universal access to water, sanitation, refuse removal and electricity in 2009 (i.e. access to basic and higher levels of service in respect of all four services combined) (20 Year Review).

The slow pace and lack of quality service has fuelled protests all over the country, and have brought local government under the spotlight. These protests have been characterized by high levels of violence, xenophobic attacks, and looting and police brutality. The dissatisfaction about service delivery is particularly visible in informal settlements and metropolitan areas especially Western Cape and Gauteng. There is also a large service delivery gap between rural and urban areas specifically in the former homeland areas of Limpopo, Eastern Cape, North West and KwaZulu-Natal. Furthermore, service delivery dissatisfaction is more widespread and not restricted to municipalities or wards with the worst service delivery backlogs (Managa 2012). In addition, the way service delivery dissatisfaction is manifested varies. The "haves"-wealthier generally utilise formal channels or complain, while the "have nots"-poor and marginalised tend to protest to illustrate their disillusionment.

It is believed by SALGA (n.d) that "local government is the key site of delivery and development and is central to the entire transformative project of the new South Africa." This means that local government is the sphere that engages with communities and tends to their needs. In an endeavour to resolve service delivery challenges, the government prioritised local government reforms to promote decentralisation.

As a result, South Africa's local government has experienced numerous transformation stages since the first democratic local elections meant to promote efficient and effective service delivery. These transformative stages allowed it to become the sophisticated sphere it is to date. An array of legislative provisions was put in place during these reforms. These include the Local Government Act; Municipal Demarcation Act (Act No. 27 of 1998); the Municipal Structures Act (Act No. 117 of 1998); the Municipal Systems Act (2000); the Municipal Finance Management (2003) and the Municipal Property Rates Act (2004). These were promulgated to determine the boundaries of the new municipalities as well as providing for the structural, political and functional institutions for metropolitan, district and local municipalities, with the latter two tiers sharing jurisdiction over rural areas.

Municipalities render services to meet the basic needs of citizens (SALGA, n.d). Such services include water supply, sewage collection, electricity supply, municipal health services, road and storm water drainage, street lighting and municipal parks and recreation. However, the City of Cape Town as a metropolitan, along with five others provides more functions, and at a municipal level provides housing budgets as well. "Constitutionally, South Africa has one of the most advanced local government systems anywhere in the world" (Wallis, 1999, p. 253). Yet service delivery challenges remain apparent. Therefore despite the existence of a highly progressive constitution, laws and electoral democracy, violent social movement discontent have been rising to the extent that some analysts have labelled South Africa as the "protest capital of the world" (Alexander, 2013). Alexander (2013) argues that service delivery protests continues unabated and that government attempts to improve service delivery have not been sufficient to address the frustration and anger of poor people in South Africa. Moreover, service delivery protest includes may other concerns such lack of jobs, poverty and high levels of inequality. The protest has become part of a broader

Rebellion of the Poor. One scholar of political analysis has actually pointed out that obtaining social movement protests pertain to "citizenship" defined as "the material benefits of full social inclusion" and therefore a direct challenge to the post-apartheid development model (Pithouse, 2012).

Subsequently, different political parties have tended to proffer projected service delivery solutions in their manifestos, showing the centrality of the problem. While noting that service delivery has lagged behind, in its 2016 manifesto, the ANC stated that from August 2016, it hoped to address the dissatisfaction within communities about service delivery by strengthening relationships between residents and local ward councillors, as well as enforcing accountability (Ngcobo and Whittles, 2016). On the other hand the DA points out that among the top 10 performing municipalities in the area of service delivery, nine of them are run by the DA and all the 20 worst performing municipalities, were run by the ANC (Maimane Speech delivered at DA Manifesto launch: 23 April 2016). As a political party, the DA posits that when given power, it can bring change that stops corruption; change that delivers better services and change that brings jobs (ibid). Other smaller parties such as Inkatha Freedom Party, the EFF and the National Freedom Party have also highlighted the centrality of service delivery challenges that the country is facing by enunciating that when in power they will emphasise service delivery to promote substantive economic emancipation.

The purpose of this Compendium of Results

This Compendium of Results presents ordinary South Africans' satisfaction levels with different areas of government performance (SASAS 2003 – 2015). We acknowledged that the use of public opinion (or subjective indicators) is one approach to measure a country's performance (progress). Scholars such as Giovannini (2008, p.190) suggested that the various approaches to the measurement of progress can be categorized as follows: 1) the extension of the basic national accounts schemes to cover social and environmental dimensions; 2) the use of a wide range of indicators referring to economic, social and environmental dimensions. There are many other ways to assess the overall progress of a country but this Compendium of Results use the opinions of ordinary citizens because we believe that individuals themselves are best placed to determine their own lived experiences (Mattes, Bratton, & Davids, 2002). In specific, individuals' assessments of their satisfaction with regards to government performance will tell us whether they satisfied or dissatisfied, for example with electricity provision or health care.

The main purpose of the compendium is therefore to provide more detailed information for the user to get a better understanding of public perception with regards to service delivery across a range of government performance areas. Although detailed information is provided, we recommend more detailed analysis (interpretation) of the data that will include statistical significance tests and more advanced analysis, such as regression analysis. The information provided in this compendium must therefore be interpreted within this context.

South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS)

The South African Social Attitudes Survey is a nationally representative survey series that has been conducted on an annual basis by the HSRC since 2003. The survey aims to monitor underlying changes in the country's social fabric, by measuring the South African public's attitudes, beliefs, behaviour patterns and values with regard to democracy and governance, social identity, service delivery, access to information and other important social issues (such as perceptions of crime). The survey is administered every year between October and December by means of face-to-face interviewing, with each round consisting of a random sample of about 3000 adults aged 16 and older (see Table 1).

Table 1: South African Social Attitudes Survey Round, 2003-2015

Round	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Sample	2497	2799	2850	2904	3164	3321	3305	3183	3057	2521	2885	3124	3115
Size													

Each SASAS round has been designed to yield a nationally representative sample of adults aged 16 and older living in private households¹. The sampling frame used for the survey is based on Statistics South Africa's 2011 Population Census and a set of small area layers (SALs). Estimates of the population numbers for various categories of the census variables are obtained per SAL. In the sampling, SALs are used as primary sampling units (PSUs) and the estimated number of dwelling units (taken as visiting points) in the SALs as secondary sampling units. In the first sampling stage, 500 SALs are drawn with probability proportional to size, using the estimated number of dwelling units (DUs) in a SAL as measure of size. The DU as secondary sampling unit has been defined as "separate (non-vacant) residential stands, addresses, structures, flats, homesteads, etc." In the second sampling stage, a predetermined number of individual dwelling units (or visiting points) are drawn with equal probability in each of the SALs. Finally, in the third sampling stage, one person is randomly selected for interviewing from all persons aged 16 years and older at each visiting point.

The SASAS questionnaire is translated into the most commonly spoken official languages in the provinces to ensure that the interview can be conducted in the language respondents are most comfortable with. All research instruments for were translated into nine languages or at least into 6 of the major language groups (South Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tsonga, Venda, Zulu, Afrikaans, Ndebele, Tswana, Xhosa, English, Afrikaans, and Swazi). This is to ensure that all respondents in different provinces understand the questionnaire and cultural equivalence is retained and consistent across all languages. SASAS adheres to a strict internal Code of Ethics. All interviews are voluntary and written consent is given by the respondent. In instances where the selected research participant is a minor aged 16-18 years, a dual consent informed consent process is required, both from the minors and their parent/guardian.

For this Compendium of Results we analysed data to better understand attitudes and behaviours among different subgroups with regards to public satisfaction with different areas of government performance. In specific, we asked survey respondents "How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with

¹ In the sampling frame special institutions (such as hospitals, military camps, old age homes, schools and university hostels) as well as recreational areas, industrial areas and vacant SALs will be excluded prior to the drawing of the sample.

the way that the government is handling the following matters in your neighbourhood?' The areas of government performance included: 1) supply of water and sanitation, 2) Providing electricity, 3) Removal of refuse, 4) Affordable /low-cost housing, 5) Access to health care, 6) Treatment for sexually transmitted infections (STIs), including HIV/AIDS, 7) Social grants, 8) Cutting crime, 9) Creating jobs, and 10) Land reform. The response options ranged from 'very dissatisfied'= 1 to 'very satisfied' = 5. We also disaggregated the responses to the above areas of government performance by race, gender, geographic location, province and age. Employing SASAS data from 2003 to 2015 we present the key findings according to the different government performance areas. We first present the overall assessment of government performance and thereafter an assessment of each specific area starting with the supply of water and sanitation.

Key findings: Government performance

Government performance: National Perspective

- Of the different areas of government performance examined, social grants continued to receive highest public approval ratings, at 75% expressing satisfaction in 2015, and 72% satisfied on average between 2005 and 2015.
- High levels of satisfaction with electricity and education are also recorded relative to the other indicators, though in these instances greater fluctuation since 2010 is evident.
 - In late 2015, 62% of all adult South Africans registered satisfaction with the government's management of education, with only 27% voicing dissatisfaction with the state's performance. This does nonetheless represent a 6% drop in satisfaction since 2010.
 - Satisfaction levels in terms of electricity have varied in a narrow range since 2003 (58-70%), with 2015 showing a moderate increase of 8% following a dip in 2014 (58% in 2014; 66% in 2015).
- Although satisfaction levels with respect to HIV/AIDS treatment is slightly down in 2015 (55%) compared to 2014 (61%), it still increased 10 percentage points since 2009 and has shown the largest rise of all indicators since 2003.
- Satisfaction with water and sanitation has received fairly consistent ratings between 2003 and 2015 (ranging from 57-62%); slightly more variation for refuse removal (ranging from 49-60% over the period).
- Satisfaction with access to health care rose by 6% from 2011 (51%) to 2015 (57%).
- Areas of greatest public concern continue to be job creation (8% satisfied in 2015; 10% average between 2003-15), crime reduction (20% in 2015; 21% average 2003-15), and low-cost housing (39% in 2015; 34% average).

Satisfaction with different areas of government performance, 2003-2015 (% satisfied)

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Average
Providing social grants			70	73	70	72	71	77	72	72	72	72	75	72
Education				69	69	74	68	70	66	60	68	65	62	67
Providing electricity	66	70	67	70	64	67	67	67	61	63	65	58	66	65
Water & sanitation supply	61	62	59	57	60	59	57	59	57	59	58	53	56	58
Removal of refuse	60	55	53	55	51	54	52	52	49	51	51	51	56	53
Access to health care	43	50	50	53	56	53	50	53	51	56	54	59	57	53
HIV/AIDS treatment	27	36	43	38	47	45	45	54	61	56	56	61	55	48
Affordable housing	34	37	31	28	32	33	32	34	35	32	34	36	39	34
Land reform	26	32	32	30	35	28	31	33	30	23	22	23	31	29
Cutting crime	22	26	22	18	17	18	18	27	32	20	18	19	20	21
Creating jobs	8	11	9	8	8	9	10	12	14	7	9	11	8	10
Addressing corruption										10	12	10	12	11

Source: HSRC South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) 2003-2015

Satisfaction with Water and Sanitation

The results on water and sanitation are presented in Appendix A.

- Satisfaction with water and sanitation has received fairly consistent ratings between 2003 and 2015 (ranges from 57-62%) with a 58% national average since 2003 to 2015.
- In terms of racial differences in evaluations of access to water and sanitation, black African adults recorded significantly lower levels of satisfaction between 2003 and 2015 (average of 52%) compared to other population groups.
- Levels of satisfaction are similar for men and women of all races on average over the 2003 to 2015 period (59% men; 57% women).
- The average level of satisfaction among those aged 16-24 years is marginally lower than all other age groups.
- The 35-49 age group's average level of satisfaction is marginally higher than all other age groups.
- Rural dwellers are the least satisfied (30%), followed by residents of informal settlements (45%). Consumers in formal urban areas offered appreciably more positive appraisals on average with municipal efforts in providing these basic household service (74% satisfied)
- Residents in Limpopo (31%) and Mpumalanga (48%) are least satisfied with water and sanitation, while residents of the Western Cape report the highest levels of satisfaction (79%).

Satisfaction with Electricity

Respondents' levels of satisfaction with regards to electricity from 2003 to 2015 are presented in Appendix B.

- High levels of satisfaction with electricity are observed relative to the other indicators, although there is greater relative variability in assessment since 2010.
- Nationally 66% were satisfied with electricity provision in their place of residence between 2003 and 2015.
- Black African adults remain least satisfied (63%) with basic service provision, including electricity, compared to coloured (75%), Indian (76%) and white adults (75%).
- There are only marginal gender-based differences in levels of satisfaction with electricity provision for the period 2003 to 2015 (65% men; 67% women).
- Informal settlement dwellers are the least satisfied (45%) with electricity, even lower than rural dwellers (58%) and farm dwellers (51%). Again, close to three-quarters (74%) of residents in formal urban areas are contented with this form of household service.

Satisfaction with Refuse Removal

Respondents' levels of satisfaction with regards to refuse removal from 2003 to 2015 are presented in Appendix C.

- Black African adults were least satisfied with refuse removal between 2003 and 2015 (average of 44%), compared to Indian (81%), white (78%) and coloured adults (75%).
- There is no difference in average levels of satisfaction between men and women (both 52%).
- In general, the younger generation (16- 24 year-olds) is the least satisfied (48%) with refuse collection.
- Refuse collection in rural areas seems limited with an average 14% being satisfied. In informal urban settlements, only 38% are satisfied with refuse collection.
- Nationally, 52% are satisfied with refuse removal on average between 2003 and 2015.

Satisfaction with Low-cost Housing

Respondents' levels of satisfaction with regards to low-cost housing from 2003 to 2015 are presented in Appendix D.

- Over the 2003 to 2015 period, satisfaction with low-cost housing across racial groups has not been consistent. However, it remained generally low (under 50%), with few varying exceptions.
- Black African adults are generally the least satisfied with low cost housing, with this trend only varying since 2010 by marginal percentages. On average, 30% of black African adults were satisfied, compared to 40% of coloured adults, 43% of Indian adults and 39% of white adults.
- What is interesting is that in 2003, Indian adults were the most satisfied (62%) with low-cost housing, but in 2015 they were the least satisfied (35%) of the racial groups.

- Levels of satisfaction among men and women show very little variance across time, with both indicating low satisfaction (34% of men and 32% of women satisfied). However, women have tended to exhibit slightly lower satisfaction levels than men.
- Satisfaction across age categories shows very little difference.
- Levels of satisfaction by geographic type shows that those living in informal settlements have been the least satisfied. On average this equates to 18% in comparison to 41% in urban/formal areas, 22% in rural/traditional areas and 26% in rural farm areas.
- Nationally, only 33% are satisfied with low-cost housing, which is significantly lower than other areas of evaluation.

Satisfaction with Access to Health Care

Respondents' levels of satisfaction with access to health care from 2003 to 2015 are presented in Appendix E.

- Over the 13 year period (2003-2015), a majority (52%) of citizens were satisfied with access to health care.
- Interestingly, there is very little variation based on race. About 51% of black African adults are satisfied, while 54% of coloured, Indian and white adults were satisfied.
- These averages however mask notable changes that have occurred over the period. It is noteworthy for example that black African adults were the least satisfied in 2003 (39%), but in 2015 they are the most satisfied (58%).
- Another noteworthy figure is white citizen's satisfaction in 2009 at 71% and the experienced decline to 50% in 2010.
- There is very little variation over time between men and women (52% and 51%).
- Once again, there is little sign of an age-based gradient in satisfaction levels, and the majority on average were satisfied with their access to health care.
- Only 40% of those residing on rural farms were satisfied, in comparison with 58% of residents in formal urban areas.

Satisfaction with HIV/AIDS Treatment

Satisfaction with regards to HIV / AIDS treatment is presented in Appendix F.

- Although satisfaction levels of HIV/AIDS treatment is slightly down in 2015 (55%) compared to 2014 (61%), it has still increased 10 percentage points since 2009 and has shown the largest rise of all indicators since 2003.
- Generally, satisfaction levels with regards to HIV/AIDS treatment has increased from 2003 to 2015
- There is very little difference in the level of satisfaction with HIV/AIDS treatment between men and women over the 2003 and 2015 period.
- There is also little variation in the perception of the different age groups although the younger age groups (16 24 years) seem to be more satisfied than the older age group (50+

- years) in all survey years up to 2014. However, in 2015 the older age group (50+ years) recorded 54% and the 16 to 24 years age group 53% for those respondents saying satisfied.
- For most of the survey years we found very little difference among the various geographic locations. However, the 2015 survey showed that rural traditional areas (61%) and rural farms (64%) were slightly more satisfied than formal urban areas (53%) and informal settlements (52%) with regards to HIV / AIDS treatment.

Satisfaction with Crime Reduction

Satisfaction with regards to crime reduction is presented in Appendix G.

- Crime reduction is one of the areas of greatest public concern. Our data show that 20% of the respondents were satisfied with crime reduction in 2015 and a 21% average was recorded from 2003 to 2015.
- The lowest satisfaction level was recorded in 2007 (17%) and the highest in 2011 (32%)
- Indian (13%) and white (17%) adults are the least satisfied with crime reduction between 2003 and 2015.
- Generally women (18%) are less satisfied than men (22%) with crime reduction efforts over the survey period (2003 2015)
- Although there is very little difference in the perceptions of crime reduction among the various age groups, we found that they older age groups appear to be less satisfied than younger age groups.
- Those living in informal settlements are marginally less satisfied with crime reduction.

Satisfaction with Job Creation

Satisfaction with regards to employment is presented in Appendix H.

- Job creation is another major area of public concern. Our surveys revealed that respondents continue to provide exceptionally low approval ratings of job creation efforts. In 2015 only 8% of respondents indicated that they satisfied with job creation, with an average of 9 % recorded between 2003 and 2015.
- There are no major differences across the various demographic variables such as race, gender, geographic location, age. It is evident that all the demographic groups were very dissatisfied with job creation.

Satisfaction with Land Reforms

Satisfaction with regards to land reform is presented in Appendix J.

- There are very low levels of satisfaction with land reforms across all races black African (29%), coloured (22%), Indian (19%) and white (19%).
- Satisfaction with land reform is also very low (below 30%) for men and women alike, as well
 as across age groups and those living in different forms of settlements.
- Nationally only 27% voiced satisfaction with land reform on average between 2003 and 2015.

Satisfaction with Social Grants

Satisfaction with regards to social grants is presented in Appendix K.

- Social grants continued to receive highest public approval ratings, at 75% in 2015 and 72% on average between 2005 and 2015.
- Black African adults are consistently most satisfied with social grants compared to coloured,
 Indian and white adults from 2003 to 2015.
- Women are slightly more satisfied with regards to social grants than men between 2003 to 2015.
- Older citizens (50+ years) are consistently less satisfied with regards to social grants than younger adults (16 24 years) from 2003 to 2015.
- Those respondents living in rural traditional authority areas are also more satisfied than those respondents living in formal urban areas, informal settlements, as well as rural famrs over the 2003 to 2015 period.

Satisfaction with Education

Satisfaction with regards to education is presented in Appendix L.

- Over the survey period from 2003 to 2015 we found that black African adults were the most satisfied with education (71%), while white adults were the least satisfied (46%).
- Satisfaction levels for men (66%) and women (67%) were virtually equivalent.
- The youngest generation (16-24 year-olds) were the most satisfied (71%) with education, while those above 50 years were the least satisfied (62%).
- Education satisfaction levels were generally high, standing at 72% in rural traditional authority areas, 67% in informal settlements, 64% in formal urban areas and 61% on rural farms.
- Nationally, two-thirds(67%) were satisfied with education between 2003 and 2015

Conclusion

The trends in patterns of public satisfaction with different aspects of government performance provide a clear reminder of the progress that has been achieved in improving the quality of life of all South Africans over the last two decades in certain. This is reflected in evaluations of social grants, education, and electricty provision. It is also evident in appreciable rise in satisfaction with HIV/AIDS treatment following the rollout of rollout of antiretroviral treatment and prevention initiatives in recent years. Yet the results also convey the enormity of the challenge ahead in many other dimensions, especially in relation to employment creation, crime reduction, land reform and low-cost housing. Addressing these priorities on the public agenda are going to be critical in moving us closer to the vision for our society contained in the Constitution's Bill of Rights and the National Development Plan. The survey results also suggest that considerable polarisation exists in relation to evaluations of these core government performance areas, along race, class and geographic lines in particular. This points to lingering inequalities in the quality of governance of the country, which is

an issue that is likely to have a bearing not only on the political context in the lead up to the 2016 municipal elections, but also on the nature of municipality-community relations in coming years.

According to Nleya in Kanyane (2014:96), service delivery remains a central, real symbolic part of the actualisation of meaningful life in poor areas. This is because improved services are linked to increasing the dignity of the poor who were repeatedly denied legitimate space and decent living conditions under the apartheid government. It is therefore important to underscore that municipalities are obliged to deliver services to the satisfaction of the end-users. However, it is apparent that even after 21 years of democracy, municipalities are still struggling to deliver quality services hence increase of service delivery protests and frustrations expressed through violence and other means. Whether good or bad protests could be, this is an expression that people have reached unbearable impatienceand panic levels.

One of the contributing factors of service delivery challenges in respective municipalities is an old ambiguous role of traditional leaders. Traditional leaders in municipalities have been fraught with ambiguities, chaos, tensions, confusions and contradictions given ongoing squabbles over what should be their role. In rural areas and metros for example, municipalities have powers and functions that largely overlap with those that are supposed to be exercised by traditional leaders. On the other hand, local municipalities' lack of consultation and co-operation with traditional leaders and traditional leaders imposing their views without consulting communities resulted into protests and unnecessary court battles. Negotiations over the role of the traditional leaders in the consolidation of democracy and nation-building undoubtedly remain an important issue in South African politics to be further interrogated.

Recently, the Municipal Demarcation Board (MDB) reduced the number of municipalities in the country further, from 278 in 2011 to 267 in 2016 – i.e. 215 local municipalities, 43 District municipalities and 9 Metros according to demarcation process in line with Municipal Demarcation Act, 1998 (Act 27 of 1998). However, at this point, it is too early to assume that this reduction will increase efficiency and potency of municipalities to improve quality of the provision of services to the communities. According to Kanyane (2014:92), it is expected that the cut of the municipalities will improve capacity to deliver services but ward councilors have not matched with this service delivery obligations. This is a direct manifestation of weak local governance capacity, poor planning and ineffective monitoring and evaluation of municipal services which needed urgent attention.

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Appendix A: Water and sanitation

Figure A1. Water and sanitation (National 2003 -2015)

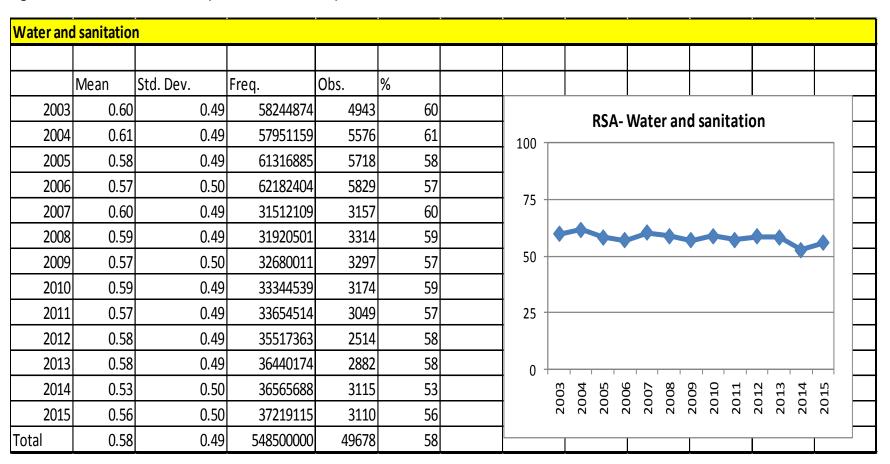


Figure A2. Water and sanitation (by race 2003 -2015)

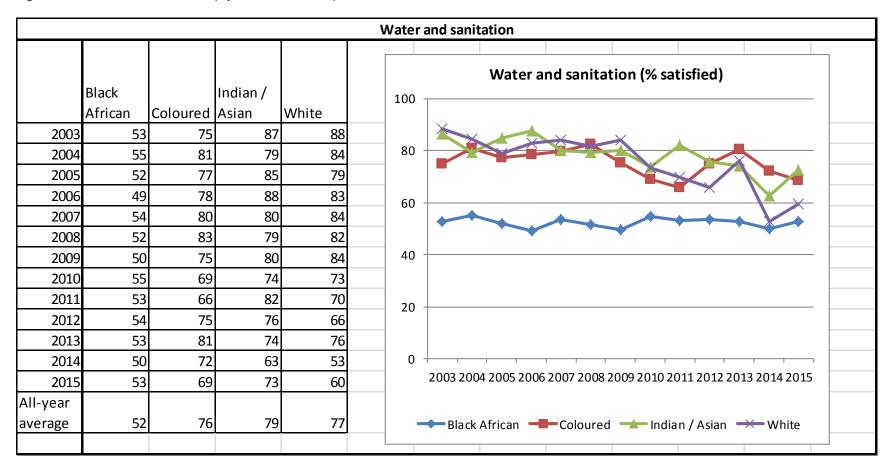


Figure A3. Water and sanitation (by gender 2003 -2015)

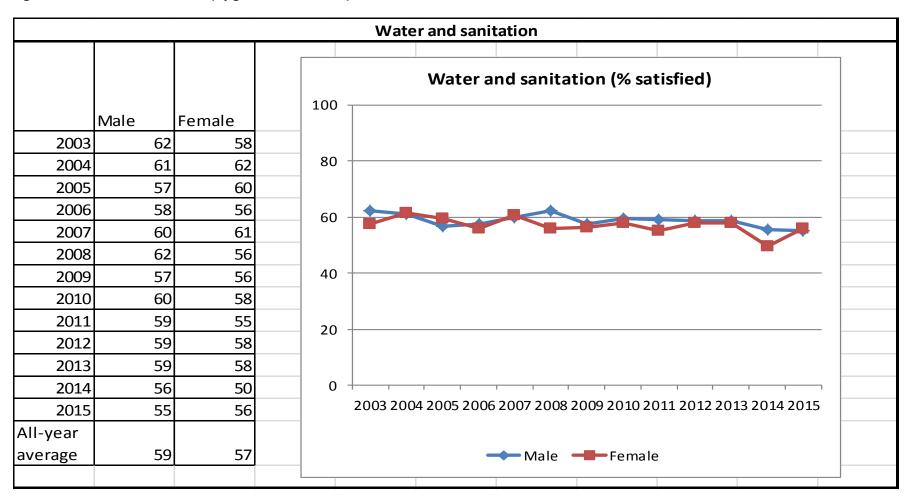


Figure A4. Water and sanitation (by age 2003 -2015)

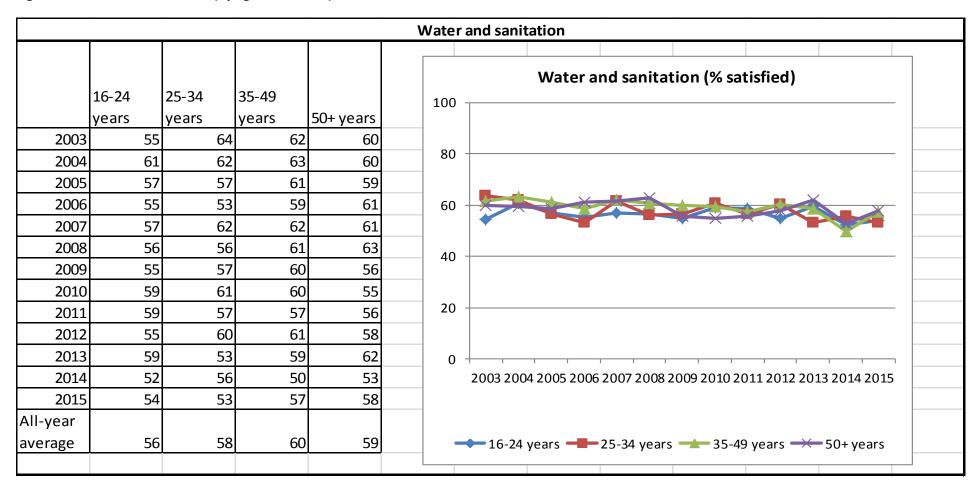


Figure A5. Water and sanitation (by geographic location 2003 -2015)

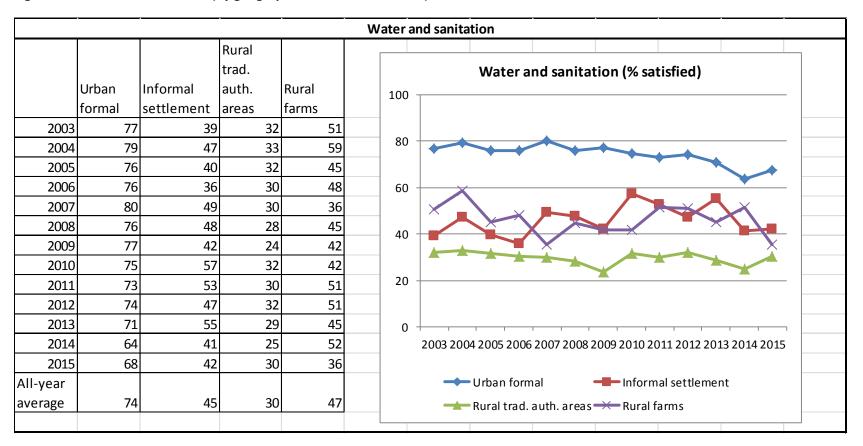
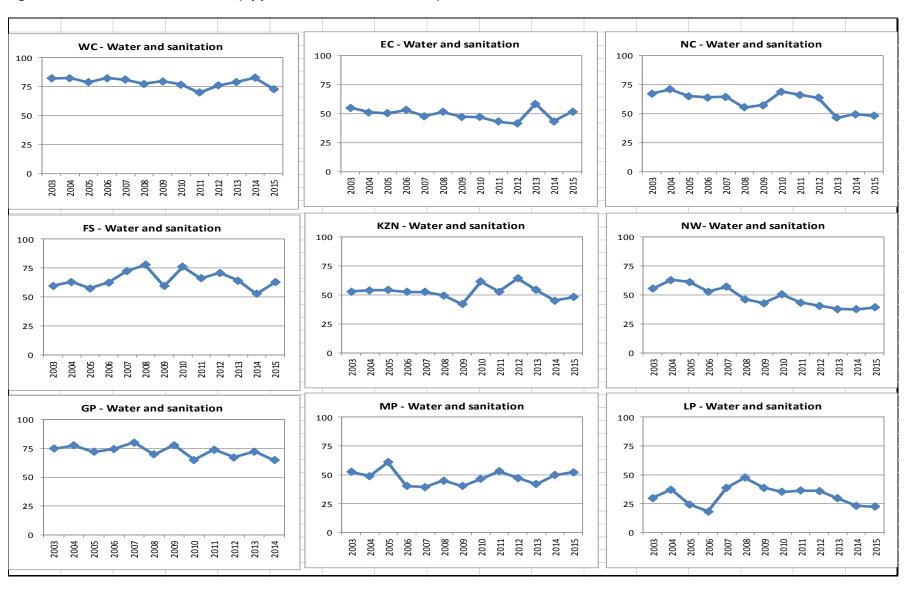


Figure A6. Water and sanitation (by province location 2003 -2015)

Water and	l sanitatior	<u> </u>							•
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP
2003	82	55	67	60	53	56	75	52	30
2004	83	51	71	63	54	63	77	49	37
2005	7 9	50	65	57	54	61	72	61	24
2006	83	53	64	62	53	53	75	40	18
2007	81	48	65	73	53	57	80	39	39
2008	77	51	55	78	49	46	70	45	47
2009	80	47	57	59	42	43	78	40	39
2010	77	47	69	76	62	50	65	46	35
2011	70	43	66	66	53	43	74	53	36
2012	76	41	64	71	64	41	67	47	36
2013	79	59	46	64	54	38	72	42	29
2014	83	44	50	53	45	37	65	49	23
2015	73	52	48	63	48	39	72	52	22
Total	79	50	61	64	53	51	73	48	31

Figure A6 No.2. Water and sanitation (by province location 2003 -2015)



Appendix B: Satisfaction with government handling electricity

Figure B1. Electricity (National 2003 -2015)

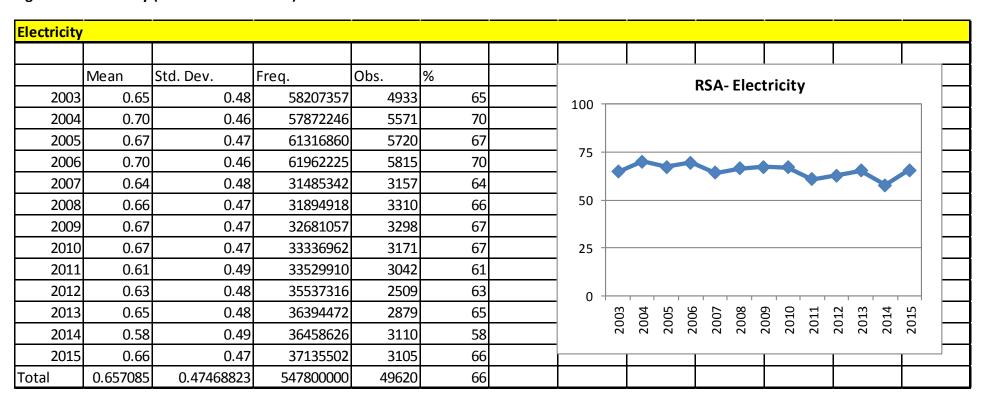


Figure B2. Electricity (by race 2003 -2015)

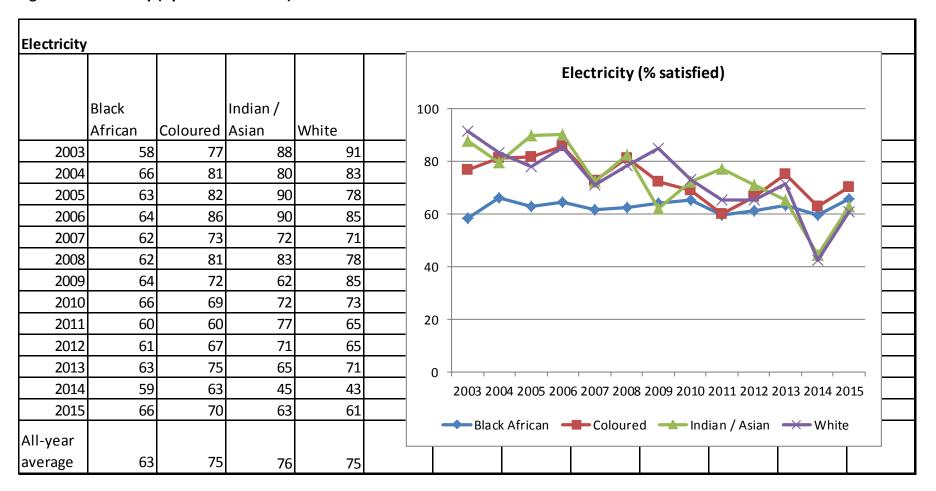


Figure B3. Electricity (by gender 2003 -2015)

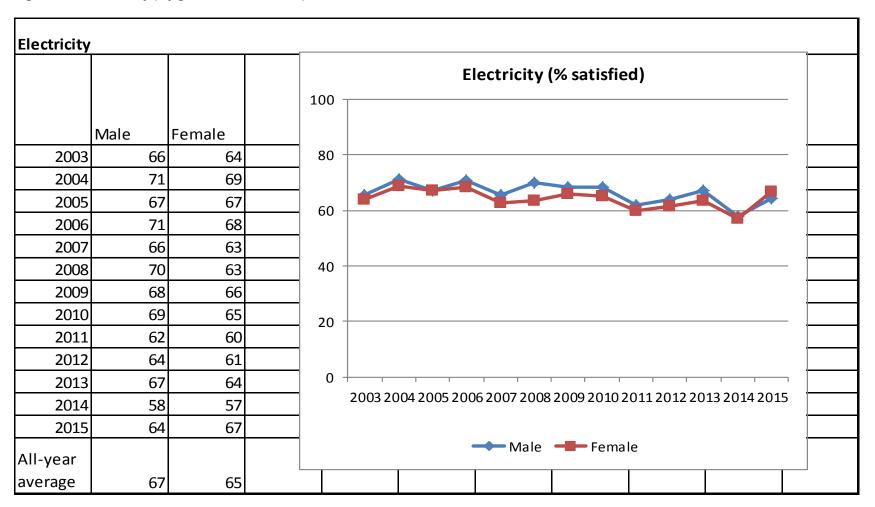


Figure B4. Electricity (by age 2003 -2015)

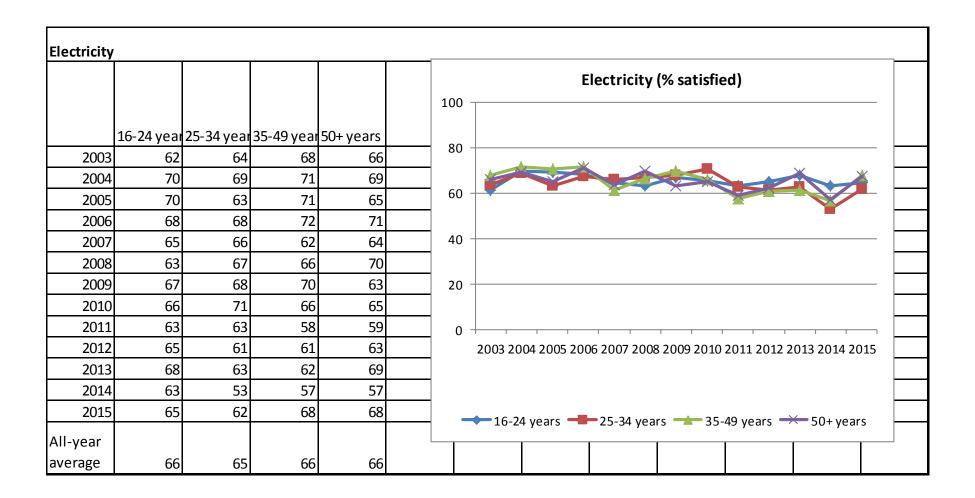
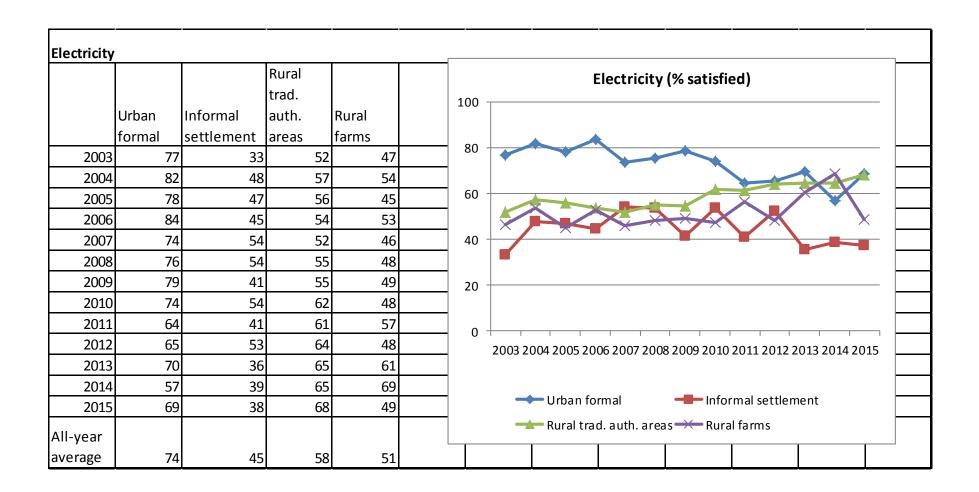


Figure B5. Electricity (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix C: Refuse removal

Figure C1. Refuse removal (National 2003 -2015)

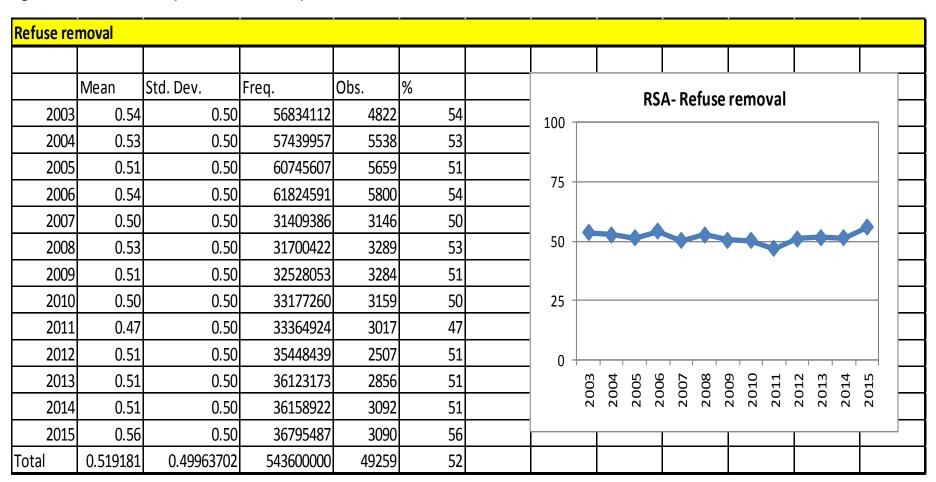


Figure C2. Refuse removal (by race 2003 -2015)

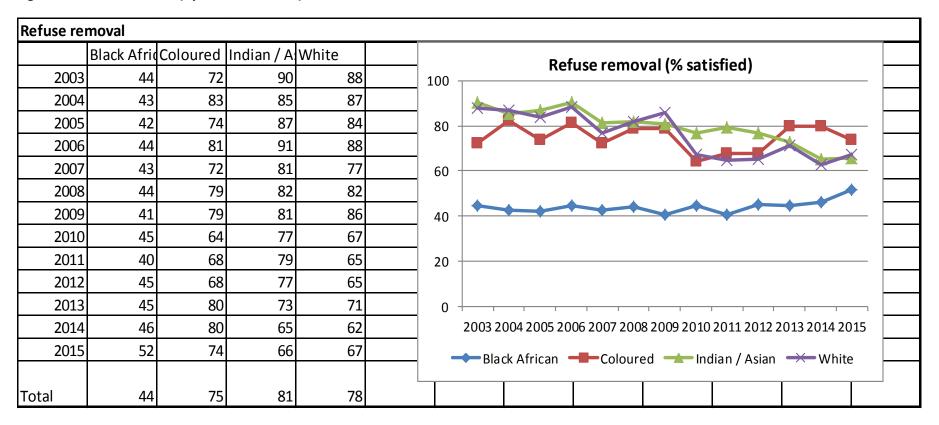


Figure C3. Refuse removal (by gender 2003 -2015)

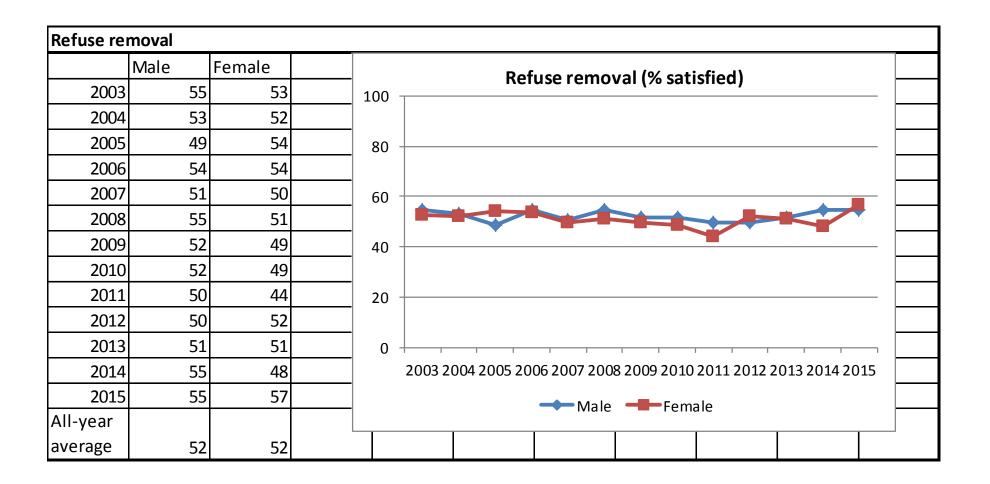


Figure C4. Refuse removal (by age 2003 -2015)

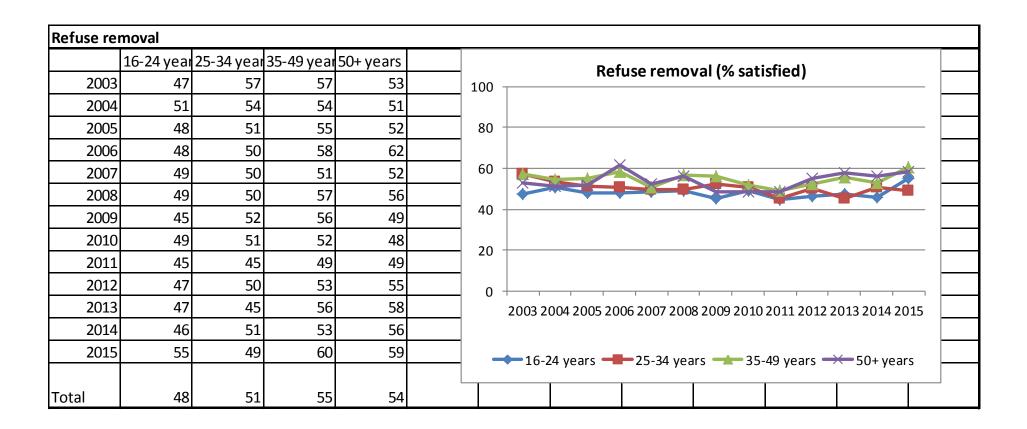
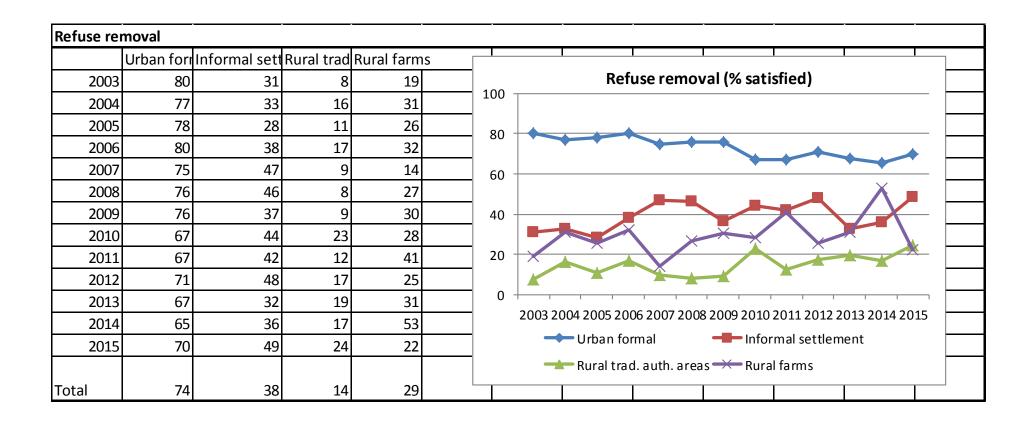


Figure C5. Refuse removal (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix D: Low-cost housing

Figure D1. Low-cost housing (National 2003 -2015)

Low-cost l	housing																		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.	Obs.	%				RS	۹- Lo	w cc	set l	2011	sina					
2003	0.32	0.47	57517597	4889	32	100 ⊤			113/	1- LU	W CC	/3t i	iou.	, iiig				_	
2004	0.35	0.48	57570251	5527	35														
2005	0.30	0.46	61068261	5695	30	7.													
2006	0.28	0.45	61531628	5788	28	75													
2007	0.32	0.47	31245105	3129	32														
2008	0.32	0.47	31614916	3280	32	50 -													
2009	0.31	0.46	32511435	3282	31		4					_	4	^	-	4			
2010	0.33	0.47	33057027	3143	33	25									_			\dashv	
2011	0.35	0.48	33166216	3008	35														
2012	0.32	0.47	35383344	2495	32	0												_	
2013	0.34	0.47	36110751	2850	34		2003	2004	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	13	14) 15	
2014	0.36	0.48	35841519	3077	36		20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	
2015	0.39	0.49	36889179	3081	39														
Total	0.326703	0.46901245	543500000	49244	33					·									

Figure D2. Low-cost housing (by race 2003 -2015)

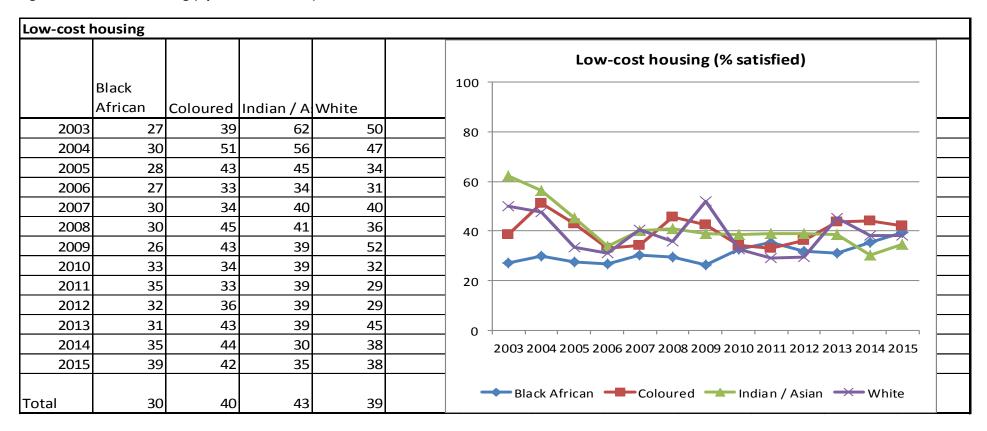


Figure D3. Low-cost housing (by gender 2003 -2015)

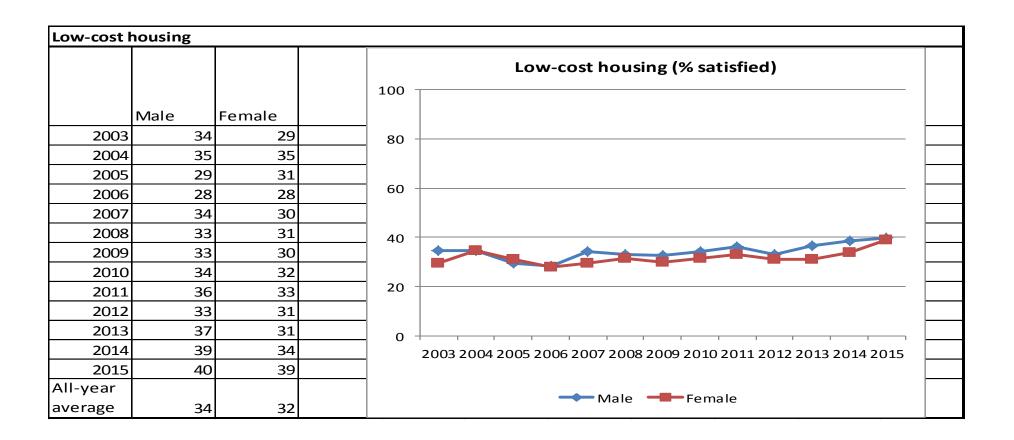


Figure D4. Low-cost housing (by age 2003 -2015)

Low-cost l	nousing				
					Low-cost housing (% satisfied)
					100
	16-24 yeaı	25-34 year	35-49 year	50+ years	
2003	31	31	33	33	80
2004	34	33	37	35	
2005	30	31	31	29	60
2006	31	23	30	28	
2007	32	32	30	34	
2008	33	28	31	37	40
2009	32	31	32	29	
2010	34	31	32	35	20
2011	39	36	31	31	
2012	31	36	28	33	
2013	32	30	34	39	2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015
2014	38	34	38	35	
2015	40	37	40	41	
Total	33	31	33	33	16-24 years — 25-34 years — 35-49 years — 50+ years

Figure D5. Low-cost housing (by geographic location 2003 -2015)

Low-cost	housing				
			Rural trad.		Low-cost housing (% satisfied)
	Urban	Informal	auth.	Rural	100
	formal	settlement	areas	farms	
2003	43	10	18	24	80
2004	47	15	19	30	
2005	40	13	17	26	60
2006	37	9	18	21	
2007	41	19	20	22	
2008	40	20	22	27	40
2009	41	17	16	27	
2010	37	24	30	25	20
2011	39	22	30	36	
2012	37	22	30	18	
2013	40	17	24	24	2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015
2014	41	31	24	41	2003 2004 2003 2000 2007 2000 2003 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2013
2015	43	23	36	21	→ Urban formal
Total	41	18	22	26	Rural trad. auth. areas Rural farms

Appendix E: Access to health care

Figure E1. Access to health care (National 2003 -2015)

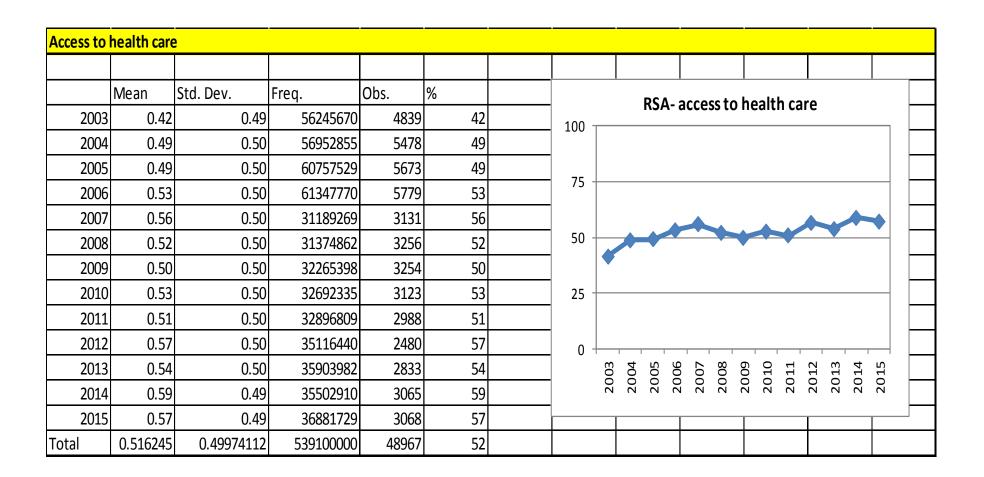


Figure E2. Access to health care (by race 2003 -2015)

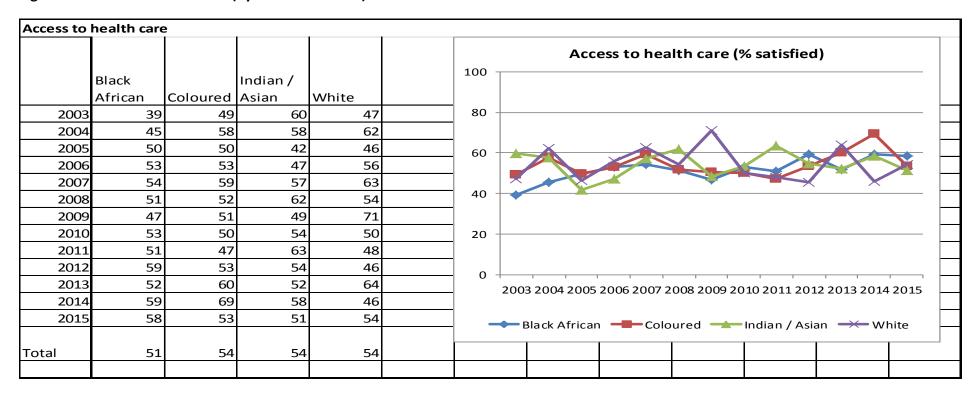


Figure E3. Access to health care (by gender 2003 -2015)

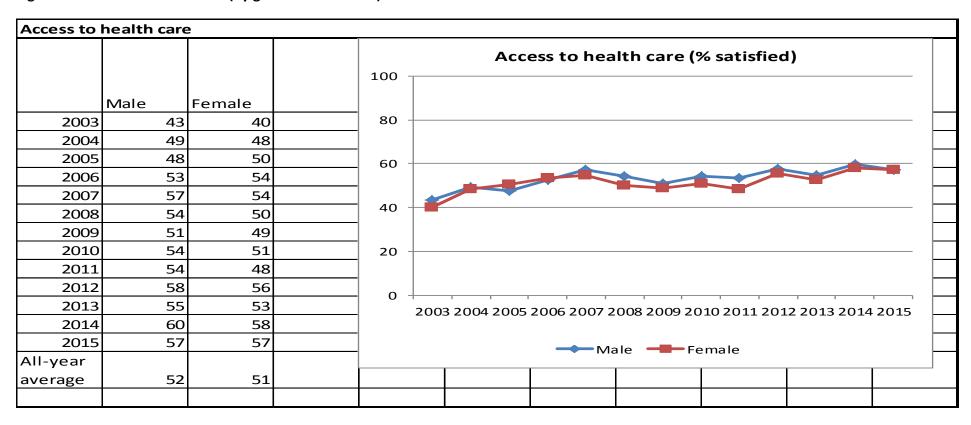


Figure E4. Access to health care (by age 2003 -2015)

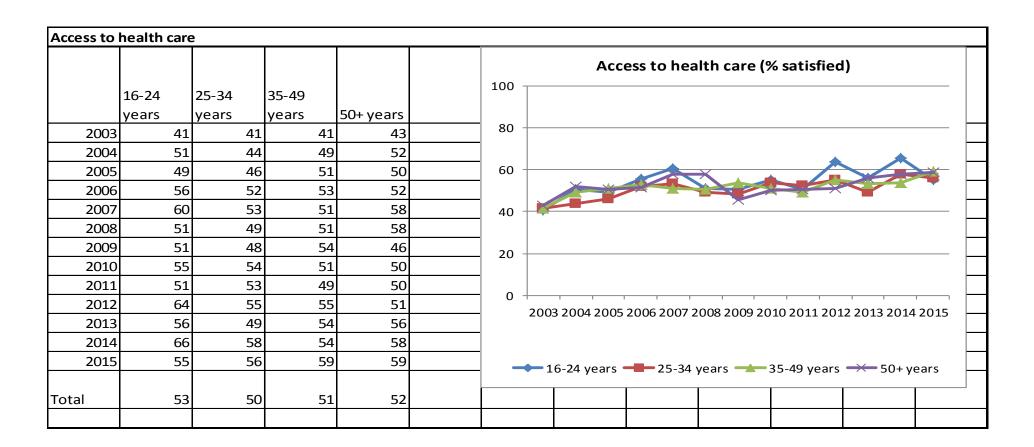
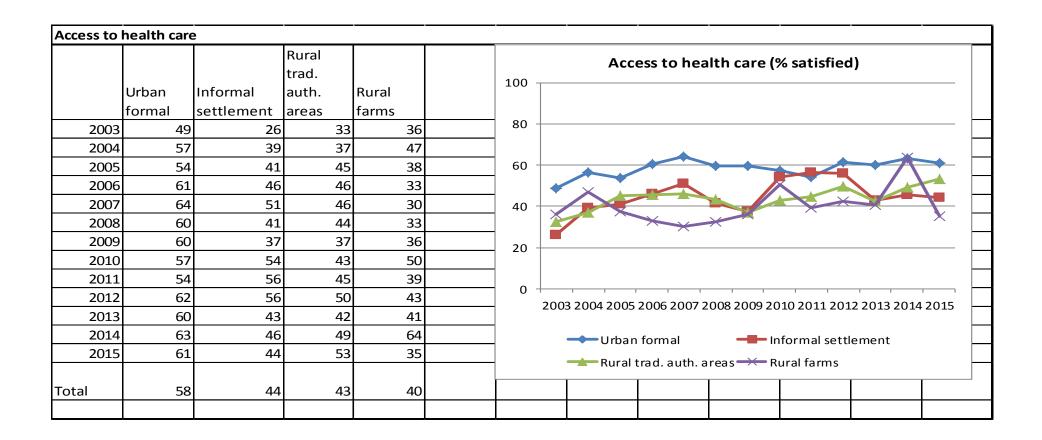


Figure E5. Access to health care (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix F: HIV/AIDS Treatment

Figure F1. HIV/AIDS Treatment (National 2003 -2015)

HIV/AIDS	<mark>Treatment</mark>	•												·				
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.	Obs.	%			R	ςΔ_	HIV/	ΊΔΙΟ	Stre	eatm	ont				
2003	0.22	0.42	58334534	4932	22	100 ⊤			JA-	111 V /	AID.		.atiii				_	
2004	0.32	0.47	57646215	5543	32													
2005	0.38	0.49	61294011	5717	38	75												
2006	0.34	0.47	61981905	5819	34	75 +												
2007	0.43	0.50	31541749	3157	43								A	→	-	A		
2008	0.41	0.49	31793708	3297	41	50 +											_	
2009	0.41	0.49	32549910	3291	41				4									
2010	0.48	0.50	33203646	3161	48	25	-										-	
2011	0.57	0.49	33443563	3028	57		•											
2012	0.56	0.50	35506433	2508	56] 0												
2013	0.56	0.50	36257934	2859	56		2003	2004	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2012	2013	2014	2015	
2014	0.61	0.49	36464161	3108	61		20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	
2015	0.55	0.50	36975541	3096	55													
Total	0.428136	0.49481367	547000000	49516	43													

Figure F2. HIV/AIDS Treatment (by race 2003 -2015)

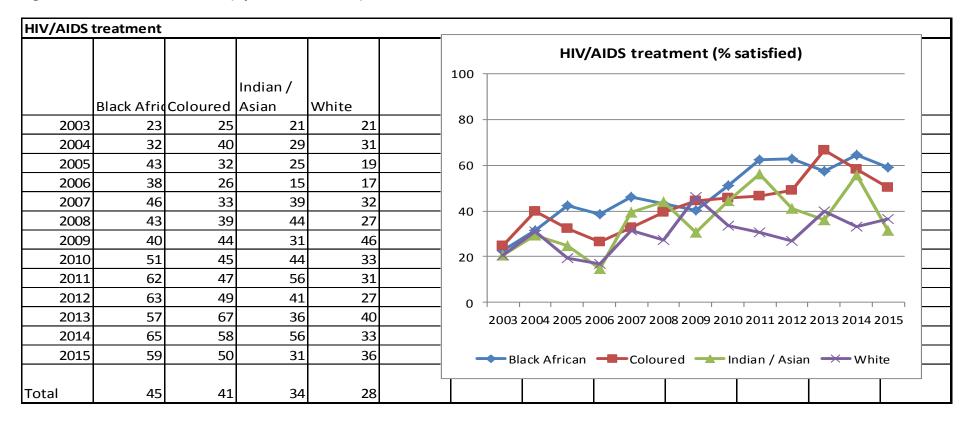


Figure F3. HIV/AIDS Treatment (by gender 2003 -2015)

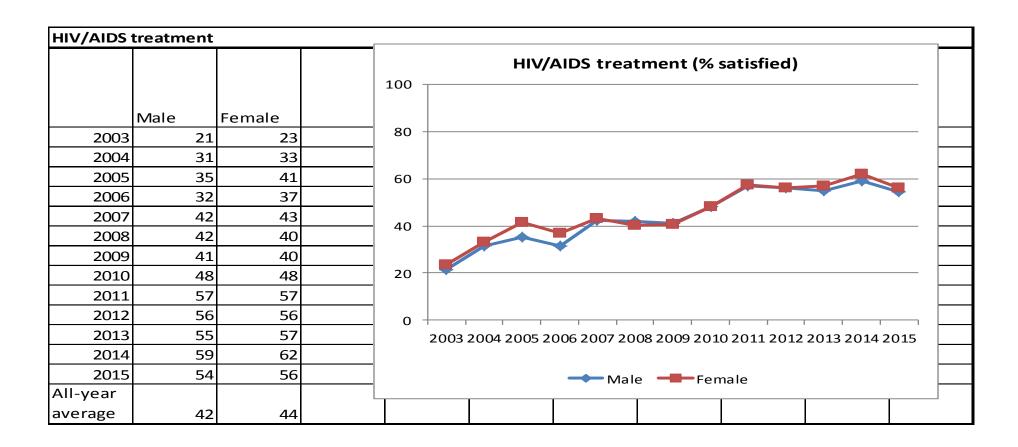


Figure F4. HIV/AIDS Treatment (by age 2003 -2015)

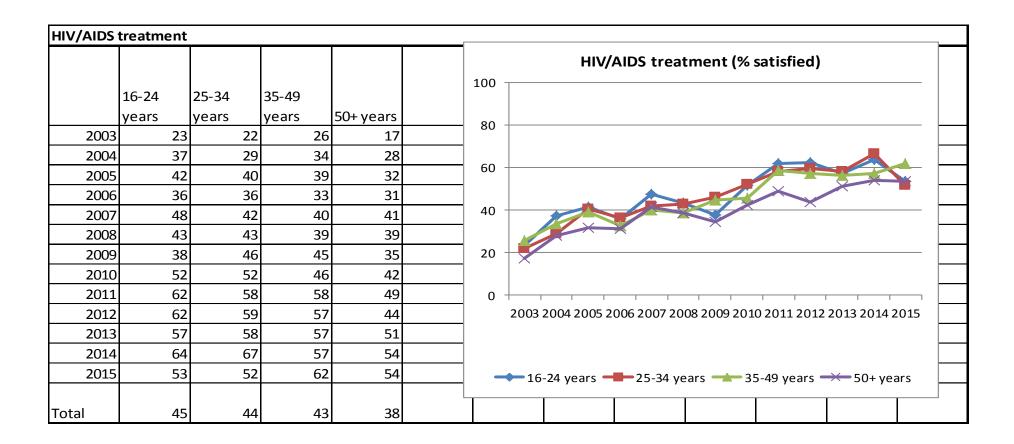
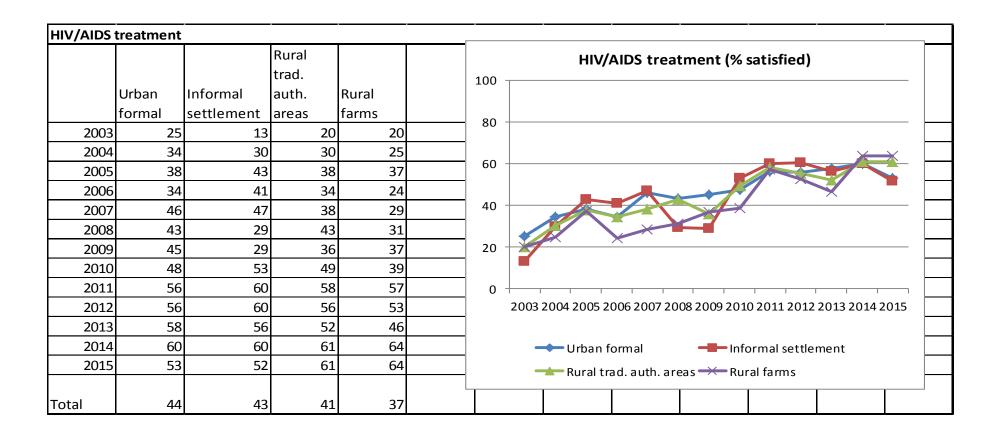


Figure F5. HIV/AIDS Treatment (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix G: Crime reduction

Figure G1. Crime reduction (National 2003 -2015)

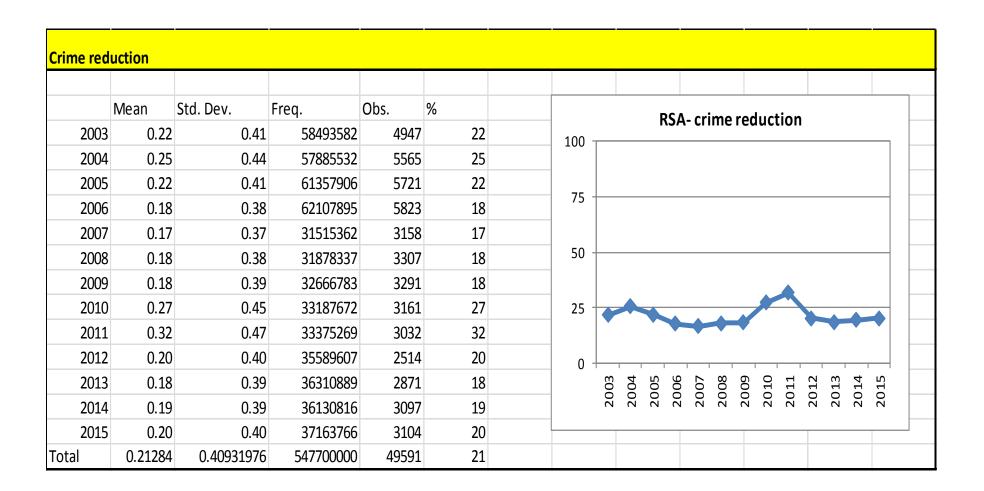


Figure G2. Crime reduction (by race 2003 -2015)

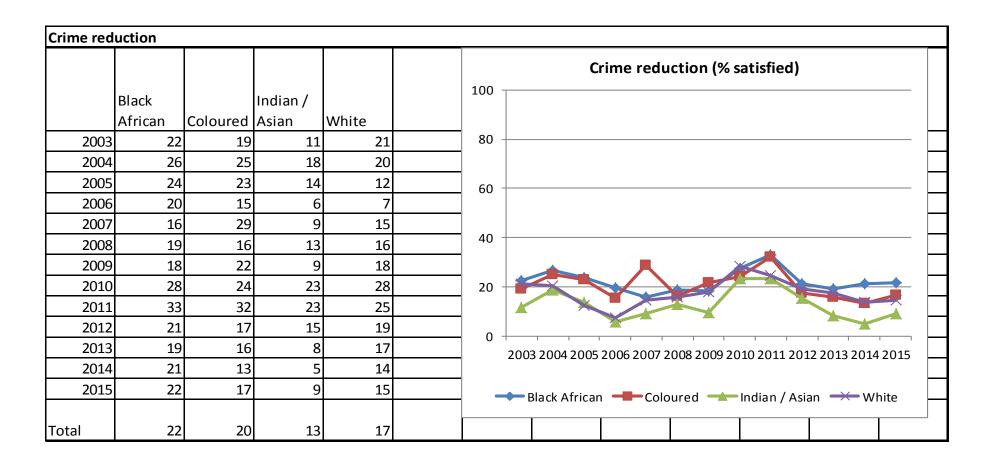


Figure G3. Crime reduction (by gender 2003 -2015)

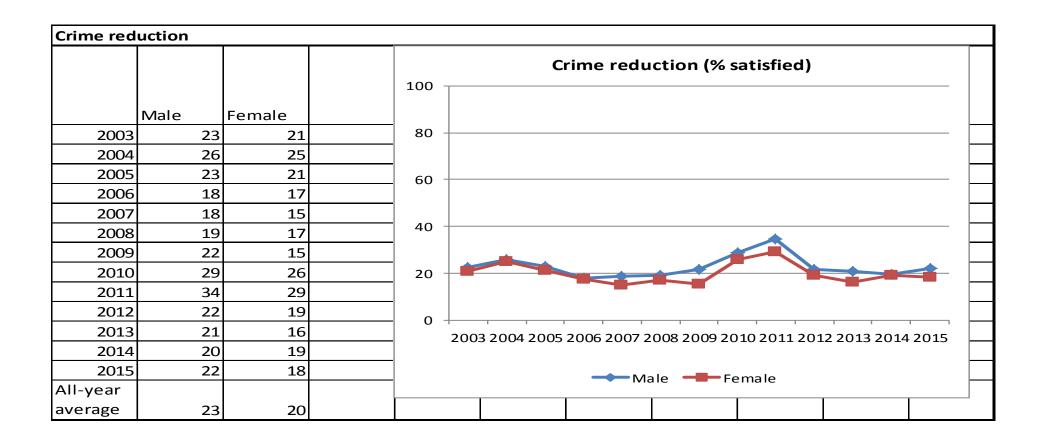


Figure G4. Crime reduction (by age 2003 -2015)

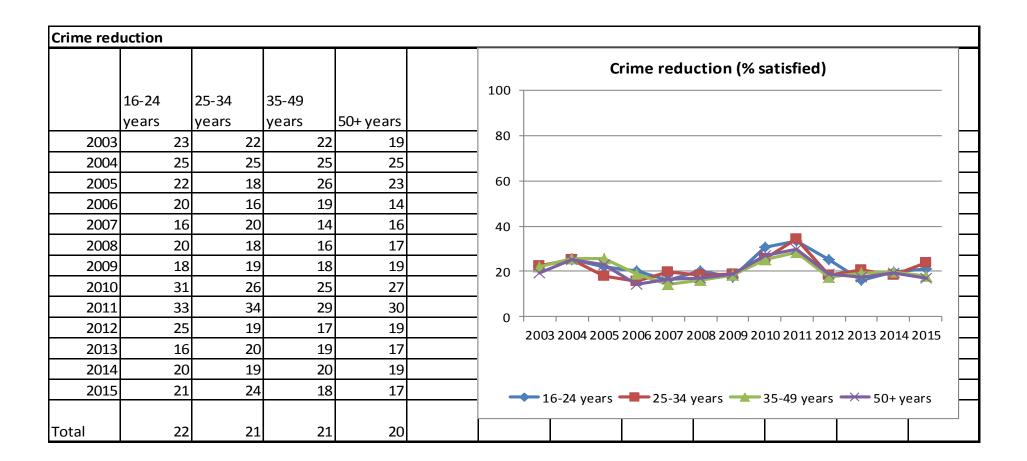
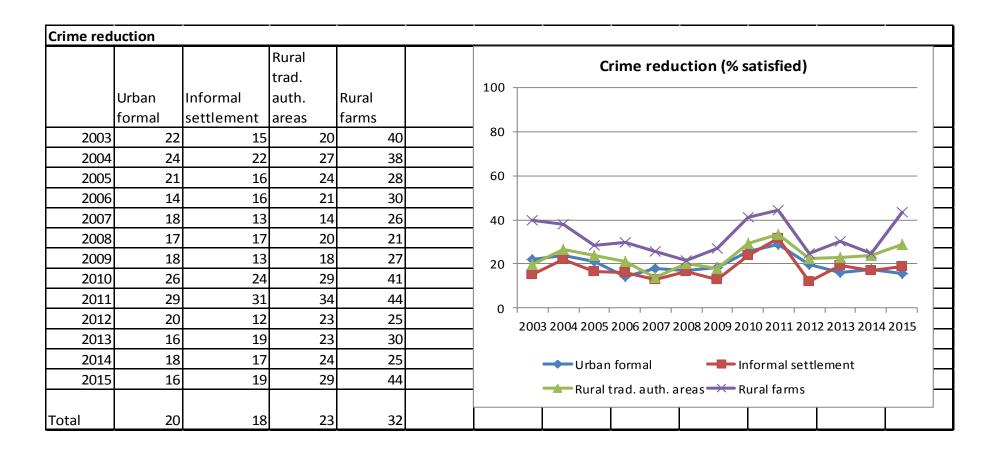


Figure G5. Crime reduction (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix H: Job creation

Figure H1. Job creation (National 2003 -2015)

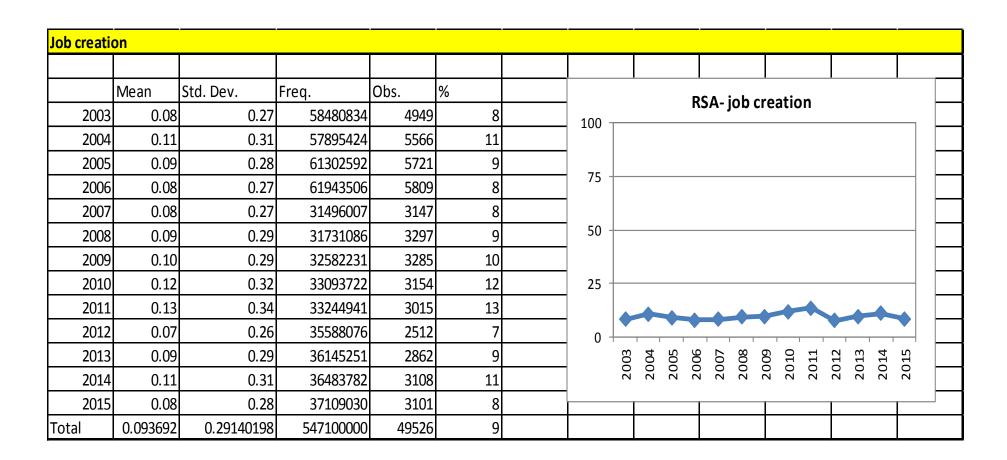


Figure H2. Job creation (by race 2003 -2015)

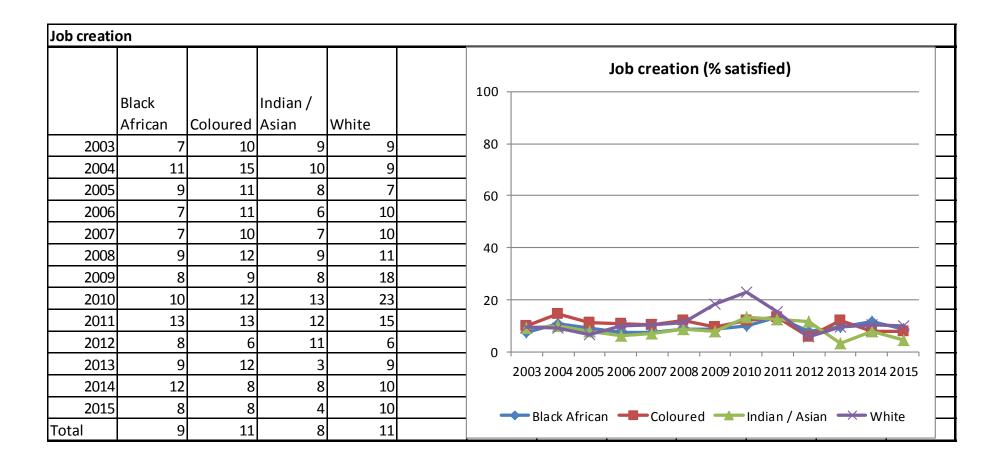


Figure H3. Job creation (by gender 2003 -2015)

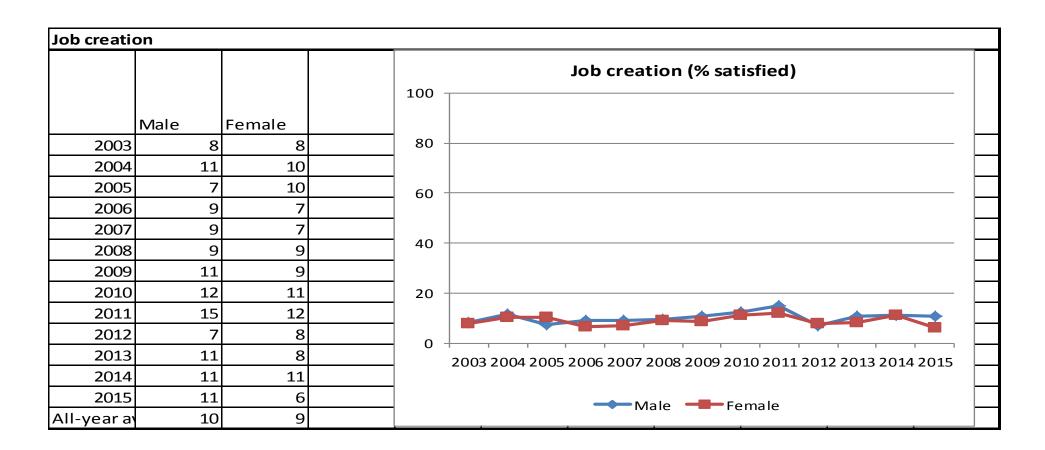


Figure H4. Job creation (by age 2003 -2015)

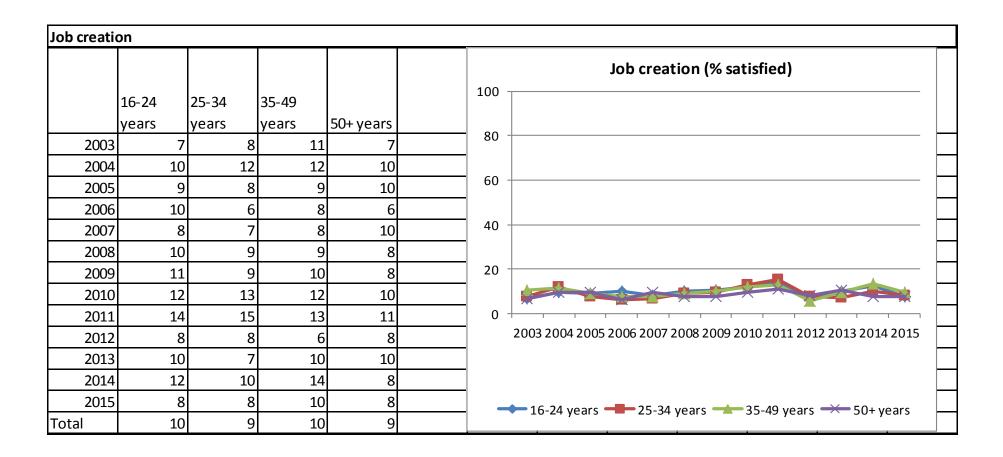
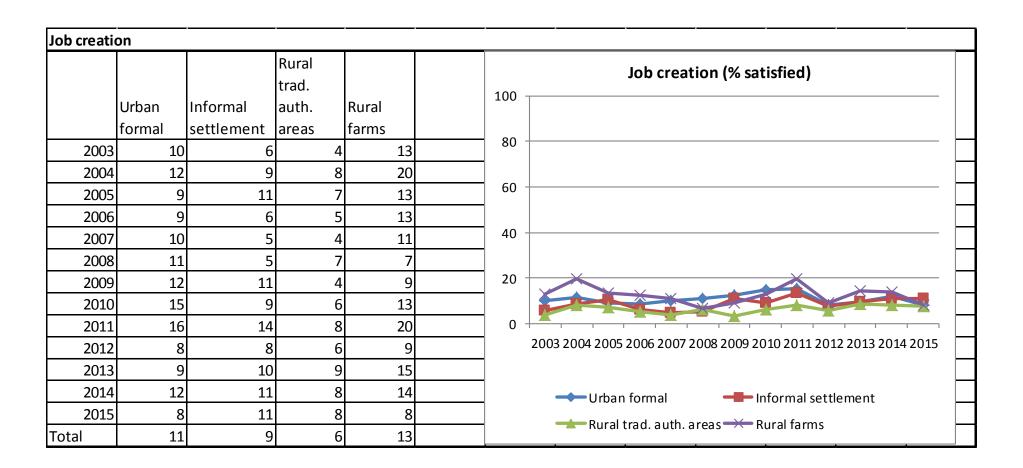


Figure H5. Job creation (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix J: Land reform

Figure J1. Land reform (National 2003 -2015)

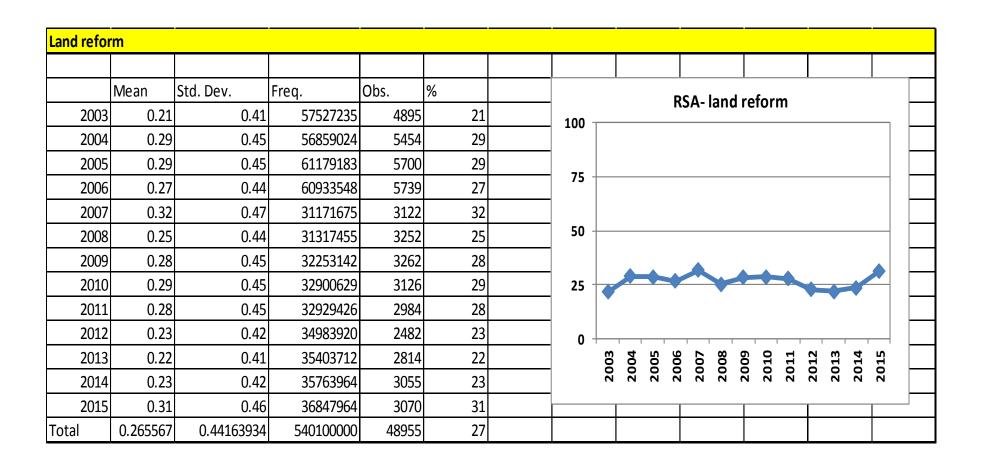


Figure J2. Land reform (by race 2003 -2015)

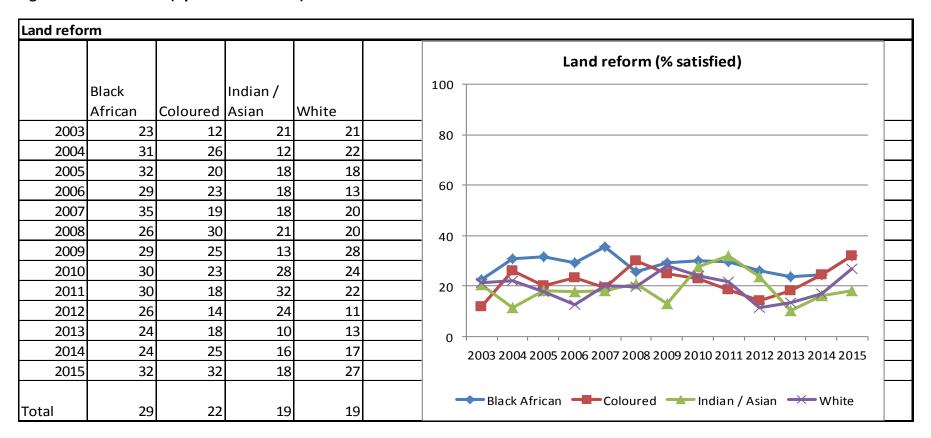


Figure J3. Land reform (by gender 2003 -2015)

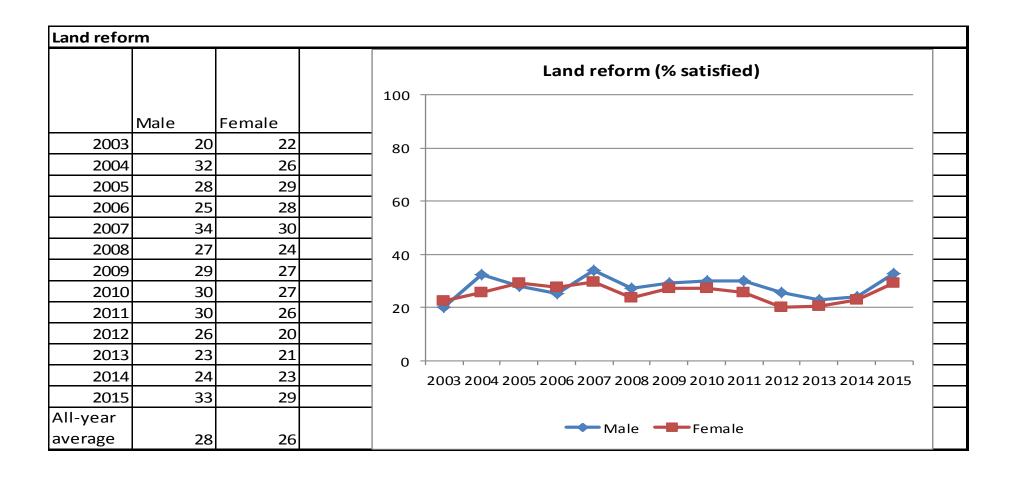


Figure J4. Land reform (by age 2003 -2015)

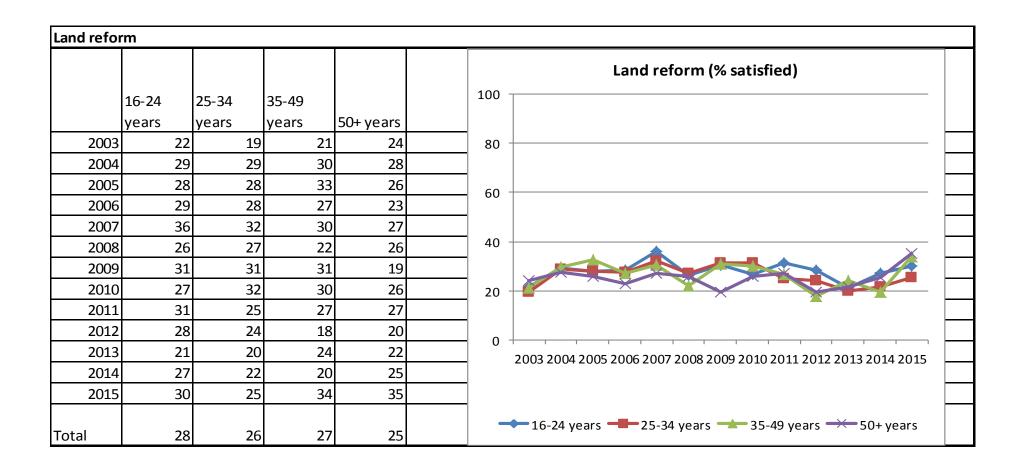


Figure J5. Land reform (by geographic location 2003 -2015)

Land refo	rm		•		
			Rural trad.		Land reform (% satisfied)
	Urban	Informal	auth.	Rural	100
	formal	settlement	areas	farms	<u> </u>
2003	23	12	21	26	80 +
2004	28	23	31	31	
2005	25	27	36	25	60
2006	24	25	31	23	
2007	29	34	36	31	
2008	28	21	22	20	40
2009	29	23	28	32	
2010	30	21	30	27	20
2011	28	24	30	21	
2012	20	23	28	20	
2013	20	17	27	27	2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015
2014	23	22	26	22	2003 2004 2003 2000 2007 2000 2003 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2013
2015	30	33	34	27	─────────────────────────────────────
Total	26	23	29	26	Rural trad. auth. areas Rural farms

Appendix K: Social Grants

Figure K1. Social grants (National 2003 -2015)

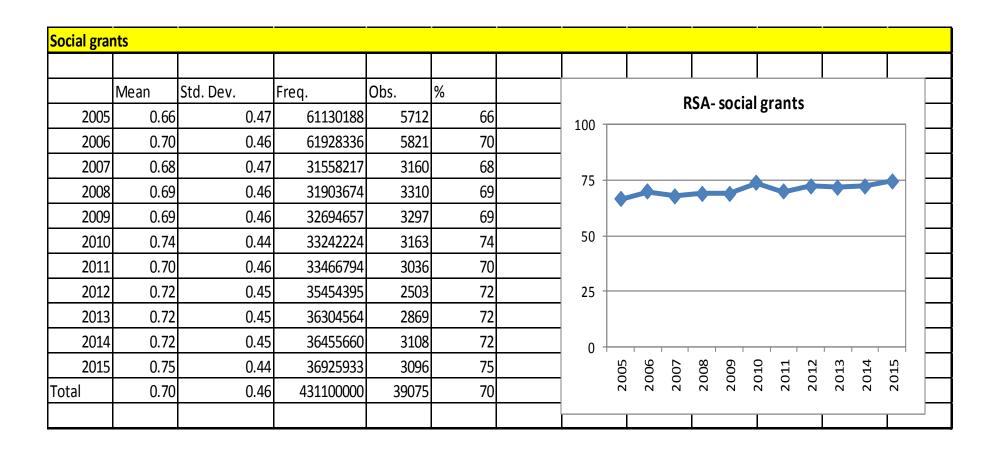


Figure K2. Social grants (by race 2003 -2015)

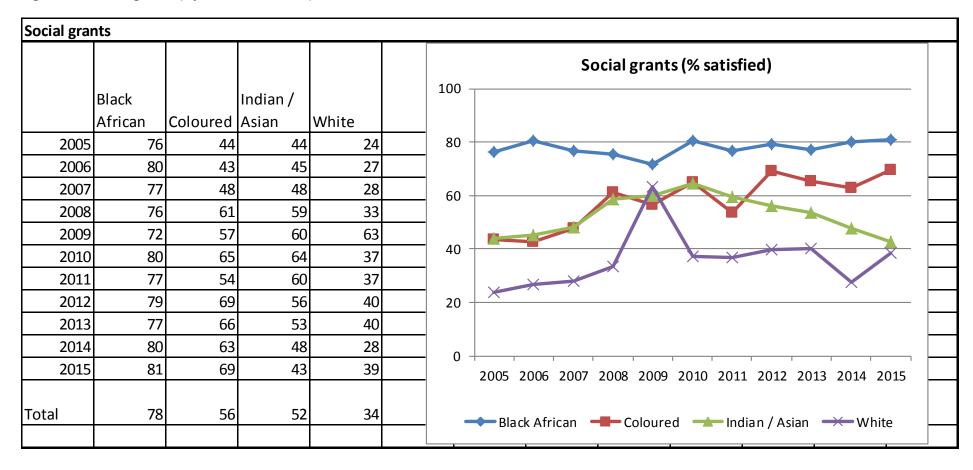


Figure K3. Social grants (by gender 2003 -2015)

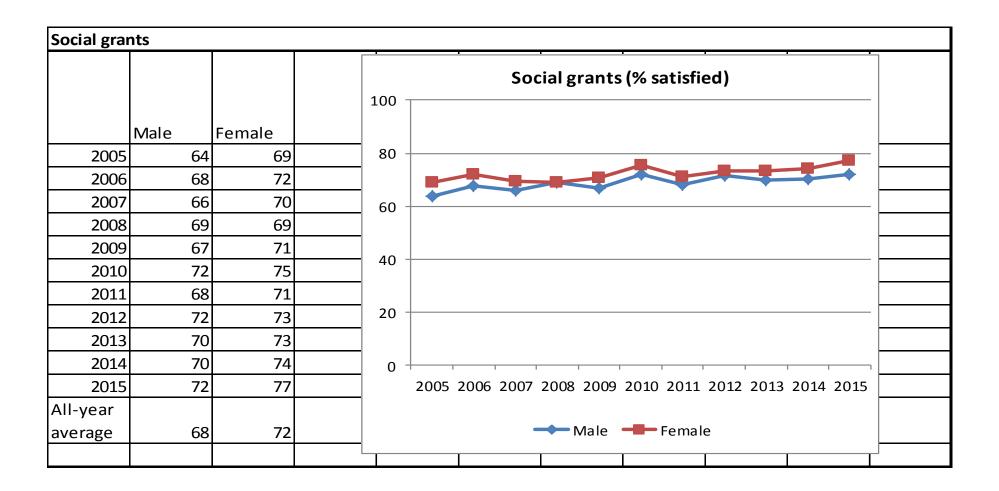


Figure K4. Social grants (by age 2003 -2015)

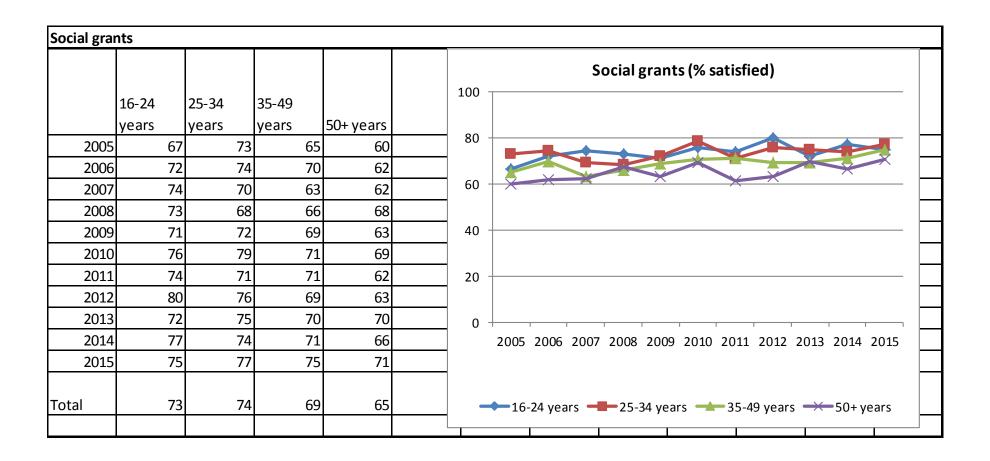
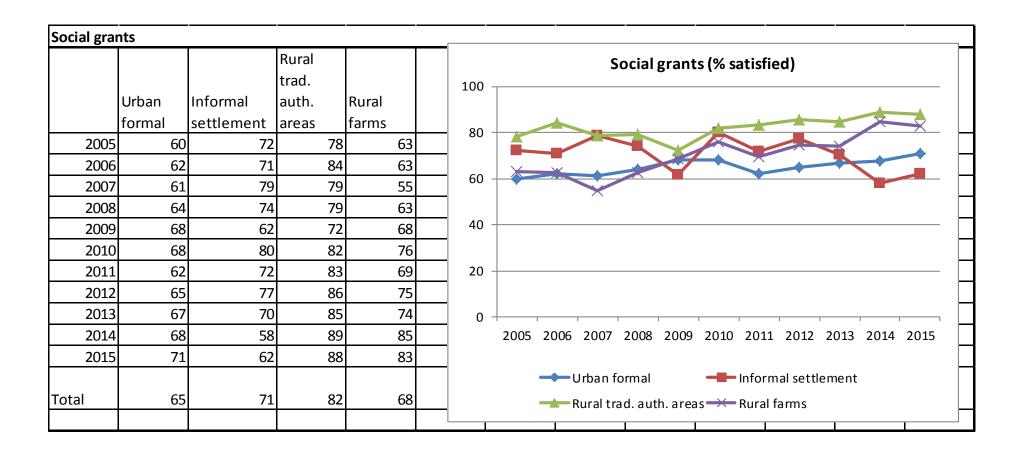


Figure K5. Social grants (by geographic location 2003 -2015)



Appendix L: Education

Figure L1. Education (National 2003 -2015)

Education						
						RSA- education
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Freq.	Obs.	%	100
2006	0.68	0.47	61961796	5793	68	
2007	0.68	0.47	31500765	3156	68	75
2008	0.73	0.44	31828251	3307	73	
2009	0.67	0.47	32649191	3296	67	
2010	0.70	0.46	33238980	3162	70	50
2011	0.65	0.48	33452063	3033	65	
2012	0.60	0.49	35463851	2502	60	25
2013	0.68	0.47	35997106	2856	68	
2014	0.65	0.48	36266021	3095	65	0
2015	0.62	0.49	37078621	3098	62	2006 2007 2008 2009 2011 2012 2013 2013
Γotal	0.67	0.47	369400000	33298	67	

Figure L2. Education (by race 2003 -2015)

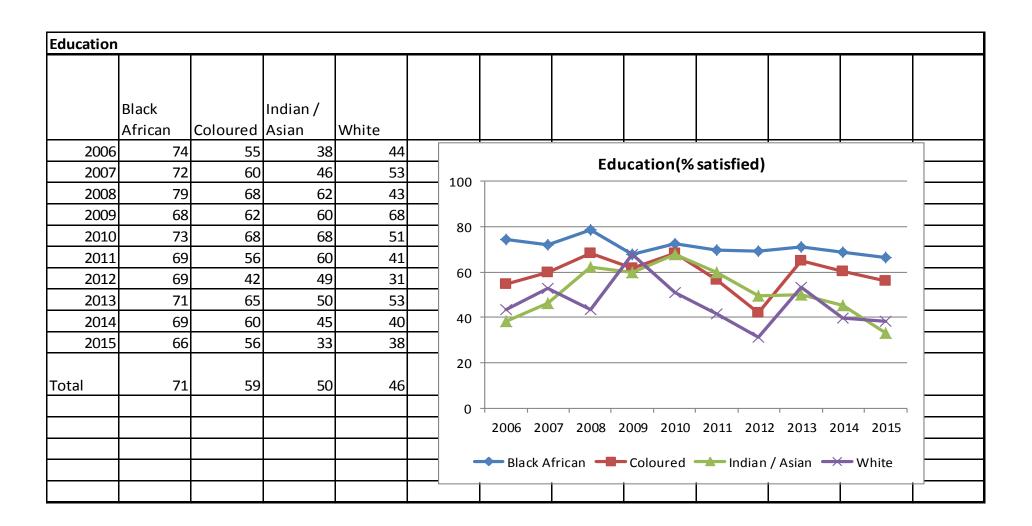


Figure L3. Education (by gender 2003 -2015)

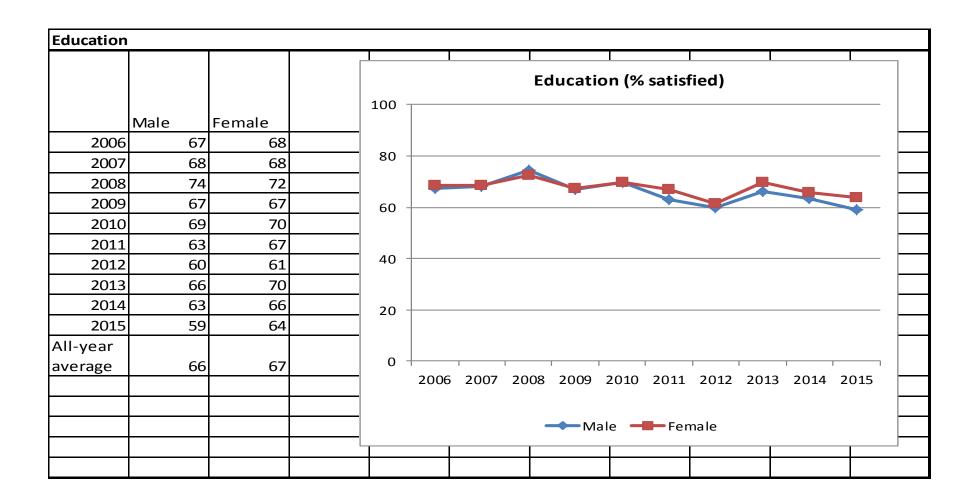


Figure L4. Education (by age 2003 -2015)

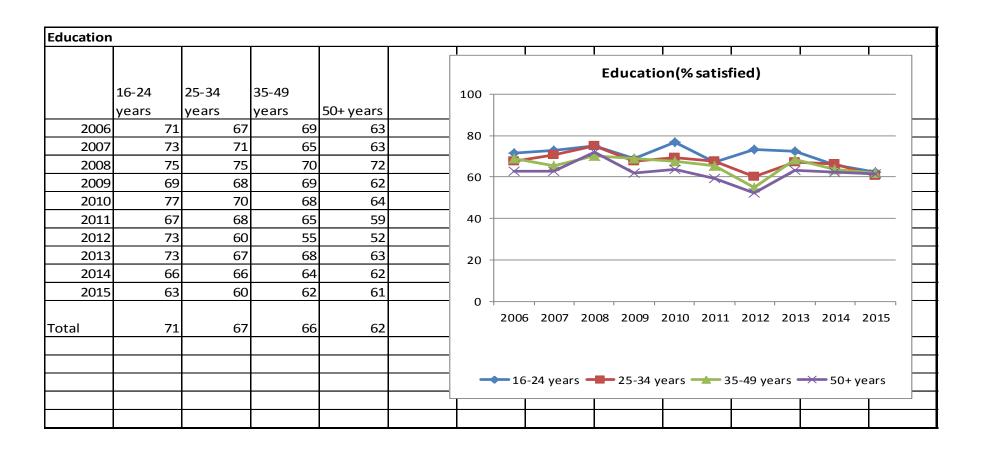


Figure L5. Education (by geographic location 2003 -2015)

