THE LOCALIZATION OF THE KWAZULU
GOVERNMENT SERVICE

by

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DECLARATION

I, Simon Zwelibanzi Mbokazi, declare that this is my own work. All the references have been acknowledged. This work has not been submitted for a degree in any other University.

S Z MBOKAZI

DEDICATION

This work is hereby dedicated to my parents, Amos Mavela and Christine Sibukeli for the source of inspiration and love they have given me and the unending encouragement they have always given me in my academic achievements.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor Prof S. Decalo for his sound advices and support during research and the preparation of the manuscript for this project. I must thank the typist Mrs T.C. Mkhize for having agreed to finalise the manuscript.

My gratitude go to the KwaZulu Government Service and the Public Service Commission for having acceded to my request for conducting research in KwaZulu.

I must thank all the civil servants who responded to my questions either through the post or verbally.

My sincere thanks go to my wife, Greta and my children, Sabelo, Bongani, Phumlani, Xolisile, Cebile, Hlobisile and Sizwe for the constant support in various ways too numerous to mention.

Further, I must thank my friends, relatives and all well-wishers without whom I could not progress in research work.

Finally, I am grateful to God, the Almighty for my preserving life thus far.

ABSTRACT

On the first October, 1954 the Tomlinson Commission submitted its report to Parliament. Inter alia, it recommended that it should be the ultimate aim in the implementation of the policy of separate development of the races that as the Blacks become sufficently advanced to manage their own affairs in their own areas, the administration of such affairs should be gradually transferred to the Blacks.

In order to achieve this, it became necessary to employ Blacks in the areas to manage their own affairs where they might qualify. The Department of Development Aid and that of Education and Training therefore, collaborate with the national states to localize posts if need be or identify them for occupation by seconded officials in case they cannot be localized. The progressive localization of posts advances with self-government.

There are constrains militating against the localization of posts. The main ones being the shortage of skilled manpower generally and of sufficiently qualified management personnel in the higher echelons in particular. Some problems are culture - based. For example, the inability of some Zulu civil servants to accept posts in strange and remote areas even if they are in senior positions.

Since localization implies the gradual transfer of administrative decision-making it has transpired that KwaZulu civil servants are keen to localize whatever posts they possibly can localize especially in the Department of Education and Culture.

The technical, medical and engineering fields are the most difficult to localize. Localization however, does not mean a mere replacement of one race with another. It means the transformation of a foreign system of administration into a local, indigenous one. The whole ethos, philosophy, system of values and procedures change from being legalistic and law-enforcing. It assumes new duties of promoting, empowering and managing African development.

The purpose of this thesis is to find out how far the policy of localization has been applied in KwaZulu especially in the Department of Education and Culture. It traces the fundamental assumptions and implications of localization in general, drawing on the literature available on other African countries and analyses the process in the KwaZulu civil service specifically.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Orientation to the Problem

In terms of the Black Authorities Act of 1951 (supplemented by subsequent legislation) Blacks in South Africa can practice their political rights in their respective national states. Each such state has its own separate civil service, offering opportunities of advancement and upward mobility for local personnel and administrators, as well as scope for independent decision-making in many fields relating to issues and problems facing the population. As one of these national states, KwaZulu has been developing its own civil service on a considerable scale, even though it has not opted for the so-called independence.

In order to facilitate the ongoing administration of these states, and the development of indigenous civil services that will gradually assume total responsibility for policy-making and administration a policy exists by which the central government in Pretoria seconds personnel to posts identified as particularly important and for which trained local staff are unavailable. Such posts continue to be staffed by non-local personnel until such time that they are localized by indigenous staff.

There are, however, many constraints on the speed with which localization can proceed. These include the limited pool of candidates for (in particular) the higher echelons and the more technical fields of the administration. A variety of financial considerations may also slow down the process, as well as political and psychological considerations that affect career choices among potential recruits. Moreover, notwithstanding the central government's stated policy favouring rapid localization

and the devolution of increased decision-making autonomy to the national state civil services, the <u>implementation</u> of such policies depends to a considerable degree upon the seconded non-local officers who may either assist or impede the process for a variety of reasons both personal as well as political.

Localization in a developing country in essence implies the gradual transfer of administrative decision-making authority to indigenous personnel responding to political directives of an indigenous power-hierarchy

In the specific case of KwaZulu, there is a situation of "domestic colonialism" brought about by the theory and practice of separate development. The process of administrative localization in KwaZulu, therefore, raises a variety of other questions such as the limits of the assumed autonomy of the national civil service, and indeed its meaningfulness in the light of the fact that ultimate political power does not reside within the confines of the national state.

The thesis traces the fundamental assumptions and implications of localization in general, drawing on the literature available on other countries in Africa, and analyses the process with some of its administrative, financial, constitutional and psychological ramifications in the KwaZulu civil service specifically.

Research Methodology

Authority was obtained from the Department of Chief Minister and from the Public Service Commission of KwaZulu to examine all existing archival documentation relating to the policy of implementation and problems of localization in KwaZulu. This

material includes official reports as well as memoranda, departmental policy speeches, speeches delivered on public special occasions such as official openings of courses, of buildings, political rallies, Legislative Assembly debates, addresses to specialised groups like, staff or professional associations, staff meetings, departmental meetings and departmental files access to which is both difficult and restricted as is the case with all state-controlled information.

Interviews with senior KwaZulu government service officials were conducted. In addition some senior officials (including senior administrative clerks) in the civil service made themselves available for the questionnaire/schedule relating to their attitude towards localization and the progress being made with the policy. A random sample was conducted of officers serving in both the head office and the regional or circuit offices of the Departments of Interior, Forestry, Agriculture and Forestry, Education and Culture, Police, Finance, Economic Affairs, Health and Welfare, Works, Justice and of the Chief Minister.

Data on the profiles of the respondents, their perceptions on the subjects relating to the whole issue of localization in KwaZulu, especially relevant for the seconded officials, aspirations, prospects for promotion, need for further training, increased role in decision-making, the meaningfulness or limitations of the formal authority they possess vis a vis the dual control experienced by all self-governing national states civil servants. A special reference to the Department of Education and Culture has been made as a case study of localization within the national state of KwaZulu.

Presentation of Material

In the second chapter an introductory historical and descriptive analysis of the national state of KwaZulu is being made. In Chapter 3 the concept of localization and other related concepts are defined.

In Chapter 4 examples of the implementation of the policy of localization elsewhere in Africa are discussed including reasons and problems thereof. In Chapter 5 the implementation of the policy of localization in KwaZulu is analysed. In Chapter 6 the case study of the Department of Education is singled out for analysis. In both Chapters 5 and 6 the analysis of the responses of the respondents is made. In Chapter 7 conclusions and recommendations are drawn and made respectively.

Rationale for the Topic

Since the establishment of the KwaZulu Government Service which came into being in 1972 a number of changes have taken place in KwaZulu. Most of these changes constitute development. For instance, 1 738 181 people are card-carrying members of Inkatha - an organization within which they can bargain for political socio-economic administrative and legal rights. This organization has become a considerable force to be reckoned with under the leadership of His Excellency, The Honourable Prince M G Buthelezi, Chief Minister of KwaZulu and President of Inkatha. The Black citizens have become sufficiently interested in the KwaZulu national state politics and have consequently become vociferous about their rights and their potential ability to run their own affairs.[1] Some senior posts have been created and filled by Black civil servants while some have been localized, having been occupied by seconded officials previously.

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1   Sunday Times: 16 July 1989 page 10.

It is, therefore, fitting to investigate, at this point in time, the extent to which the KwaZulu civil servants are keen, motivated, ready or prepared to take over their own administration. It is also important for this study to investigate the availability of opportunities for education and training at tertiary level and post-school institutions for the specific purpose of localising posts that have been hitherto held by seconded officials.

It will also be interesting to find out whether or not receiving education, especially at tertiary level or in the technical field, is a route to escape poverty, underdevelopment, oppression and discrimination, as is assumed by most of the KwaZulu citizens.

The thesis will determine whether the policy of localization is pursued in KwaZulu and what has been attained in the implementation thereof. An indication as to the shortage of certain types of personnel will be made in the process of analyzing localization. Finally a justification of localization will be discussed and ways and means of accelerating it will be suggested.

Hypothesis

Localization is often a result of the process of decolonization and is therefore closely related to self-government, self-determination and national development. Self-determination gives rise to the desire of the people to manage their own affairs. It can be safely assumed, therefore, that since KwaZulu has reached the stage of self-government in its constitutions development in 1977, the KwaZulu people have a desire to manage their own affairs. Localization may therefore

be one of the results of self-government. As a self-governing territory, KwaZulu might necessarily be faced with the problem of rising expectation and modernization in all aspects of life including the public service.

Normally, there are factors militating against the process of self-determination and localization of the civil service in emerging countries. These include lack of suitably qualified and experienced local candidates for the highly specialized positions which were previously held by non-nationals, lack of confidence and assertiveness on the part of the locals in the public service, shortage of facilities to educate and train the required manpower in the civil service, lack of financial resources to finance the process of localization.

It is however, necessary to establish exactly which of these problems are encountered by KwaZulu.

Problems Encountered in Research

Fieldwork in this thesis was accompanied by problems which were, however, not insurmountable.

a) Government departments and the civil service as a whole are secretive in nature and are wrought with protocol and red tape. Consequently, it is difficult to obtain official information and response to probing questions or to verify information that has been obtained outside official sources unless the researcher achieves a well-balanced mix of diplomacy and assertiveness.

b) Security awareness and over-cautiousness by government officials whilst necessary in dealing with information especially of a personal nature, impede the progress of research. Spontaneously open discussion is impossible where respondents are uncertain about the later use of the research results or information they reveal.

c) Constant changes in policies, procedures, regulations and laws pertaining to conditions of service in the public service necessarily require that the researcher familiarizes himself with such regulations as may be relevant to the progress of advancement of the civil service even if these are not directly concerned with the problem under scrutiny.

d) The fluidity and uncertainty of the political future of the national states as founded on the principle of separate development presents a problem pertaining to the worthwhileness of the whole study as a subject or research.

e) Untimely transfers, retirements, resignations and deaths of some of the respondents approached affect the speed with which the responses can be obtained and the number of possible respondents in research.

f) Many middle-level management public servants lack sufficient time to remain efficient in their functions as a result of shortage of staff and backlog. When they have to make time for responding to research, it becomes a burden.[1]

g) The political changes that were effected in the Republic of South Africa after 2 February 1990, involving _inter alia_, the unbanning of the ANC and other banned political groups, took everybody by surprise. In KwaZulu, it was unthinkable that the ideas of other groups would become relevant. It was, therefore, irrelevant at the time of this project to research the ideas of other political persuasions other than the official view of KwaZulu.

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[1] Circular No. 13 of 1989 of the Public Service Commission substituting paragraph 19 of the Manual for the Evaluation of Personnel in KwaZulu.

CHAPTER II

KWAZULU IN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

KwaZulu[1] as it is known today, refers to the third biggest of all the South African national states in terms of land size. Its de facto population of 7 million also makes it the largest of these entities. The territory consists of 48 large and 157 smaller areas of land amounting to a total of 3.14 million hectares. These are dispersed throughout the province of Natal occupying about 35 percent of the latter's territory (see Map 1 on page 9).

The new entity is supposed, according to the 1975 plan for the consolidation of KwaZulu, to consist eventually of only eight separate blocks of land. The Zulus, who are are the main inhabitants of KwaZulu, are part of the Nguni people.[2] They were not a large clan until Shaka, the son of Senzangakhona Zúlu, built the clan up into a nation. Originally, they were

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1   Literally meaning "the place of the Zulus".

2   Other national states within the Republic of South Africa are Lebowa, Gazankulu, KaNgwane, KwaNdebele and Qwaqwa. The other national states referred to as the TBVC states are the Transkei, Ciskei, Bophuthatswana and Venda. Together the national states constitute 13 percent of the Republic.

KWAZULU NATIONAL STATE
WITHIN THE PROVINCE OF NATAL

MOZAMBIQUE

SWAZILAND

TRANSVAAL

P P BURG

UTRECHT

NGOTSHE

BOMBO

NEWCASTLE

VRYHEID

DUN HSR

GLNCOE

O.F.S.

DUNDEE

BABANGO

KLIPRIVER

NUWENI

MFOLOZI

WEENEN

ESTCOURT

KRANS KOP

LOWER MFOLOZI

LESOTHO

MOOI RIVER

UMVOTI

LIONS RIVER

N HANOVER

MPENDLE

P BURG

DURBAN

UNDERBERG

CAMPERDOWN

RICHMOND

IXOPHO

TRASKEI

UMZINTO

INDIAN OCEAN

P. SHEPSTONE

KWA ZULU

0   50   100   150
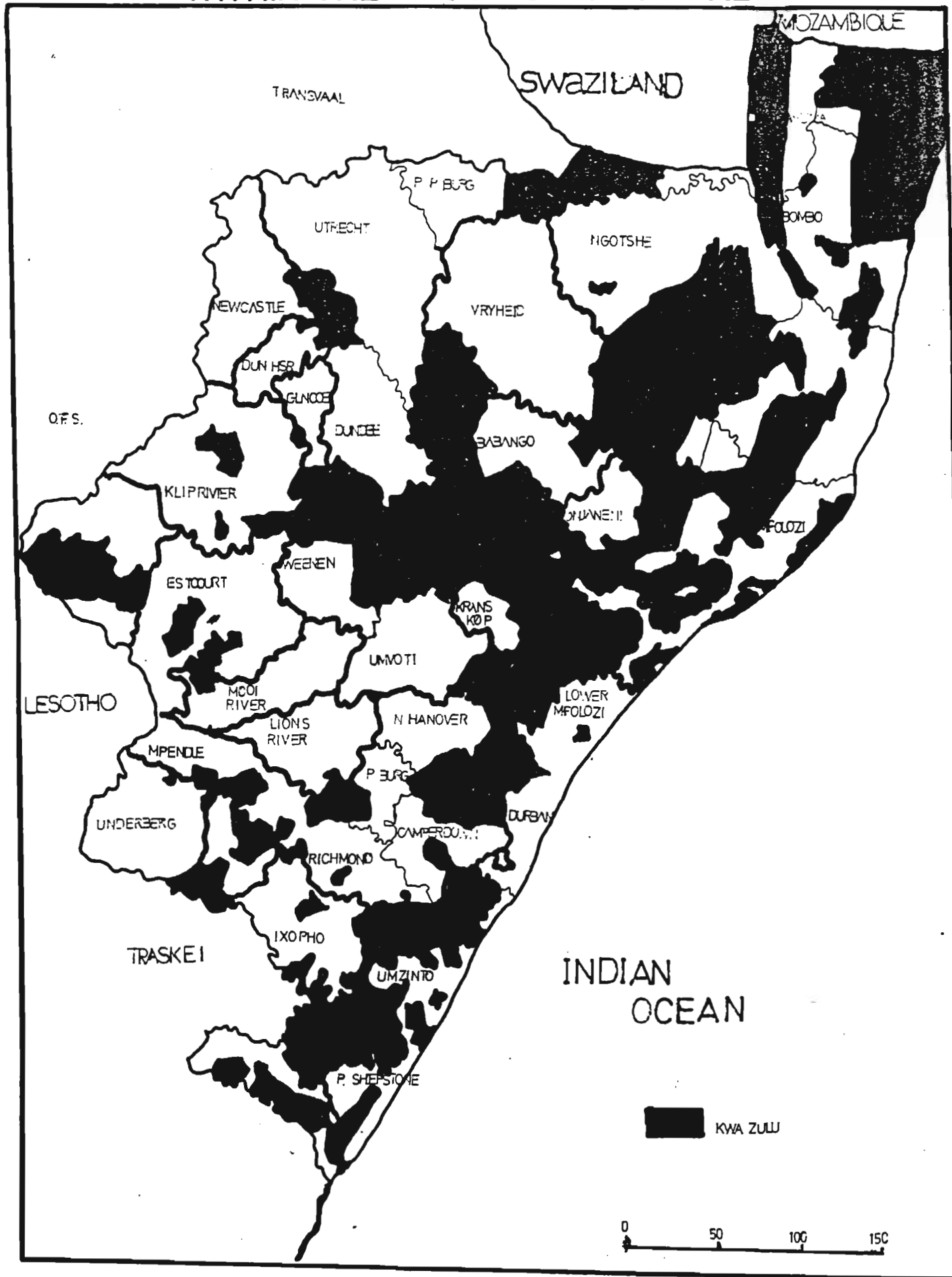
vassals of the Mthethwa tribe. When Shaka assumed power, he conquered all the other tribes[1] in Natal between 1817 and 1824, such as the Buthelezi's and the Ndwandwes, and in due course forged a strong Zulu nation. At its height, the nation occupied large tracts of land from north of the Umtavuna river in the south, sharing a border with what is today called Mozambique in the north east and extending just over Pongola river and the Vaal river in the north, stretching from the Indian ocean up to the Drakensberg mountains in the west (see Map 2 on page 11).

In so far as Shaka's leadership is concerned, he had had excellent military training under Dingiswayo of the Mthethwa during his young years. In addition he was a born leader and a military genius as well. As a result of his harsh discipline especially at the height of his power (1820-1824) he fell into disfavour with his half-brothers and they assassinated him in 1828. Dingane, one of his half-brothers and assassins succeeded him.

King Dingane ruled with a fear of being ousted and lacked the statemanship of King Shaka. He was later ousted by his younger brother, Mpande. The latter's 32 year reign was peaceful, and his son, Cetshwayo succeeded him. King Cetshwayo is generally regarded as the last Zulu king. During his reign the Zulus

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1   See Bryant, A.T. Olden Times in Zululand and Natal· Cape
    Town: Longman's, 1938 or The Zulu People· Pietermaritzburg:
    Shuter & Shooter, 1962.

KWA ZULU IN RELATION TO NATAL TOWNS
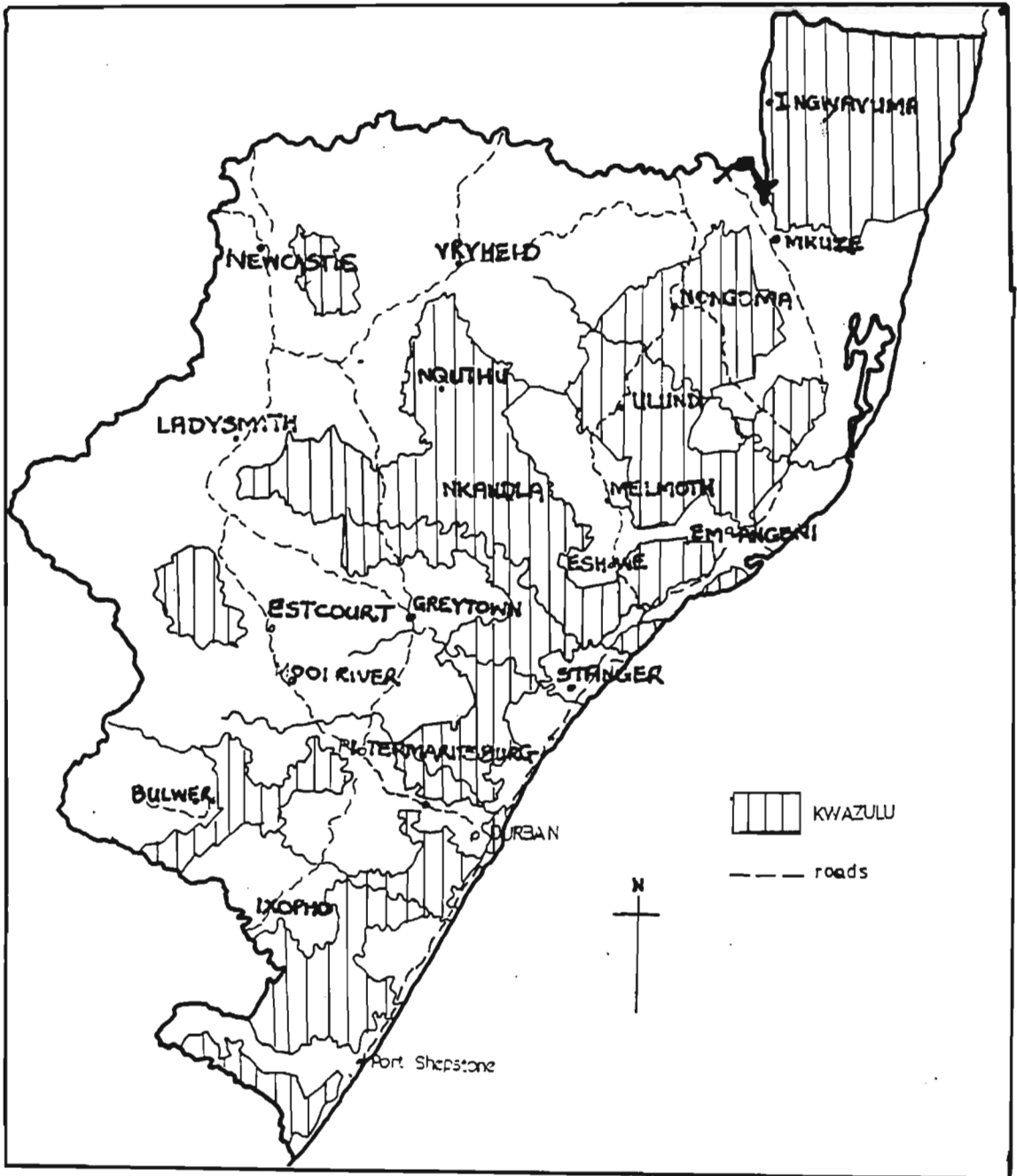
defeated the British in the battle of Isandlwana.   However, the Zulu power was finally crushed by the British at the battle of Ulundi in 1879.

The systematic curtailing of the power of the Zulu monarchy, however, dates back to King Mpande's rule.   Whereas during King Shaka's rule, the Zulu monarchy constituted the whole political universe King Mpande is regarded as "claudius" of the Royal House who gave preaching rights to white missionaries and later had to contend with the British imperialism and Afrikaner ambitions of political control and land acquisition in Natal.[1]

In 1873, at King Cetshwayo's coronation the British government proclaimed laws to restrict and curtail the power of the Zulu monarchy severely.[2]   A few of them are as follows:

"That indiscriminate shedding of blood should cease in the land.

"That no Zulu shall be condemned without open trial and the public examination of witnesses for or against and that he shall have a right to appeal to the King.

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1   Duminy, A & Ballard, C. The Anglo-Zulu War, New Perspective
     Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal, 1981 p. 19.

2   Read   Guy,   J.   The Destruction of the Zulu Kingdom.
     Johannesburg: Ravan, 1979 for a full account of how the Zulu
     power was eventually vanquished.

"That no Zulu's life, shall be taken without the previous knowledge and consent of the King, after such trial has taken place and the right of appeal has been allowed to be exercised.

"That for minor crimes, the loss of property, all of it or a portion thereof, shall be substituted for the punishment by death".[1]

Later on, the British government demanded the disbandment of the King's regiment. Further factors that led to the gradual denudation of the once independent and self-reliant Zulu people were, according to Peter Colenbrander[2] the shortage of cattle and hides as a result of stock diseases, the dependence upon fire-arms and ammunition for self-presevartion and self-defence and the increased reliance on imported iron-ware, particularly hoes, assegais instead of the precious indigenous iron-smelting industries. As a result the Zulus became an improverished labour-exporting peasantry and mere survivors.

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1   Duminy et.al., op.cit. p. 14. Some of the strong words used in these laws were based on the ignorance of African Law and customs on the part of the British e.g. "indiscriminate shedding of blood".

2   Ibid, p. 65.

Dinuzulu, son of King Cetshwayo succeeded him in 1884 to the "mere shadow of a throne".[1]   He eventually lost even what little power he possessed when he was banished to St Helena, as a result of his clash with the British over the control of a portion of Zululand.   He was eventually brought back to Zululand to reign over a segment of Nongoma district in Zululand.   When he got involved in the Bambada rebellion against the Natal government, he was finally banished to the district of Middleburg in the Transvaal where he died in 1913.[2]

His son Solomon succeeded him in 1916.   King Solomon's powers were even more severely restricted by the government of the Union of South Africa.   When he died in 1933, his son was too young to ascend the throne, which by then, merely symbolised Zulu values and nationhood and possessed little political power.

Prince Mshiyeni, uncle of the King designate Prince Cyprian, assumed the throne and acted as a regent until Prince Cyprian Bhekuzulu was of age to ascend the throne.   Prince Cyprian reigned until his death in 1968.

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1   For the full description of how the Zulu Kingdon was cut up to 13 little chieftainships in Natal, the epilogue in Donald Morris's work, <u>The Washing of the Spears</u>, New York: Simon & Schuster 1972, is useful.

2   A full story of "Dinuzulu's time in Zululand is found in the book by C.T. Binns, <u>Dinuzulu: The Death of the House of Shaka</u>, London: Longmans, 1968.

King Cyprian's son, like his father was too young to ascend the throne when his father died in 1968. Therefore, Prince Israel Mcwayizeni, his uncle, was installed in 1968 as regent until 1971 when King Goodwill Zwelithini, the present King, ascended the throne.

Under the present disposition of power and authority, KwaZulu's highest authority is the King of the Zulus who symbolically represents the unity of the Zulu nation and is constitutionally above politics. He has a seat in the Legislative Assembly which can be occupied by his representative in his absence.

White Settlement and the Colonization of Natal

Since it is necessary to know the historical origins of the patch-work that is KwaZulu, it is important to make an overview of how the "reserves" constituting the so-called "homeland" in Natal were systematically set aside for exclusive occupation by the Zulus. These reserves came into existence as a result of long processes of legislation and investigations by commission after commission.

The first group of White settlers in Natal were the British explorers in 1824.[1] Their stay and political control was, however, short-lived as the Afrikaner took over the control of

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1   For a detailed description of the First British Explorers in Natal; see Morris, The Washing of the Spears. 1972.

Natal after the famous battle of Ncome in 1834 between themselves and the Zulus.[1]

As the Afrikaaners assumed power, they could then determine a policy whereby they would share the land with the Zulus and facilitate co-existence. Since land was a scarce item, the Afrikaners adopted a policy of territorial segregation for example, the Zulus were to be confined to certain areas. The aim of this policy was to ensure the security of land for the exclusive occupation by Whites on the one hand and to prevent the Zulus from scattering themselves all over the land as they did in the past, on the other. Afrikaaner political control was, however, like the British settlement and occupation, also short-lived. In 1843, Natal was brought under the control of the British government once more.

During the British control of Natal, (1843-1845) the problems of scarcity of land became serious as the Zulus demographically grew rapidly up to about 80 000.

The Zulu preponderance in numbers became a concern for the Whites in Natal and the Colonial Office in Britain. As a result of this concern the British government appointed a Diplomatic Agent to the Black people of Natal (Zulus only at that time) in

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1   After the war, this river was renamed Blood River, because the blood of the Zulus poured into the river as they slipped off the banks of the river and floundered in the water.

1845.   He was Sir Theophilus Shepstone.   Since the matter of
land allocation for the Zulus was not yet settled the Governor of
Natal, Lt. Governor Martin West appointed a commission[1] to report
to the British government on the whole question of native affairs
for the purpose of general administration and land allocation.

This commission recommended a location system which was based on
the same principle of territorial segregation.[2]   Each location
was to be controlled by a superintendent with one or more
assistants depending upon the size of the location.   Law and
order was to be maintained by a Zulu police force under the
control and supervision of a White policeman.   Each location was
supposed   to   have a school to educate Africans.   The
superintendent of each location was supposed to instruct Africans
in   agriculture systematically.[3]   Although most of these
recommendations were turned down by the British government, the
location system concerned during Martin West's governorship was
subsequently implemented successfully.[4]

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1   First Native Commission.

2   A system whereby reserves were put aside for the Blacks.

3   Brookes, E.H. <u>White Rule in S.A.</u> 1839-1910, Pietermaritzburg:
     Natal Witness, 1974, p. 42.

4   Holden, W.C. <u>A History of the Colony of Natal</u> 1963, p. 177.

During the implementation of the location system, it was necessary to establish first, whether or not, the 80 000 Zulus scattered all over the province of Natal were in fact, Zulus or aboriginal inhabitants of the province. The commission, fortunately, recognized the 80 000 Zulus as the rightful inhabitants of Natal who had been affected by the turmoil which had been previously caused by internicine strife within the province prior to the establishment of the Zulu nation as a single nation in Natal. As a result of this consideration, and as a second step in the implementation of the location system two million acres[1] were set aside for the Zulu ocupation (De Kiewiet contends that it was 116 800 acres, while Sullivan alleges that it was about 2 000 000 acres)[2]. The settling apart of locations for occupation by the Zulus irrespective of whether they had come from the south or north was insignificant in that it was a shift from Voortrekker suggestion which had been made previously in 1841 that "surplus Zulus" would be "disposed of" on a tract of land between the Umtavuna and the Umzimvubu rivers to the south of the Republic of Natalia.[3] The scheme, however, never materialised until the British government took over the control of Natal.

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1   Ibid, p. 176.

2. For a detailed discussion of the possible amount of land allocation see De Kiewiet, C.W.: A History of South Africa, Oxford, UP, London and Sullivan, T.R The Native Police of Sir Theophilus Shepstone (no date) Agar-Hamilton, J.A.J. An Essay in the History of the Interior of South Africa Cape Town: Maskew Miller; 1858.

3   Rodgers, H. Native Administration in the Union of South Africa.Pretoria: Government Printer, 1949 p. 102.

On disapproving some of Martin West's suggestions (some were implemented) which were made through the First Native Commission,[1] the British colonial office appointed a second commission on grounds that the first one did not differentiate between the aboriginal Zulus and refugee Blacks in Natal.[2] This commission was called the Boys Commission. It recommended among other things, that a segment of Zulus should be settled in the area between the Umzimkhulu and Umzimvubu rivers because they had a status of refugees rather than that of aboriginals of Natal. This area was going to be cut up into pieces of 50 000 acres each for location purposes.[3] However, the British government could not once more approve of these recommendations in their entirety, since they constituted population transfers which amounted to an infringement of a human right to have a place of abode of your own choice. Only a selected approval was given by the government, of the location system, for example, location sites within the Colony of Natal were identified and approved for Zulu exclusive occupation.

The government was, however, not satisfied - at least not completely, with the status quo of land apportionment in the colony of Natal. Land was still a bone of contention between

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1   This was called the McFarlene Commission.

2   Holden, op.cit.

3   Agar-Hamilton, J.A.T. op.cit

the Zulus and the Whites.   Another Commission was yet appointed to enquire into the previous commissions and their recommendations and the state of the Zulus in Natal on 27 September 1852.[1] This commission criticized its predecessors on a number of issues pertaining to Black administration. ˙Among other things, this commission contended that the size of the locations recommended was too large,[2] the abundant source of cheap Zulu labour dried up in due course[3] as a result of the location system and that the trial tribal system which had been resuscitated was unnecessary since there were no means of keeping order when staff and finance were scarce.   This commission, like the previous one, also divided the Zulus into aboriginals and refugees.   It further recommended that between 30 and 40 thousand refugees should be settled south of Umzimkhulu river.   They would be settled in locations of 26 000 acres each with 8 000 inhabitants.[4]   These locations would be governed by the Diplomatic Agent.   With respect to Zulus between the Tugela and the Umzimvubu rivers, the commission decided to adopt

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1   For a detailed discussion of these points, see Brookes, E.H. (1974) and Holden, W. (1963).

2   This point is emphasized by Jef Guy too in his book. The Destruction of the Zulu Kingdom. Johannesburg: Ravan Press, (1979)

3   Sullivan, J.R. describes this situation fully in his book: The Native Policy of Sir Theophilus Shepstone, Van Biljon also criticizes the location system in his book, Grensbaken tussen Blank en Swart in Suid-Afrika, Kaapstad: Juta, 1947.

4   Ibid. p. 95

the same system which created a position of a Diplomatic Agent (Sir Theophilus Shepstone).[1]

The Missionary Enterprise

In the meantime the missionaries were very active in evangelizing the Zulu into Christian faith. The Zulus were very slow in accepting the Christian faith as it demanded clastic changes in their way of life. The changes included the shedding of traditional polygamous families, the payment of lobola as a condition for a marriage the sexual division of labour confining women to agricultural labour and men to pastoral duties.[2] Another impediment to the spread of Christianity was the continuous hostilities that existed between the Zulus and the Trekkers on the one hand and the civil wars involving King Cetshwayo, Prince Mbuyazi and Zibhebhu, the banning of Christianity from Zululand by the Zulu monarchy on the other. Etherington has the following to say about the result of the missionary enterprise in Zululand;

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1. The following groups existed in Natal:

   Anglicans, American Congregationalist, Scottish Presbyterians, English Methodists, Catholics of the German and French Origin, Lutherans from Scandanavia, Russia, Saxony, Hermannsburg, Baptists from Scandanavia and America.

2. Etherington, N. Christianity and African Society in the Nineteen Century, Natal, in Duminy A. & Guest B. (eds). Natal and Zululand from Earliest Times to 1910, A New History. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press and Shuter & Shooter, 1989. p. 281.

"During the first five decades of evangelism
in Natal, the work of hundred of missionaries
produced an African Christian population of
less than 10 000, well under 10 percent of
the population".(1)

Those who were eventually converted went to settle in mission stations or mission reserves where missionaries had obtained large tracts of land for farming residences and church planting. They were referred to as amakholwa. These mission stations became education centres where Africans not only experienced Christianity but formal education too.

The kholwa group of Africans became agriculturalists, traders, professionals, carriers, and stimulators of wealth - accumulating activities. They took advantage also of educational opportunities available on the mission stations. As a result some of them won the exemption from African law.[2]

The amakholwa became prominent in making demands of equality between Whites and Blacks, self-determination in economic, religious and political activities. Pioneers of African Nationalism such as Dr J.L. Dube[3] and Chief Albert Luthuli[4] are the products of these mission stations. Their contribution in the struggle for the inclusion of the Africans in the political process of the country is indelible.

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1. Ibid, p. 282.

2. The Natal Code of African Law.

3. Founder President of the ANC, 1912 from Inanda Mission; American Board.

4. Former President of the ANC, from Groutville Mission, American Board.

The Shepstone Regime[1]

Sullivan [2] summarizes the Shepstone Policy aptly as follows:
There was a guarantee to the tribes of certain areas of land in
Natal held in trusteeship by the government.   The Zulus were to
live according to their tribal laws and customs under the
guidance of White administrators who would provide westernizing
agents in the form of formal schools, mission stations, roads,
trade and commercial concerns.   There was to be franchise to
land owners who were exempted from Zulu law and custom.   It was
possible for Zulus to get an individual freehold title deed.
The Blacks were recognized generally as ful citizens.

Sir Theophilus Shepstone carried out the recommendations of the
MacFarlane Commission single-handed.   The government did not
have sufficient funds to implement them.   Shepstone believed as
far as the occupation of land was concerned, Zulus should be

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1   A detailed description of the recommendations of the
    MacFarlane Commission on this system is found in Van
    Biljon's work referred to (3) above pp. 270-272 and
    Sullivan's as well.

2   Sullivan, J.R. The Native Policy of Sir Theophilus Shepstone.
    Johannesburg: Walker & Marshall, 1928. p. 112.

separated from Whites. This system of territorial segregation was later adopted by the Union of South Africa in 1910 and was the basis of land allocation to the Zulus in Natal long after the Shepstone era had elapsed - hence the fragmented nature of the KwaZulu territory. There is therefore, a close relationships between the present boundaries of KwaZulu and the original Zulu reserves allocated by the British government to the Zulus.

The basic means of indirect control that Sir Theophilus Shepstone successfully used was chieftainship. This, he resorted to, because the British government did not have enough funds for the administration of Zulu locations in the Colony. He, therefore, appointed chiefs, gave them jurisdiction and controlled them personally.

Those tribes which still had their chiefs had to have them recognised officially. The new chieftanships that were created as a result of Shepstone's policy, became hereditary in accordance with Zulu law and custom. The Supreme Chief of the Zulus, according to this administrative law, was the Governor of Natal. This system was later adopted by the Union of South Africa (1910) and later by the Republic of South Africa (1961) in which case the State President is the Supreme Chief of All Blacks in the country.

In as far as the size of the locations is concerned, these were not necessarily large enough to accommodate the large number of Zulus that were supposed to be there. In fact they were the most barren, wild and broken parts of exceedingly rugged and picturesque division of South Africa. Only small portions here and there were suitable for cultivation. Much of the land is

not even suitable for pasturage.[1]   The total of land was the one
tenth of Natal.   For every 225 acres only one acre was suitable
for cultivation.   Although Whites thought that the Zulus had
more than enough land, the main grievance among the latter in
Natal at the end of Shepstone's career as secretary for Native
Affairs was that they had insufficient land.

Shepstone was an adherent of Zulu land rights but he insisted
that the latter were a separate group and different, warranting a
unique type of administration according to their laws, customs,
and usages - hence the Natal Code of African Law.   He, further,
shared with the British colonists the view that cultural
assimilation was desirable, although of course he was no believer
in racial equality.[2]   In essence, this was the start of separate
development as a policy in administration.[3]

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1   Brookes (1974) goes on to say that the land was only
     suitable for the habitation of the eagle and the balcon.
     De Kiewiet (1957) also dismissed the reserves as ravines
     from which torents have torn away all useful soil.
     Sullivan (1928) contends that only cattle could be kept by
     Zulus.   Welsh (1970) describes Impofana reserves as
     worthless as sands of Arabia.

2   Welsh, D.   The Roots of Segregation 1845-1910.   Cape Town:
     Oxford University Press, 1971. p. 214, of Inanda he quotes
     Daniel Lindley as having observed: A more broken, worthless
     region could be found.

3   Welsh, D. op.cit. p. 36.

Because Shepstone was secretive, silent and stubborn, he could not train any great administrator of his calibre as there was need for continuity.[1] His insistence on the need for a separate Black machinery and philosophy of administration led to the creation of the Native Affairs Department of which Shepstone was the Secretary. Historians and administrative analysts regard that administrative strategy as an imperium in imperio. This is an essentially undesirable administrative situation in which a Supreme Authority exists within a jurisdiction of another authority. The Department of Co-operation and Development replaced that of Bantu Administration and Development in 1977 which was founded on this principle of separate control and differentiation. The department of Education and Training is a residue of the principle of separation in Black administration.

The general complaint against the Shepstone regime was that it left the Zulus poor, illiterate and stagnating by Western standards.[2] Sullivan, however, exonerates Shepstone from being the cause of Zulu backwardness. He blames the British government for being reluctant to spend much money on the colony of Natal.[3]

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1   Brookes, E.H. 1974, p. 47 puts it aptly that he was reserved, self-contained and conservative.

2   Ibid. p. 49.

3   Sullivan, T.R. op.cit p. 75.

On the whole matter of the integration of the Zulu society and the White settlers in Natal at that time, Welsh goes on to say that Shepstone's view point on the non-viability of a multi-racial state might have militated against the need to apply development measures.[1]

Shepstone made use of traditional leaders to maintain law and order in a manner which fitted the time when funds were not available for the employment of civil servants. These traditional leaders had their powers severely circumscribed. Traditional assembly and communication with other chiefs were forbidden. The policy of divide and rule was in vogue here. Magistrates who were, as a rule, all White tried cases on appeal from the chief courts and were therefore senior to chiefs. In addition, magistrates were also hut tax collectors - an innovation which was designed to raise revenue, force Zulus out into the labour market, and thus finally effect a vast social change among them.

In essence this type of administration maintained a situation where tribes were divided and therefore weak politically. It is indicated in Brookes' work that Shepstone as an administrator, did not only want to control the Zulus but he wanted to Westernize them. Since he could not successfully civilize, he resorted to control - and a suitable method of control at that time was to recreate the tribal system artificially and to divide the tribes perpetually.[2]

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1   Welsh, D. op.cit p. 214.

2   For details on the question of divide and rule under Shepstone, Brookes (1974), Welsh (1970) and Sullivan (1978) are useful.   On the general principles of divide et impera the book by Lord Lugard will be useful: The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa. London: Cass. 1965.

After 1875, the Shepstonian system of benevolent dispotism, that is the system of paternal supervision by the Secretary of Native Affairs in Black administration, was replaced with a system of administration by a trained civil service. As a result of the Anglo-Zulu war of 1879, Zululand was incorporated into Natal under the British government on condition that a joint commission delimit the areas which were to be reserved for Zulus in the same manner as had happened in Natal.

Accordingly, the Zululand Land Delimitation Commission of 1904 transferred 21 reserves to the Zululand Native Trust, totalling 388 710 000 acres.[1] These were divided into the following magisterial districts: Entonjaneni, Eshowe, Hlabisa, Lower Umfolozi, Nkandla, Mahlabathini, Nongoma, Mtunzini, Nquthu, Ingwavuma and Ndwedwe. These districts still form the core of the present KwaZulu.

In order to prevent Whites from buying all the land belonging to Blacks and in order to prevent Blacks from selling all their land Shepstone had devised a system of Trusteeship over the Black areas of Natal.[2] The Natal Native Trust was created in 1864 and it consisted of the Executive Council of Natal. As a result of this trusteeship, territorial segregation was maintained and Black locations were kept strictly Black. This trust was a

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1   The Tomlinson Commission, op.cit p. 43.

2   The Tomlinson Commission op.cit p. 43.

fore-runner of the present South African Development Trust which, according to Brookes, controls over 2 000 000 acres of land in Natal today.[1]

By 1903, the Natal Native Trust had expanded to the extent that Umnini Trusy which belonged to the AmaHlubi tribe, all the mission reserves in Natal and the Putili reserves in the South Coast had been transferred to the Trust. Today, these reserves form part of KwaZulu. Consequently, the KwaZulu areas are scattered all over the province of Natal, north and south of the Tugela and south of Umzimkhulu river.

As a result of the South African Act of 1909, the four colonies, namely, Natal, Orange Free State, Transvaal and Cape Province became the Union of South Africa in 1910. These provinces were hitherto governed each independently and had divergent policies towards Blacks. Natal and Transvaal, however, had similarities which proved that Shepstone had an influence in the administration of the policy towards Black administration in these provinces.

Union Government's Policy and Territorial Segregation

With the inception of the Union government matters relating to Blacks were taken over by the department of Native Affairs headed by a Minister. . The Governor-General as head of state was a Supreme Chief of all the Black tribes and nations. The head office was established in Pretoria with a permanent secretary in charge of the administration of the department.

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1   Brookes, op.cit p. 55.

The establishing of a separate department charged solely with handling of all the affairs of Black people was a continuation of the territorial segregation that had been upheld prior to the union in Natal and other provinces and the consolidation of the indirect rule system. The whole policy followed by Sir Theophilus Shepstone can be regarded as the origins of the policy of separate development.

In 1913 the Native Trust and Land Act was passed by Parliament. The act was an initial enactment regulating territorial segregation between Blacks and non-Blacks. The act provided for a schedule of Native areas and the prevention of Blacks from acquiring further land outside these areas and conversely, prevented non-Blacks from acquiring land in the scheduled native areas.[1] It, further, provided for the appointment of a commission whose work would be to investigate the applicability of territorial segregation viz. The Natives Land Commission.[2] The recommendations of this commission were completely rejected by Parliament when they were submitted in 1916. According to Walshe, the Blacks rejected it mainly because the reserves were

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1 Brookes, op.cit p. 55

2 Rhoodie, H.J. Apartheid and Racial Partnership in Southern Africa. Pretoria: Academica, 1968 p. 22.

already congested and the existing allocation at that time by the commission was unjust in that it made no attempt to allocate land in proportion to the relative size of the Native population.[1] Although it is equally true of the Whites that in terms of the law the Europeans cannot own land in Native reserves, but since the land open to European (White)[2] occupation is about 87 percent of the area of the union, this is not a serious restriction on Europeans (whites). Since land is allocated according to these acts including the Native Trust and land Act 1936 even at the present moment, the picture of the disparity of land between Blacks and Whites has not changed.[3]

In 1920 a Native Affairs Commissioner was provided for by the Native Affairs Act of 1920 but could only be established in 1924. Although the original composition and functions of the commission has been amended, from time to time, it has still continued as a central statutory body to deal with land consolidation in Black areas within the framework of the policy of separate development under the Department of Development Aid.[4]

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1   This commission was referred to as the Beaumont Commission.

2   Walshe, P: The Rise of African Nationalism in South Africa Berkeley: UCLA 1971. p. 68.

3   The Whites are divided about this issue. The National Party are reforming the land apportionment but the Conservative Party are adamant.

4   Benbo: Black Development in Southern Africa.   Pretoria: Benso, 1979. p. 14.

Commission after commission did not solve the land problem for Blacks. As a result of non-representation of Black people in these commissions, their matters were dealt and finalised with without the consideration of their viewpoint.

The Union government was very much influenced by the work done by the policy followed by Shepstone in Natal, who, among other things, placed the administration of Blacks in the hands of White officials who were knowledgeable on African law and custom. The act which made it possible for the government to apply a separate set of laws over and above the law of the land was the Native Administration Act No 38 of 1927.[1] In terms of this Act the governor-general was regarded as the Supreme Chief over all Africans in the Union. Further indigenous and authority structures were used to maintain law and order under the supervision of White commissioners in the same manner as Shepstone did in Colonial Natal. The State President of the Republic of South Africa is still regarded as the Supreme Chief of all the Blacks - an acknowledgement of the Shepstone system in colonial administration.

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[1] As a result of the change in nomenclature, the word "Native" is always substituted with Black, hence - Black Administration Act No 38/1927.

Since the system of administration which was applicable to Blacks in the Union took matters away from departments concerned on grounds that they had to do with Blacks, this situation created an imperium in imperio - a situation which has been referred to in the foregoing paragraphs.

The Origins of KwaZulu Self-government

According to the Black Administration Act No 38 of 1927 the Department of Bantu Admnistration and Development and the erstwhile Department of Bantu Education respectively controlled and administered all matters pertaining to the Blacks in African areas.[1] Justice was administered by Commissioners in commissioners' courts of the Department of Bantu Administration and Development and the recognized chief's courts.

This department (Bantu Administration and Development) further, handled inland revenue and taxation, the administration of agriculture and forestry, social welfare, labour recruitment influx control, tribal and regional and territorial authority administration, townships administration and development planning and aid.[2]

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1   These departments have been replaced by the following departments: Department of Development Aid, Department of Development Planning, Department of Constitutional Development and Planning, Department of Education and Training.

2   Marquard, L. The peoples and policies of South Africa. Cape Town: Oxford University Press, 1960. p. 76.

An Appeal Court and a Divorce Court for the Blacks are a present evidence of separation in Black administration. The origins of apartheid are found in Natal as a result of Shepstone's separatist administration - hence the patch-work of African reserves that form what is the present KwaZulu territory.

As a result of the need to decentralize and deconcentrate the administration throughout the union, the then Department of Native Affairs was regionalised into six Chief Bantu Affairs Commissionerships as follows:

The Natal region with head office in Pietermaritzburg.
The Transkei with head office at Umtata.
The Ciskei with head office at King Williamstown.
The Western areas with head office at Potchefstroom.
The Witwatersrand with head office at Johannesburg.
The Northern areas with head office at Pietersburg.[1]

Each of these areas was controlled by a Chief Bantu Affairs Commissioner. The commissioners were supposed to possess certain qualities and experiences which would make them suitable for

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[1] Tomlinson Commission, 1955 p. 169.

handling the so-called Native Affairs. This was not only the advantage of Blacks but to that of the central government as well.[1]

In 1936 the Native Trust and Land Act was passed in terms of which all trust land allocated to Blacks within the union was absorbed by this Trust and came under the control of the Minister of Native Affairs. Out of 6 209 857 hectares allocated to scheduled reserves; 5 764 334 hectares were released for Black occupation.[2]

The upholding and the use of trusteeship for Blacks in land apportionment at that point in time was the acknowledgement of Shepstone's contribution which was referred to in the foregoing paragraph of this chapter. In the final analysis, the land which was going to be allocated to Blacks within the union amounted to 15 million hectares.[3] Some parts of the present KwaZulu are those which were allocated to the inhabitants of KwaZulu as a result of The Native Trust and Land Act of 1936 through the commission for Co-operation and Development. This commission has still not finalised the consolidation of KwaZulu.

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1 The Chief Bantu Affairs Commissioner was supposed to carry out to the bset of his ability the policy of the government in Native Affairs generally and should secure strict observence thereof.

2 Horrel, M. The African Homelands of South Africa, Johannesburg: SAIRR. 1973, p. 3.

3 Rhoodie, op.cit. p. 22.

In terms of land size, KwaZulu, therefore can be expected to expand as more land become available as a result of the ongoing activities of the commission.[1]

In 1948 the policy of separate development was adopted in the Union of South Africa. The significant elements of this policy are that it aims at creating separate geo-political units for the Blacks, ethnic groups and redefined their citizenship in terms of the land rights and political participation. This political dispensation gave rise to a number of ethnic self-governing territorial authorities including the Zulu Territorial Authority which were under the control of the central government department of Co-operation and Development.[2] Each ethnic group was served, as is still the case today by a Commissioner-General who was appointed in terms of the Promotion of Black self-government Act of 1959.[3]

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[1] "Makhathini, Ndumu, na KwaZulu: besluite". Zululand Observer: July, 29 1988 p. 3-4.

[2] The Zulu Territorial Authority was the last before KaNgwane and KwaNdebele Tribal Authorities as it was formed in 1970. Many had already been formed for example Transkei (1963), Ciskei, Tsonga-Shanga, Venda, Basotho, Qwaqwa, Bophuthatswana, Lebowa.

[3] KwaZulu has had men such as Messrs M.D.C.de Wet Nel, J.J. Boshoff, P. H. Torlage and P. N. Hansmeyer.

In 1951 the Black Authorities Act was passed. This act provided for the establishment of tribal., community, regional and territorial authorities in Black areas in collaboration with the Blacks. More authority than had been previously given to Black authorities like levying to poll tax, local tax, and other taxes was given. Further, in terms of this act, the Native Representative Council was abolished. The shift from direct representation of Blacks in the central Government was effected as a result of the passing of the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951. It consequently, became clear that Blacks should not look to central government parliament for political representation but to parliament for territorial authorities in their respective national states in keeping with the government policy.

In 1970 Proclamation R139 was issued to the effect that some parts of the province of Natal known as Black areas would be under the administration of a structure called the Zulu Territorial Authority in terms of the Black Authorities Act, 1951.·

The provisions of this proclamation, in terms of which the Zulu tribal or community regional and the territorial authorities were instituted, specify the duties of the executive committees, officers of these authorities, and the role of the King of the Zulus, the traditional leaders such as Amakhosi and the authority of the State president of the Republic of South africa.

The KwaZulu citizens were then placed in a position to administer their own affairs at local, regional and territorial levels, albeit a small fraction of Natal, under the guidance of the then Bantu Affairs Commissioners and the Commissioner-General of the Zulus.

The following departments were created each with an experienced White Director as an administrative head namely, Authority Affairs and Finance, Community Affairs, Works, Agriculture and Forestry, Education and Culture, Justice. Each of these departments was headed politically by an Executive Councillor. The Chief Executive Councillor handled the Department of Authority Affairs and Finance.

A tribal authority essentially consists of inkosi, his councillors and such other as the inkosi in consultation with his councillors, might appoint. The total member of councillors should not exceed a number fixed by the State President.[1] In cases where there was no local inkosi, councillors would be formed by a number of persons elected by the adult males of the community, again up to a fixed total number. The chairman would then be elected by the members of the council.

A regional authority consists of all amakhosi of the tribal authorities and chairmen of community authorities in the region, together with more than two representatives designated by each tribal authority or each community authority. The regional authority of which the King is a member must include his deputy. The territorial authority was formed by at least 3 amakhosi from each regional authority plus two councillors elected at regional authority level each. The King of the Zulus and/or his representatives are part of the territorial authority but would not take part in the deliberation of the territorial sessions. The chairman of the territorial authority would be elected from among the members of the territorial authority.

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1. RSA: Proclamation R139, Pretoria: Government Printers, p. 3.

The strength of using traditional leaders in political and administrative structures is that it binds the people together so that they see themselves as one nation. This boosts a feeling of African nationalism and unity. The King of the Zulus is therefore a unifying element in the politics of KwaZulu as against the divisive nature of party politics. Amakhosi also serve that purpose in my view.

There is a strong feeling among the Zulus that if a nation is operating within a system of apartheid as KwaZulu does, to determine its future, party politics are retrogressive. The latter has therefore, been ruled out as dissipation of energy and lack of vision and of purpose. The would-be political parties were, therefore, postponed indefinitely in KwaZulu. The Chief Minister of KwaZulu warned as follows in this connection:[1]

"Political dissension is a luxury Zulus cannot afford at present, with so many cards stacked against us. We already have to cope with the problem of living under White minority rule and we are to get on with the massive and necessary development of our people. There are many of us who feel we must roll up our sleeves and get on with the job without creating artificial apparatus for petty bickering ... A time could be envisaged in the future when a properly constituted opposition party could arise".

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1   Smith, J.S. Buthelezi: the Biography.   Melville: Hans Strydom, 1989. p. 42.

The UDF/ANC/COSATU Alliance, however, have always been opposed to KwaZulu and its leaders; insisting that separate development is unworkable as a system and that no one should work within it.

Population and social development

KwaZulu is the largest of the South African national states, and therefore accommodates the largest ethnic group.[1] The Zulus constitute 21 percent of the whole population of the Republic of South Africa. However, most of the KwaZulu inhabitants live in White South Africa in order to enjoy livelihood. According to Ardington in the rural areas "some of the inhabitants are living at the very margin of existence and the homeland areas grossly, overpopulated and rapidly being destroyed.[2]

The vast majority of the KwaZulu inhabitants live in the rural areas where there is no economic growth or opportunity except subsistence economy. In addition, these areas have been forced to absorb the natural increase of their population plus surplus population rejected from the White farms.

KwaZulu townships have been established adjacent to cities and towns. They have been financed by the central government in order to house labour. During the past five years home ownership in these townships has developed rapidly (see table 1, page 41).

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1   Louw, L. & Kendall, F. South Africa, the Solution. Norwood: Amagi, 1987. p. 168.

2   Ardington, A.J. Private Sector Pre-requisites for a contribution to Development and Co-operation in Natal KwaZulu p. 6, 05 August 1988, Durban, Unpublished Mimeo.

TABLE I

TOWNSHIP	DISTRICT
1. Enseleni	Lower Umfolozi
2. Ezakheni	Ladysmith
3. Ekuvukeni	Washbank
4. Esikhawini	Mtunzini
5. Gamalakhe	Port Shepstone
6. Gezinsila	Eshowe
7. KwaMsane	Mtubatuba
8. KwaNdengezi	Klaarwater
9. KwaMashu	Durban
10. KwaMakhutha	Amanzimtoti
11. KwaMbono (Izingolweni)	Izingolweni
12. Madadeni	Newcastle
13. Magabheni	Amanzimtoti
14. Mondlo	Nqutu
15. Mpophomeni	Howick
16. Mpumalanga	Hammarsdale
17. Mpungamhlophe	Mahlabathini
18. Ngwelezane	Lower Umfolozi
19. Ncotshane	Piet Retief
20. Ntuzuma	Verulam
21. Osizweni	Newcastle
22. Sundumbili	Mandini
23. Umlazi	Duran
24. Ulundi	Mahlabathini
25. Vulindlela	Mtunzini
26. Wembezi	Estcourt

Information adapted from the records of the Department of Interior, Ulundi, 188.

In KwaZulu, there are significant ever-pressing societal needs and much poverty[1]. Between 70 percent and 80 percent of families have their breadwinners away as migrant labourers in the metropolitan areas.[2] One of the palliatives to the rural-urban imbalance which has been continually suggested by the central government is that of rural development. The Buthelezi Commission has, however, warned that a minimum necessary condition for rural development to be successful was an outward migration of about one million people from KwaZulu rural areas.[3]

Notwithstanding the fact that KwaZulu has to service a de facto population of 7 million, the annual budget allocated to it is less than that of the Natal Provincial Administration. In 1985, the NPA received roughly the same amount of money given to KwaZulu although it was serving about 4 million people.[4]

In the 1989/1990 financial year the amopunt allocated to KwaZulu was R2 415 337 800 as against R92 711 000 in the 1975/76 financial year.

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1   Dhlomo, O.D. Dr. Inkatha's views on development and co-operation in KwaZulu/Natal, 5 October 1985.

2   Nattrass, J. Economic Aspect of the Report of the Buthelezi Commission. 5 August 1985 p. 2. Unpublished Mimeo.

3   Ardington, A.J. Private Sector Pre-requisite for a contribution to development and co-operation in Natal. p. 5 August 1985, Durban. Unpublished Mimeo.

4   Nattrass, J. Ibid.

As a result of the migratory nature of much of KwaZulu labour, various negative effects have been felt on the family's life style. Rural poverty, sickness, diseases, illiteracy and a high birth rate have resulted. Womenfolk in the countryside suffer most as they have to "man" homes in the absence of their husbands. Most of the migrant labourers, however, have no access to highly paid jobs because they are not skilled.[1]

The Legislative Assembly of KwaZulu is responsible for the de facto population of 3 747 015.[2] This includes other minority population groups such as Xhosas, Swazis and Basotho. This number can be broken down as follows: These are 1 686 633 males and 2 060 382 females.

Economic development

The economy of KwaZulu is largely dependent upon the Republic of South Africa on the one hand and on the other hand the Republic of south Africa depends largely upon the national states including KwaZulu, for labour. Notwithstanding the large townships and shanty towns near cities, KwaZulu is basically a rural territory.[3] In the rural areas the Zulus rely heavily on

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1   Nattrass, J. loc.cit.

2   Republic of South Africa Informa op.cit.

3   They grow mealies, groundnuts, bananas, pumpkins, sorghum, vegetables and other cash crops. When a KwaZulu inhabitant migrates to a White area in search of a job or a livelihood he does not necessarily give up his cattle and goats (stock) in a rural area. Lyne, M.C. et al in Development Southern Africa Vol 6 No 2 May 1989, writes on A Model of A Rural Household in KwaZulu (making use of wages and farm income.

subsistence economy.   It is estimated that approximately 85 percent of KwaZulu's net national income is generated outside KwaZulu, with the income of commuters or migrant labourers estimated at approximately 55 percent of the national income. As a result of the temporary residence of KwaZulu citizens in White areas,   their income is not one hundred percent channeled to KwaZulu but spent outside the territory.[1]

KwaZulu's contribution to the gross domestic product of Natal/KwaZulu is 4,8 percent, the largest contribution being from the agricultural and other sectors.[2]   In the agricultural sector the cultivation of sugar and the milling thereof plays a major role in KwaZulu.   Quotas are given only to males as a result of cultural prejudices against females even if they are heads of families.[3]   Farming inputs like seeds, transport, labour, fertilizer implements, irrigation and weeding costs are sometimes prohibitive so that a farmer has to be helped by the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation.

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1   KwaZulu Government Service: Policy Speech of the Minister of Finance, Ulundi, p. 21, 1989/90.

2   For a detailed research on the sugar industry of KwaZulu: Bates, R.F. Aspects of Zulu Sugar Cane production in Natal and KwaZulu with specific Reference to Agriculture in Reserve 9 Ongoye District - A Socio Economic Survey: M.Sc 1979 UN Pietermaritzburg. For a detailed economic survey of KwaZulu see: Lenta, G. The Economic Structure of KwaZulu: A South African Homeland Ph.D Economics, UN Durban, 1976.

3   Latt, E.A. & Niewoudt, W.L. Identification of plot size effects on commercialization of small scale-agriculture in KwaZulu. Development Southern Africa Vol 5 No 3 August 1988.

The economic arm of the KwaZulu national state is the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation. In March 1987 the industrial investment in KwaZulu reached R656,2 million of which private entrepreneurs contributed R315 million and the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation R231 million, in the form of land buildings and loans.[1] Farmers and small business people receive some financial help from the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation, and as a result 3 319 hectares in KwaZulu are under irrigation.

As far as foreign investment in KwaZulu is concerned 22 foreign companies have invested about R42 million, earning about R22 million in foreign exchange. This investment gives job opportunities to about 8 700 people.[2]

Economic options in modern agriculture, small businesses and industries, commerce and education are encouraged throughout KwaZulu through the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation.[3]

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1   Republic of South Africa: _Informa_, _op.cit_ Vol 1 Nov/Dec
    p. 12, 1989.

2   _Ibid._

3   The KwaZulu Finance Investment Corporation advances KwaZulu farmers with loans for maize farming and buying of implements for example, at Madadeni near Newcastle. It further builds workshops for small industries for example, at Ngwelezane, Ulundi, Ezakheni, and Esikhawini. It offers bursaries tenable at universities for training in commerce and administration.

Although the pressing need for job-creation and employment is ever increasing, there are greater needs for housing, education, welfare and pensions in the opinion of the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly. Education therefore, received 32,08 percent of the total allocation of funds, followed by Welfare and Pensions with 20,53 percent in the 1989/90 financial year whereas special funds for job creation amounted to R2 280 000.[1]

KwaZulu's revenue are obtained from three sources are as follows:

Own revenue, for example, administered and collected by the KwaZulu Receiver of Revenue (which is part of the Department of Finance (KwaZulu) amounting to 19 percent of the budget grants from the Central Government equally, 76 percent of the budget loans from the Development Bank of South Africa, amounting to 5 percent of the budget.[2] As a result of industrial development and agricultural stimulation incomes tend to rise, service jobs emerge rapidly, the territory is gradually being urbanized.[3]

Urban development in KwaZulu

Currently, there are 32 proclaimed towns in KwaZulu, Umlazi being the largest (see Map 2). The townships around Durban are housing the biggest section of the population namely, 2 million. Some of the people around Durban (KwaZulu areas) are settled in informal residences near the established townships. They construct dwellings with beer cartons, wooden boxes, or wattle and daub.

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1   KwaZulu Government Service Policy Speech: Department of Finance, 1989/90, p. 17

2   Ibid. p. 13.

3   Butler, et.al., op.cit p. 200.

As a result of the amendment of Proclamation R293 of 1962 prospective home owners[1] can obtain loans from financial institutions including the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation and build their own houses.[2] Private White and Black developers can purchase land in the townships and build houses for sale and or buy them for resale.

Infrastructure

Two railway lines run through KwaZulu, the one from Durban to the PWV area and the other from Witbank to Richards Bay. Although the most important raods (national roads Vix. N2 and N3) run through the White area of Natal, linking Durban to the Eastern Transvaal and to the PWV area respectively, they serve KwaZulu also very well. The most important rivers providing water services are Tugela, Pongola, Mhlatuze, Mkuze, Umngeni, Black Umfolozi, White Umfolozi, Umzinyathi, Umvoti, Umsunduze Ingwavuma river, Umkomazi, Umzimvubu and Umtavuna rivers.

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1   A list of townships is provided in page 41.

2   KwaZulu Diary, 1988. p. 18.

The seat of administration of KwaZulu, Ulundi is served by tarred road and a small but important airport named after the political leader The Honourable Prince M G Buthelezi. The two harbours of Natal for example, Durban and Richards Bay fall outside KwaZulu control but are very important to KwaZulu as they serve it adequately. The Electricity Supply Commission is responsible for providing electric power ro the administrative seat townships, small industries and some educational institutions in KwaZulu.

Education in KwaZulu

In 1988 a budget of R559 383 000 was approved by the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly to administer the Department of Education and Culture. There are about 13 million school-going kids in KwaZulu and 22 thousand teachers. Approximately 15 percent of the school going age children specifically between the age of 7 and 17, do not attend school in KwaZulu. Many of them are found in rural areas. KwaZulu lags badly behind in educational facilities and schools.[1] Some children therefore have no access to schools. Some drop out early in their school career as a result of lack of schools. As a result, the level of formally educated section of the KwaZulu population is as follows:

a) 3,4 percent of educated people

b) 76 percent of this group of schooled people have standard 8

c) 12,3 percent of them have a post standard 7 qualification

d) Less than 30 percent of them have qualification beyond standard 5

e) 3 percent of the population as a whole have no education at all.[2]

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1 The Pupil teacher rations in the primary schools and the secondary schools p. 53:1 and 37:1.

2 Republic of South Africa *Informa* Nov/Dec 1988.Vol XXXV No 6 p. 9.

The following is an indication of the number and types of educational institutions in KwaZulu.[1]

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU: 1989

SCHOOLS	NUMBER
Lower Primary Schools	830
Higher Primary Schools	230
Combined Primary Schools	1 235
Junior Secondary Schools	564
Senior Secondary Schools	289
Colleges of Education	9
Colleges of Education for Further Training	1
Adult Training Centres	71
Technical Colleges	6
Industrial Schools	5
In-Service Training Centres	1
Technikons	1
Special Schools	9
Nursery Schools	5
University (central government)	1
TOTAL	3 257

About 22 percent of KwaZulu teachers do not have professional certificates and out of 5 431 secondary schools teachers 704 do not possess even a standard 10 certificate.[2] Out of 16 604

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1   Dhlomo, O.D. KwaZulu Education Policy Speech, Ulundi 1989/90 p. 3.

2   Op.cit.

primary school teachers, 2 979 possessed standard 10. Attempts are therefore being constantly made to upgrade teachers' qualifications.[1] The implication is that KwaZulu faces the future with a poorly educated and an inadequately prepared youth for participation in the creation of wealth in a rapidly changing country, for example, South Africa. Indeed, improvement is there.

The Administration of Health, Social Welfare and Justice in KwaZulu

The administration of Health and Social welfare is constrained by the scarcity of manpower and facilities. At the moment there are 26 hospitals and 1 177 clinics. Hospitals are generally over-crowded and understaffed more especially in professional categories like doctors, nurses and paramedical staff.

The KwaZulu Department of Welfare and Pensions cater for pensioners, disabled, aged, rehabilitation, children's home, reformatories and the needy in KwaZulu. Factors like the burden created by the birth rate, unemployment, old age, epidemics, floods, droughts, deprivation and resettlement militate greatly against the rise of the standard of living and health in KwaZulu.

Justice is administered by magistrates through 24 magisterial districts in KwaZulu. Over and above civil cases; KwaZulu court cases are dominated by stock theft, dagga offences, murder and faction fights. The magistrates also serve as agents of other departments in KwaZulu and also as agents of the central government departments like the Department of Home Affairs (identity documents, passports and travel documents) or the Department of Manpower in which problems of unemployment, employment or job-creation programmes are handled.

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1   The College for Further Education at Umlazi was established in 1983 to do just that.

Conclusion

Although KwaZulu, as a geo-political unit was defined by the architects of apartheid as fragmentation of pieces of land, its inhabitants have always realised the nature and the magnitude of the socio-economic interdependence between Natal (White areas) and themselves. As a result of this realisation, the Joint Executive Authority for KwaZulu and Natal has been established. The function of this authority is to co-ordinate areas of mutual benefit like, health facilities, roads, traffic control, physical planning, nature conservation and privatisation of government services. The prospects or challenges of assuming power in a non-racial authority are encouraging to aspirant senior officials in KwaZulu.

According to Butler and others, nations have always defined themselves rather than being defined by the "imperial" power as is the case with the South African national states which are determined by cultural and language parameters as characteristic to geo-political national units.[1] For instance, all persons tracing their ancestry and allegiance of a Dube, inkosi of the Ongoye district must of necessity for political purposes be regarded as Zulu citizens in terms of the Black National States Citizenship Act of 1970. These stipulations restrict and confine citizenship to Zulus only, which does not augur well for the policy of localization. Although the Zulus are operating within the authority system decided upon by the central government through a series of acts like the Black Authorities Act of 1951 referred to in the foregoing sections of this chapter, they have

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1   Butler, J et.al. Ibid. p. 25-26.

always stated it clearly that they never approved of it because of its racism and ethnicism.

As a result of the shift from the earlier dispensation whereby the affairs of Black people in South Africa were dealt with through an exclusive central government department, the Department of Development Aid is no longer a "state within a state".[1] The most drastic changes which led to the disestablishment of the legacy of an imperium in imperio came as a result of the Hoexter Commission which questioned among other things, the duplication of services, abolished the administration of justice through the commissioners' courts and instead recommended the administration of justice by the magistrate courts - a welcome change.[2]

As a result of Shepstone's policy and lack of funds, the Zulus remained backwards and lagging in development under general thus leading to the contributory factors like the current shortage of Black teachers, lack of educational facilities for Black children, lack of schools, high drop-out rate which militate seriously against the policy of localization. Lack of infra-structure, isolation, poverty, communication, deprivation, excessive dependency, floods, droughts, corruption and other social evils militate against progress and development in general including the speed with which localization can be implemented under normal circumstances.

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1   Ibid. p. 40-41.

2   Republic of South Africa: (Hoexter Commission), Fifth Report of the South African Commission of Inquiry into the Structure and Functions of the Courts. Part B: Pretoria: Government Printers, 1983, p. 390.

CHAPTER III

THE EVOLUTION OF THE KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE AND ITS
ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

In this chapter, an analysis of the development of self-
government in KwaZulu, its structures at local level, regional
level and territorial level and its implications especially the
prospects and opportunities of localization will be made. The
more government service departments KwaZulu creates, the more
posts there are for aspirant civil servants to occupy.

The administrative pre-requisites of self-government

The victory of the Nationalist Party in 1948 saw the passage of
more and more laws promoting the separation of Blacks from
Whites, of ethnic groups from one another and of racial groups
from one another. Already by 1948, there were separatist trends
in African administration as a result of the segregationist
policies of various provinces for example, Transvaal and, the
Orange Free State and Natal.

In 1959 the Promotion of Black Self-government Act was
promulgated. In terms of this Act Africans formed diverse
nations, separated from each other by language and culture and so
could not be regarded as one nation for political aspirations.
This was therefore, the re-interpretation of the African problem-
a problem of satisfying African political aspirations and
ambitions but avoiding majority rule at all costs. This act
intended to make provisions for the gradual extension of self-
government to each national unit. Each national unit was to
have a legislative assembly and an executive council. This was,

therefore, an extension and an elaboration of the Black Authorities Act of 1951 which authorized and formalised the existence of the tribal system of Blacks. It became the cornerstone of the developments in national state administrative development.[1]

The Promotion of the Black Self-government Act made provision for the appointment of Commissioner-generals for each national ethnic unit. The ethnic units were determined on grounds of language and culture rather than residence, compelling a large number of detribalized and urbanized Africans to be citizens of national states. As far as other racial groups are concerned, the determining factor was the place of permanent residence and/or place of birth rather than an ethnic group. An ethnic group is composed of distinct clans and tribes occupying specific geographical areas. These tribes are under the leadership of Amakhosi.[2]

The base of KwaZulu administration is therefore a tribal authority or a community authority at the local level. In an urban area, councillors for each ward are in charge of a town and the mayor is equivalent to an Inkosi according to the Zulu authority system.

By 1958 the central government had made considerable progress in establishing tribal authorities elsewhere in Black areas of the then Union of South Africa except in Natal. Here only 27 Zulu

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1   Within Ongoye District there are for instance the Dube, Mkhwanazi, Nzuza, Mzimela, Mcambi tribes (with Inkosi uDube, Inkosi uMkhwanazi, Inkosi uNzuza, Inkosi uMzimela, Inkosi uMcambi respectively.

2   A tribe is a segment of an African society sharing a common residential locality under one Inkosi. Their surnames may be different from one another.

amakhosi out of about 280 had accepted the Black authority system. The .majority, in urban areas and outside Natal were generally hostile to it and regarded it as retrogressive and patronizing.

Another important reason for Zulus not willing to accept the authority system readily, is that it was overzealously promoted by government officials who were employed as extension officers by the Department of Bantu Administration and Development at that time.[1] Some of the ideas propagated by these officers were the culling of cattle and resettlement of communities to create grazing land and planned residential areas. As a pastoral people, the Zulus confused the introduction of culling in stock whith the introduction of the authority system. Consequently, the government officials met with vigorous resistance and opposition to resettlement and planning of residential areas and arable land - which were part of culling of stock and replanning of grazing land. Ultimately the authority system was also rejected as "an aspect of resettling people and making them "pawns" of apartheid.

The government was in fact desirous to see the Black authorities functioning and taking over all the development schemes like community gardens, resettlement plans, and others, but this did not materialize. Since resettlement was unacceptable, the authority system was automatically unacceptable as it was presented as one and the same people.[2]

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1   Republic of South Africa. Bantu: January 1958, Pretoria, Government Printers, p. 6.

2   Thokazi near Nongoma is one of the places that even resorted to violence in the early fifties to resist the authority system.

Another important reason for the Zulu masses and amakhosi not to
readily accept the tribal authority system was that the state
seemed to be intefering with their tribal system, for example,
unnecessarily prescribing and formalizing the number of
councillors each inkosi, or the ingonyama, should have the
procedures for meetings. As far as they were concerned, the
formalisation and regulation of their tribal system was
unnecessary and they felt that the government was getting "too
involved" in the tribal system.[1] They, in fact, still had strong
traditional ties and knew very well who their councillors could
be or were and what duties they could assign them without
prescription through proclamations. The urban and the elite
group were also extremely opposed to this system.

According to the then Secretary of Justice in KwaZulu, another
important reason which delayed the implementation of the Black
Authorities Act of 1951 in KwaZulu was the question in government
circles whether or not the Zulus throughout Natal would rally
round one central unifying figure, the King of the Zulus.[2] There
was a suggestion on the part of state ethnologists and historians
that the Zulus in the South Coast, those in Tongaland and the
Hlubi's of Estcourt including Amazizi and AmaNgwane of Bergville
would not be willing to identify themselves with a centrally -
controlled Zulu royalists-oriented administration. It was

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1   The authority system is a system authorizing the existence
    of tribal authorities which form regional authorities which
    in turn form a territorial authority which can lead to a
    Legislative Assembly.

2   Interview with the then Secretary for Justice, KwaZulu, 11
    October 1985.

thought that the Zulus of the South Coast did not regard themselves as part of the <u>Ngonyama's</u> sphere of influence.[1] It was further alleged at the time that the Hlubis, too, regarded their <u>Inkosi</u> as a Ngonyama and that the Tongas were also historically independent.[2] This, however, proved with the passage of time to be inaccurate as these sections of the Zulus are part of the present KwaZulu.

The AmaNgwane and the Amazizi could not, as a result of their locally-based differences and self-perceptions, form a single regional authority. When things came to a head, the central government resorted to granting to each of them a regional authority status (see table 3 p. 59).

Another reason for not implementing the Authorities Act rapidly, was the existence of mission reserves, and private land that had been purchased long before the promulgation of the Black Authorities Act of 1951. This act did not apply to these areas. The missionaries were in charge of the mission reserves, and the owners of plots of land had a final say about their land. This section of the Zulu population was not affected by the Black Authorities legislation. It, therefore, became difficult for

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1   Interview with Secretary for Justice, KwaZulu, 11 October 1985.

2   Interview with Secretary for Justice, KwaZulu, 11 October 1985.

the government to interfere with the administration of mission reserves and private owned land, as there was the Natal Mission Reserves Act No 49 of 1903 protecting them. This act was, however, finally removed in 1969.[1]

Another delaying factor was the lack of sufficient cartographers in the department of "Native Affairs". For a tribal authority to be gazetted, it is necesary, in terms of the law of the land, to make a full description of the boundaries of this particular tribal or community authority. Maps had to be produced and registered with the Surveyor-General who did not necessarily form part of the Department of Development Aid (then Bantu Administration and Development). The Department, therefore, found it very difficult to perform certain tasks - that needed expertise from other state departments - causing a delay in the implementation of the authority system.

The first Zulu regional authority was gazetted in 1959 but resistance on the part of the Zulus to their establishment continued. Early in 1963 Ingonyama Cyprian Bhekuzulu kaSolomon convened a conference of all Zulu amakhosi to consider the Act.[2] According to the Chief Minister of KwaZulu, Prince M G Buthelezi, the Zulus remained antagonistic to the government's intention to institute the authority system in Natal. They felt that the department was intefering with their life style by formalising and subjugating their traditional leaders. They feared that

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1   Interview with Secretary for Justice, KwaZulu, 11 October 1985.

2   Ibid,

TABLE 3

*Time Chart: PROGRESS MADE WITH THE FORMATION OF REGIONAL AUTHORITY [1]

YEAR	NO OF REGIONAL AUTHORITIES FORMED	NAMES OF REGIONAL AUTHORITIES
1959	1	Inkanyezi
1960	3	Nongoma, Ingwavuma, Vulindlela
1961	2	Lindindlela, Vulamehlo
1962	-	-
1963	2	Mehlwesizwe, Simdlangentsha
1964	-	-
1965	-	-
1966	-	-
1967	-	-
1968	4	Hlabisa, Mashonangashoni, Msinga, Indlovu
1969	3	Mtonjaneni, Nquthu, Hlanganiso
1970	2	Khanyamasikwakithi, Zamindlela
1970, June 11 Territorial Authority - inaugurated: Phase I		
1971	3 (status)	Amazizi, Amangwane, Khambi [2]
1972	KwaZulu Legislative Assembly	
1973	-	-
1974	2	Mpumalanga, Madadeni
1975	-	-
1976	-	-
1977	Phase II Self-government	
1978	2	Umlazi and Ntuzuma
1979 - 81	-	-

1   Development of the pre-requisites self-government

2   These are tribal authorities which were given each a status
    of a regional authority.

*   Information obtained from the Verbatim records of the KwaZulu
    Legislative Assembly, 1970-1981.

their leaders were later going to turn against them and be used as paid "agents" of the central government. In this meeting a decision was taken to consult the Zulu masses (their subjects) as a nation about authority system. In the meantime the Zulu people accepted the fact that there was no alternative but to co-operate with the government and respond to the call to establish tribal or regional authorities, without necessarily approving, as the matter was the fait accompli.[1]

According to Butler and others, 102 tribes had requested authorities and 137 either were opposed or indifferent.[2] The government reacted by doing its best to explain the system and its "advantages". Inkosi Buthelezi argued that if the law empowered the government to impose the authority system, the Zulus should not have been asked to approve or disapprove of it. He further argued that since this is the only manner in which the Zulus could possibly express themselves he would co-operate without necessarily approving. The officials of the existing central government Department of Bantu Administration and Development were in fact following a programme whereby they visited resistant amakhosi one by one by the late sixties coercing them to follow the authority system.[3] They were informing them further, that the Commissioner who had given

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1   Butler, R et.al, op.cit p. 35.

2   Ibid.

3   A tribe is a segment of an African society sharing a common residential locality under one Inkosi. Their surnames may be different from one another.

amakhosi the impression that they had a choice in the matter
"were wrongly instructed"[1] The amakhosi had in fact no choice
in the matter except toeing the line. Inkosi Buthelezi argued
that the Zulus will always remain on record as having
consistently opposed the authority system as long as they could
still do so, until the fait accompli had to be made the best use
of.[2]

Indeed the central government had also motivated the acceptance
of the authority system for the reason that it was the only
system which would allow Blacks to participate in the government
of their own affairs as the Native Representative Act No 12/1936
had been repealed. The significance of this act was that it
allowed Blacks to be represented directly by 4 senators in
Parliament. Inkosi Buthelezi indicated early in the seventies
that separate development was not the solution for South Africa;
however, he challenged the central government to "satisfy the
political aspirations on the basis of its own "system" for
example, separate national self-governing ethnic states. The
Zulus, therefore, have their own administration and determine
their own future in their own national state - hence
localization.

Formation of regional authorities from 1959

The first regional authority was only established in 1959 eight
years after the legal authorization of the Blacks authorities
system (refer to table 3. p. 59). The process of establishing

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1   Butler, R. op.cit p. 35.

2   Buthelezi, M.G. Speech on the inauguration of the ZTA,
     Nongoma, 11 June 1970, p. 1.

these regional authorities in KwaZulu progressed well for three years in succession up to 1961. In 1962 there were no new regional authorities established in KwaZulu, but in 1963 two were established.

The year 1960 saw three regional authorities being established, probably because at the inauguration of the Inkanyezi Regional Authority the Minister of the then Department of Bantu Administration and Development had used this opportunity to urge the Zulus to make haste and establish enough regional authorities to enable themselves to participate fully in the administration of their own affairs through a territorial authority. He said:

> "Zulu Chiefs, Are you going to act as the Chiefs of Eshowe have done by rallying round your Paramount Chief to lead the Zulu people on the path of progress, prosperity and ultimate self-government"?(1)

The late King of the Zulus, King Cyprian Bhekuzulu ka Solomon, had himself accepted the authorities system by establishing the Usutu Tribal Authority on April, 26 1957, six years after the system had been authorized. At the occasion of the inauguration of the regional authority referred to in the foregoing paragraphs i.e. Inkanyezi, the King is reported to have expressed the hope that the Nongoma regional authority would be the next one to be established in Nongoma. The 1963 success in establishing regional authorities in Natal can be ascribed totally to the examples of 1960 and 1961.

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1   Republic of South Africa. Bantu: January 1960, Pretoria, Government Printers, p. 15.

Between 1964 and 1967 there were no new regional authorities
established, the reason being the resistance of many Zulus who
not only rejected the separate development theory but found it
difficult to adopt the central government system of
administration without them having been consulted. In addition,
they had the reasons which have been described in the foregoing
paragraphs.

In 1968, 6 regional authorities were established. This
acceleration in the pace of the establishment of regional
authorities can be ascribed to the fact that the political
leaders of the Zulus had already made it clear that they were
merely obeying the law by agreeing to the formation of a regional
authorities. Obviously, the example of the regional authority
which was formed in 1968 in Mahlabathini was useful to amakhosi
The Mahlabathini example under the chairmanship of Inkosi
Buthelezi was further followed by the formation of the two other
regional authorities in 1969 (see table 3; page 59).

The year 1970 was very important in the process of localization
and development of the KwaZulu government service. A few months
before and after inauguration of the Zulu Territorial Authority.
hopes for self-determination, self-government and a sense of
"taking-over" by the Zulus, of the KwaZulu administration
permeated the citizenry and they began to pride themselves in
their own traditional leaderships and political leaders.

The crux of the matter was that the authority system had been
passed in parliament as a law.[1] Subsequently; another act was
passed providing for the promotion of self-government[2] in the
national states. There was no alternative for Blacks if they
were to survive.

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1   Black Authorities Act of 1951.

2   Promotion of Black Self-government Act of 1959.

Inkosi Buthelezi once said:

> "I must use people to perform a task I can
> virtually hear them crying for appropriate
> training. As a politician I would like them
> to do the work which is presently done by
> Whites".(1)

As the figure in table 3 page 59 illustrates, 1974 saw the
addition of two townships to the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly as
regional authorities. The motive for wanting to be part of
the Legislative Assembly was mainly to gain all the facilities
and advantages offered by the KwaZulu government service at that
point in time. The same can be said of the last 2 additions of
the townships around Durban in 1978 (see table 3). They
probably must have been influenced by the fact that they did not
want to be administered by the Department of Development Aid
as was the case then. KwaZulu, having accepted the
responsibility of self-government and full township
administration in 1977, saw no problem in the addition of the
most densely populated KwaZulu townships namely, Umlazi and
Ntuzuma to the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly.[2]

The evolution of local government, regional structures in the Territorial Authority

What is today known as the KwaZulu government service began on 11
June 1970 when the Zulu Territorial Authority[3] was inaugurated in
the royal seat of the Zulus and the then capital of kwaZulu,

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1   Buthelezi, M.G. Speech delivered on occasion of the opening
     of the course for company directors held at the University
     of Zululand on the 26th June, 1976.

2   A township can be given a status of a regional authority
     instead of a local authority.

3   A body elected from regional authorities and traditional
     leaders from regional authorities out of 27 magisterial
     districts.

Nongoma. The preliminary steps for the establishment of what is today called the KwaZulu Public Service Commission were, however, taken in 1972.[1] This development was preceded by the change of Status of the Zulu Territorial Authority in April 1, to a Legislative Assembly headed by the Chief Minister, Inkosi M.G. Buthelezi. The processes, functions, assets and liabilities of all KwaZulu regional authorities came under the control of the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly in the same manner as they did under the Territorial Authority previously.

According to the provisions of the legislation providing for Black Authorities, the difference between a Territorial Authority and a Legislative Assembly is that the latter provides for the election of members by voters of a national state in a secret ballot.[2] The powers of a legislative assembly are very limited, especially with respect to the acquisition of land and negotiations with foreign countries. The life of a legislative assembly is five years. At least one session must take place per year. KwaZulu followed the system as provided for by the Black National States Constitution Act, 21 of 1971 which promotes self-government by each Black ethnic group in South Africa. These national states can ultimately opt for independence, depending upon the willingness of the inhabitants. A commissioner-general normally watches over the affairs of a national state by attending all the meetings of a Legislative Assembly as a representative of the central government. In the case of KwaZulu, the Commissioner-General is stationed in Nongoma.

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1   KwaZulu Hansard, 1975 p. 120.

2   55 in the case of KwaZulu.

The regional and the territorial structures of the KwaZulu government service rest upon the local government structures at grassroot level. In the rural areas there are tribal authorities. In the urban areas there are township councils.

The most important element of administration in Black rural areas of KwaZulu is the Inkosi. He is the authority through which tribal activities whether political, social, economic, administrative, or religious must be approved. Modern politics is at its infancy in tribal areas as a result of lack of infrastructure and communication by road, telephone or railway. The members of the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly have to organise public reportback meetings between sessions in order to inform the citizens about the developments in the Legislative Assembly. Apartheid dictates that for each and every ethnic group there shall be citizenship certificates confining the Black citizen to his own homeland for reasons of language, culture and association. The KwaZulu inhabitants also have those certificates which they can use to vote or to claim certain rights at local, regional and at territorial level. These rights may include employment and welfare benefits.

This citizenship cannot be renounced as a result of naturalization in White South Africa or another national state. Under normal circumstances any White foreigner or temporary sojourner may gain citizenship in South Africa after a continuous stay of five years and may opt to renounce his original citizenship, if he wishes to do so. On the contrary, the homeland citizenship is unfairly restricted to Blacks only and confined to groups with ethnic affiliations to the national states.[1]

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1   Zulus, South Sothos, Pedis, Shangaans, Tswanas, Swazis, Xhosas, Ndebeles.

Whereas the tribal and the community authorities are each
primarily concerned with the local matters of each single tribe[1]
and or community authority respectively, the regional authority
referred to in the foregoing sections is responsible for a wide
geographical area involving more than one tribal authority. The
central government may, if it is necessary, grant a status of a
regional authority to a tribal authority. There are three such
tribal authorities in KwaZulu viz. Amazizi, AmaNgwane and Khambi
(refer to table 3). These regional or tribal authorities are
run by Zulu personnel that is secretaries and chairmen under the
guidance of magistrates. Experience gained by the personnel at
this level of management of the regional affairs is valuable to
the process of localization at territorial level as these civil
servants become eligible for promotion posts.

The first steps taken towards the establishment of the KwaZulu
Public Service Commission was the appointment of KwaZulu citizens
as members of the Staff Advisory Committee. The criteria for
appointing them were that they were experienced and
knowledgeable about the civil service. In addition they were

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1   A tribe is a number of homes sharing the same locality for
     example, grazing land, rivers, arable land and residential
     land. The inhabitants must be under one Inkosi and may not
     necessarily be related. Some families may be related as
     clans. Inter-marriages may also cause a high homogeneity
     in the tribe.

well-educated and some had university qualifications. Finally, they were not part of the civil service of KwaZulu although they had to be gainfully employed elsewhere or self-employed. This committee fell within the KwaZulu Department of Interior which had been established in 1970 previously. It consisted of 3 persons.

On the first of July 1975, the Public Service Commission was established. It consisted of five commissioners whose term of office was 3 years. Since a public service commission is supposed to be an independent body, the commissioners cannot be employees of the KwaZulu Government nor can they be members of the Legislative Assembly. The chairman and the secretary of the commission must on the contrary become civil servants as a result of their control position in the public service commission in KwaZulu.

The function of the Public Service Commission in KwaZulu is as follows:

a) It recommends the creation or abolition of departments, sub-departments, branches and offices in the public service.

b) It may make recommendations regarding the transfer of functions from one department to another or from any other body to a department.

c) It may recommend methods of control in departments, re-organization and re-adjustments of departments, sub-Departments or branches and/or offices.

d) It recommends the number, grading, regrading, conversion and localization of posts on the fixed establishment of departments.

e) It recommends measures affecting the economy and the promotion of efficiency.

f) It recommends salary scales, wage and allowances payable to various classes and grades of officials in the public service.

g) It inspects all the government departments for the purpose of promoting efficiency, establishing needs or gaining information about sections of departments, certain stations or about departments as units.

In 1977, this commission was transferred from the Department of Interior to the Department of the Chief Minister of KwaZulu. Since it is a very important structure which can either accelerate or delay the process of localization, it was a positive development for it to be under the Chief Minister so that he can have an influence in the management and development of all the government departments and the process of localization as well.

The developments after the self-government status:

There being no other avenue of African political participation, on February 1, 1977 KwaZulu became self-governing territory following a request from the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly to the central government to declare KwaZulu a self-governing territory. KwaZulu, therefore, entered the second phase of self-determination provided for in terms of section 26 (1) of the Black National States Constitution Act No 21/1971. This involved changes in name of structures like the executive council that became cabinet,[1] a nomenclature which implies more power in

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1   Councillors became ministers, directors became secretaries.

politico-administrative control of the territory. For example the Department of Health and Social Welfare came into existence in 1977. However, all matters relating to foreign affairs, posts, telegraphs, currency, defence, transport and other advanced matters indicated in the scheduled of the Act were still beyond the scope of the power of the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly.[1]

However, the second stage of self-government which was to involve elections was delayed because the Chief Minister of KwaZulu, backed by the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly, refused to use reference books as identity documents in the KwaZulu election.[2] The main reason was that these reference books could be misused long after a person had died. Another reason was that reference books have always been regarded as symbols of apartheid, since their inception since they were only meant for Blacks. Instead, the citizenship certificates were preferred by KwaZulu.[3]

A few changes towards the recognition of Zulus' aspirations and the symbols of indigenous authority were experienced by the inhabitants of KwaZulu. One of the changes was the recognition of IsiZulu as an official language in addition to English and Afrikaans. Another important change was to add the national anthem for Black people as an official national anthem for KwaZulu.[4] These developments were part of the localization

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1   Military matters, manufacturing and control of arms etc.

2   A Reference book is a "dompas" which has always been a problem since its inception.

3   A small I D card which indicates your ethnic group and number.

4   Nkosi Sikelel' Afrika - Morena Boloka Sechaba

process manifesting themselves in language usage and cultural aspirations.

For the first time, elections were held in December 1978 in KwaZulu. Those voting were citizens of KwaZulu that held citizenship certificates. Fifty six delegates to the Legislative Assembly were elected, representing 26 districts or electoral divisions. From each district at least 3 amakhosi have to be elected to the assembly in addition to commoners who need to be elected by secret ballot.[1] The Department of Development Aid normally assists with the provision of the machinery for voting to the citizens of KwaZulu that reside in the Republic of South Africa. In September 1983, KwaZulu has a second general election. The third general election took place in 1988.

During phase I which was a Zulu Territorial Authority and II which was a KwaZulu Legislative Assembly in the development of the government service, there were six departments, namely, Finance and authority Affairs, Works, Justice, Agriculture, Education and Culture.

As the population expanded and the services of the government increased, the Public Service Commission of KwaZulu (PSC) recommended the establishment of additional departments, sections and sub-departments or bureaux. The department of Health and Welfare was then established in 1977 in October.

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1   The KwaZulu constitution requires that they have to be elected by regional authority by show of hands in an ordinary meeting of the regional authority.

It was responsible for the control of health matters and the welfare system of the territory. A cabinet minister for this department was appointed in 1 April 1978. The existence of this department created yet other opportunities for promotion in the public service for Black civil servants and seconded officers as well. In the department of health, many officers especially professional staff like medical practitioners and technicians were seconded officials[1]. However, the Secretary was a Zulu[2].

During the 1981/2 financial year, the Department of Chief Minister and Finance was extended to house the Economic Affairs wing which was created on the basis of the White Paper on the development of KwaZulu which appeared in 1979. In 1982, the KwaZulu Department of Police was established and placed under the control of the Chief Minister. On the 1st of March 1983, a separate Department of Economic Affairs came into being. This department consists of four branches or sub-divisions.[3]

1. The Bureau of Natural Resources,
2. Economic Development

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1   SAIRR: A Survey of Race Relations, Johannesburg: SAIRR
    p.369

2   Dr M.V. Gumede

3   SAIRR: Ibid

3. Commercial Branch

4. Administrative Services

A Secretary of this Department was appointed at the same time as when it was created.[1]

In September 1983, the Department of Finance was separated from the Chief Minister and a Cabinet Minister was appointed to head it politically.[2] The professional staff in the department is however, preponderantly white (seconded). Progress is however being made in this department. A deputy Minister of Finance was appointed towards the end of 1988.[3]

After the second KwaZulu general election in September 1983, a new department was created that was the Department of Social Welfare and Pensions. This was yet another opportunity for Black advancemment in the civil service.

At the time of going to the polls for the third time in KwaZulu (1988) the government service, therefore, had the following departments:

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1   Mr A.P. Mkhwanazi, M.Comm (University of Zululand)

2   Mr H.T. Madonsela, MLA, BA, LLB, B.Ed (SA)

3   Mr M.M. September.

1. Chief Minister
2. Finance
3. Interior
4. Works
5. Education and Culture
6. Agriculture and Forestry
7. Justice
8. Health
9. Police
10. Economic Affairs
11. Welfare and Pensions.

Nine of the Secretaries (administrative heads of departments) are seconded officials (Whites from the central government civil service). A number of reasons have caused this situation. Very few Zulus have training in decision-making at the level of administration higher than that of senior administrative officer (former chief clerk). The numbers of high school and university graduates entering the civil service in KwaZulu are inadequate. Only a few recruits, if any, into the civil service can offer Accounting and Mathematics as specialization subjects to learn complex accounting procedures required by both the KwaZulu and central government for financial administration (see table 6 for for a detailed summary of the local civil servants in 1989).

TABLE 6

RANKS AND NUMBER OF LOCAL PERSONNEL AS AT 30 APRIL 1989[1]

RANK	NUMBER OF PERSONS ON RANK
General Assistants I	8 595
General Assistants II	2 335
General Assistants III	1 414
Darkroom Assistants	44
Driver/Operator	357
Housekeeper	18
House Mother	57
House Father	14
Care Assistants	61
Seamstreams	59
Medical Officers	55
Typists	221
Pharmacist	1
Pupil Health Inspector	13
Health Field Officer	7
Intern (Medical)	1
Senior Pharmacist	1
Specialist	2
Dentist	4
Food Service Supervisor	1
Assistant Food Service Supervisor	5
Mortuary Assistant	29
Handcraft Instructor 1st leg	15
Laundry Supervisor	3
Therapy Attendant	12
Handcraft Instructor 2nd leg	1
Inspector: Occupational Safety	1

1   Information obtained from the Public Service Commission, KwaZulu. Ulundi.

Police Officer Grade II	14
Police Officer Grade IV	82
Police Officer Grade V	1 990
Traffic Inspector	11
Principal Traffic Inspector	1
Data Typist	15
Nursing Assistant	1 651
Staff Nurse	2 093
Senior Staff Nurse	15
Professional Nurse	2 813
Chief Professional Nurse	66
Senior Nursing Service Manager	8
Nursing Service Manager	10
Security Officer	15
Chief Typist	1
Laboratory Assistant	53
Physiotherapist	8
Occupational Therapist	3
Radio-Grapher	36
Health Inspector	27
Senior Health Inspector	16
Chief Health Inspector	1
Telephonist	65
Pupil Industrial Technician	39
Industrial Technician	10
Dental Therapist	14
Dietician	1
Librarian	5
Artisan Group "A"	34
Artisan Group "B"	350
Artisan Group "C"	28
Dental Assistant	13
Senior Dental Assistant	1

Social Worker	54
Senior Social Worker	22
Chief Social Worker	12
Principal Social Workers	30
Pupil Medical Technologist	36
Medical Technologist	56
Information Photographer	2
Media Officer	2
Administrative Assistant (P)	22
Assistant Administration Clerk	37
Administration Clerk	1 732
Senior Administration Clerk	1 942
Chief Administration Clerk	3
Police Officer Grade III	44
Police Deputy Commissioner	2
Efficiency Officer	9
Senior Efficiency Officer	4
Pupil-Nature Consevator	63
Community Agricultural Officer	1
Agricultural Officer	545
Foresters	60
Laundry Assistant	19
Legal Assistant/Prosecutor	53
Legal Assistant/Magistrate	70
Linen Supervisor	1
Transport Inspector	7
Senior Transport Inspector	4
Student Nurse	558
Pupil Nurse	26
Registry Clerk	53
Lithographic Operator	2
Senior Lithographic Operator	2
Senior Security Officer	4

Draughtsman Assistant	9
Health Assistant	82
Efficiency Assistant	3
Training Officer	8
Senior Training Officer	1
Pharmacist Assistant	88
Student Occupational Therapist	1
Student Radiographer	14
Agricultural Assistant	35
Personal Secretary	5
Artisan Foreman	4
Assistant Personnel Officer	6
Personnel Officer	2
Senior Personnel Officer	2
Secretary: Public Service Commission	1
Secretary of Department	2
Ambulance Assistant	804
Liaison Officer	7
Senior Liaison Officer	1
Assistant Secretary: Social Services	2
Plant Operator	91
Driver	433
Driver (EHMV)	580
Driver (Minister/Chief Minister)	7
Industrial Technician 2nd leg	1
Industrial Technician 3rd leg	7
Advisor Family Planning	10
Deputy Secretary: Finance Administration	1
Assistant Accountant	3
Accountant	11
Senior Accountant	12
Assistant Business Economist	4

Business Economist	1
Community Development Officer 1st leg	12
Community Development Officer 2nd leg	2
Engineer	2
Agricultural Advisor	12
Senior Magistrate	3
Land Surveyor	1
Assistant Administration Officer	38
Administration Officer	134
Senior Administration Officer	47
Assistant Secretary: Administration	9
Assistant Programmer	6
Programmer	6
Senior Programmer	3
Legal Assistant/Legal Officer	13
Senior Legal Officer	1
Computer Operator	4
Chief Veterinary Surgeon	2
Chief Efficiency Officer	3
Artisan Foreman (P)	14
Principal Clerk (P)	3
Pupil Technician (P)	30
Pupil Operator (Sewerage & Water) (P)	101
Senior Medical Technologist	11
Assistant Private Secretary: Chief Minister	2
Law Lecturer	6

From the table in the previous page, it shows clearly that most Zulus are employed in the unskilled posts of general assistants I, II and III. This category alone accounts for 12 334 persons on the KwaZulu payroll. The largest trained group is the category of nurses which accounts for 7 240 persons. There are about only 40 officers at the equivalent level and of the assistant secretary, deputy secretary and secretary in various departments.[1] It can therefore be concluded that a vigorous effort to educate the population has to be made if localization is to be a reality in KwaZulu.

Conclusion

As a result of the expansion from the six departments in the early seventies, KwaZulu advanced to eleven departments in 1988. The more departments there are, the more opportunities there are to advance in the career of the civil service. For example, if there are eleven departments there is a possibility of having eleven indigenous secretaries of departments when the central government withdraws the seconded staff from the various departments. Although the Zulus were opposed to the strategy of separate development as a solution of the complex issue of the Black franchise and the redressing of the political deprivation and aspirations, KwaZulu used the policy of separate development to employ its inhabitants and to develop them where possible. In keeping with its philosophy of making use of whatever little

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1   Teachers do not normally form part of the civil service. They are about 25 000 in KwaZulu.

opportunity is made available to its inhabitants, KwaZulu, as a national state instigated and signed the Joint Executive Authority between itself and the White-controlled province of Natal. Even in this structure, like in the local, regional and territorial structures, posts are available for occupation by experienced, local expert administrators irrespective of religion, race or sex.

CHAPTER IV

LOCALIZATION AND ITS PROBLEMS

Introduction

Localization and Africanization as concepts, are synonymous with respect to Africa, the only difference is that localization was adopted as the correct nomenclature in particular countries for usage because of the racial mixture of the inhabitants.[1] The process of localization takes place through a well-motivated creation of posts existing posts and a systematic recruitment of candidates from the local expertise according to the demands of national development. Since this policy has been followed elsewhere in Africa as part of the process of decolonization, it is necessary to review this experience.

The African Experience

In the East African countries and the central African countries as opposed to the Western African former British dependencies, a large number of white settlers had settled permanently. Some of these settlers had no connection with Britain at all.[2] As a result of the shortage of trained Africans some of the British expatriates who regarded themselves as non-African "Africans" were absorbed from the colonial service into the national one at independence.

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1   Adu, A.L. The Civil Service in Commonwealth Africa. London: Allen & Unwin, 1969, p. 112.

2   Ibid, p. 112.

Because of the multi-racial nature of the society (in the former British colonies like Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania) it was the intention of the government that the civil service should reflect the racial complexion of these countries. Otherwise it would mean that a group of citizens was being discriminated against. It was, therefore assumed that any "non-African" who assumed citizenship of the state of his adoption became African in the continental sense. The aim of localization is to fill the offices hitherto occupied by non-nationals with nationals who would identify themselves with goals and aspirations of the new nations and serve it faithfully.[1] However, localization is not a mere replacement of expatriates with indigenous officers, but it is in addition, the localization of the practices, and procedures of the administrative system itself. It is a question of the localization of the ethos and not just experience.[2] For example, humanism in dealings with the population.

Localization, therefore, differs slightly from Africanization in that the former concept implies a non-racial approach to converting a former colonial administration into a national one. Tordoff puts it aptly as follows:

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1   Morgan, E.P. The Administration of Change in Africa. New York: Dunellen, 1974, p. 97.

2   Kirk-Greene, A.H. The New African Administrator. Journal of Modern African Studies. Vol. 10 (4) 1972, p. 96.

> Mr Nyerere would himself have preferred
> to have made citizenship and not race,
> the precondition for service of an
> independent Tanganyika. Nyerere was
> able to insist that Africanization
> should be adopted as a temporary
> experiment to be replaced by a policy of
> localization ...(1)

Sometimes localization is referred to as Africanization. As a
result these concepts have come to be used interchangeably or
synonymously. Both concepts originate from the former African
colonies. When African began to take over the
administrative control of their own future, this process was
referred to as Africanization. The main reason was that there
was an ever increasing conviction that Africans should be in a
position not only to determine their own political future but
also to direct their future's administrative course.[2]

Africanization is the process of transforming a colonial type of
civil service into a national one. As the word is derived from
"Africa" it has some racial overtones and political implications
too.[3] In other words, Africanization refers to a particular
type of staff recruitment and role definition occurring in
Africa. It involves the deliberate subsitution in positions of
authority, influence and status of one category of persons for
another.[4] This definition comes out clearly in the fact that

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1 Tordoff, W. Government and Politics in Tanzania. Nairobi,
   EAP, 1967 p. 195.

2 Mentz, J.C.N. Localization and Training in the Botswana
   Public Service. 1966-1976, Pretoria: UNISA. Unpublished
   D.Litt et Phil thesis, 1980. p. 29.

3 Adu, op.cit p. 68.

4 Riggs, F W (ed.) Frontiers of Development Administration.
   Durham: Duke University Press, 1970; p. 538.

when Africanization is used as a concept, the roots of persons are involved and this does not exclude the variables of race in the categorization of persons. As a policy, Africanization might give an impression that persons could be recruited into positions of authority on grounds of race, and without the consideration that Europeans might have acquired African citizenship through naturalisation.

Localization, therefore, differs slightly from Africanization in that the former concept implies a non-racial approach to converting a former colonial administration into a national one.

Sometimes the term indigenization, actually synonymous with localization, is used to describe the process of Africanization. This is the process whereby structures, procedures, officers, and other items are decolonized and made to fit the local situation in the same sense as the localization process especially in administration. Localization is, therefore a more suitable concept than Africanization.

Some authors prefer to name the process of localization after the country where it is taking place and, therefore, completely do away with the concepts, localization, Africanization and/or indigenization.[1] These concepts still refer essentially to the transfer of power from the expatriates or seconded or allocated officials into the hands of the local people or indigenous persons. The term expatriate means in this context, a foreign worker who is recruited for a post in the absence of a local.

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1   For example Tordoff refers to Zambianization in Tordoff, W. Provincial and Local Government in Zambia Journal of Administration Overseas. Vol. 9, No. 1, 1970, p. 32. "Zambianization of the private sector".

However, in the national states of South Africa like KwaZulu, the terms "allocated" or "seconded" personnel are used.[1] In view of the neutral nature of localization as a concept, preference was given to it for the purposes of this thesis. What emerges, is that the term localization is non-racial whereas Africanization has emotional and racial overtones.

Reasons for Localization

There are various reasons why African governments mount localization as a policy directly after independence. The most important single motivation behind the policy of localization is the political urge to control and rule the country. In this connection, Colin Baker, puts it aptly as follows:

> "Malawians would regard self-government as a contradiction in terms, unless there were plans to replace expatriate administrators by Africans".(2)

From the above quotation, we can conclude that in the case of Malawi and some other African countries, the urge for political liberation leads logically to the urge to create a national or localized type of a civil service. In many cases, the real justification for localization is the natural and understandable desire of every people to be able to manage its own internal and external affairs. They may be desiring to get well-paid jobs too.

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1   An allocated or seconded official is appointed and paid by the central government but works in a national state.

2   Baker, C. The administration service of Malawi. A Case Study in Africanization. Journal of Modern African Studies. Vol 10 (4) 1972 p. 545.

Generally speaking every nation would like to be governed by their own people. They would like people who know the problems of citizens, their aspirations, weaknesses, language and culture to run national affairs. People who are approachable. Even the well developed countries have stringent rules against foreigners who seek employment in their countries. Employment opportunities and patriotic considerations normally come first when persons from foreign countries wish to settle in a country. It is part of the nationalist impusle to aspire for the ability to control the scarce things like powerful positions. With the advent of colonization in the Third world, chances by Africans of gaining employment in the civil service were slim since some colonial powers regarded the civil service as a domain for power and control on their part. This situation continued even when some Africans had been educated in the twentieth century.

The Sudanese example reflected in the Sudanese Development Programme of 1946 underlines the political urge of localization. The programme enunciated the avowed intention of the Sudanese government to advance along the road leading to the self-government as rapidly as possible. The plan included the training of Sudanese as quickly as possible for the filling of the more responsible posts in the local and central government services. Thus, the urge for escalization in Sudan was purely political. There was need to achieve self-determination and self-government. The same goes for some other African countries. As a matter of fact, within a few years of independence, most African countries, particularly Anglo-phone countries, had established training institutions and nearly completed the Africanization process.

A policy was adopted, in addition, of training officers at overseas universities or institutions of higher learning, or on-the-job, or in an Institute for Management or of Public Administration.

Regarding the identification of civil servants with national developmental goals and national political aspirations, it has been an aim in most countries to fill the offices of top ranks of the civil services at independence which have been hitherto occupied by non-nationals with nationals. These nationals would identify themselves with goals and wishes of the young nations and serve them faithfully.[1] After decolonization another important issue was the desire of African administrators to concentrate on the administration of development and the development of the civil service machinery. The traditional colonial emphasis on the maintenance of law and order and the collectors of taxes would be replaced by additional emphasis to the administration of development.[2] The administrative machinery would need to be development-minded and adequately informed about the country's development problems in order to seek solutions to these problems at the local level.

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1 Morgan, op.cit. p. 149.

2 Brokensha, D & Nellis, J. Administration in Kenya - A study of the rural division of Mbere. Journal of Administration Overseas. Vol XIV. No. 1. January 1985, p. 25.

It is not only inevitable but essential that the civil service should be called upon to assume even greater responsibility for managing the local economy and for identifying and solving national problems of a decolonized country. In Nigeria, for example, nationalism, led to the politics of rising expectations which demanded "African expertise". This means Africans had to be appointed in positions of power and influence in order to be catalysts of African development and advancement. African civil servants could and should have a vital influence for example, on the way a case is presented for Ministerial decision by the care and knowledge and analysis which go into the final submission to the cabinet. Expatriates are not better than the locals in such matters as their knowledge of the country-side language and local culture, is inadequate.[1]

Localization brings about a well-established and a firmly grounded public service because the officers are permanently employed and are citizens of the country. For any country to develop, it is necessary that its planners and administrators be permanent. When expatriates or seconded officials are employed as a short-term measure of solving the staffing problem, the public service loses its stability. Contrary to the temporary nature of contracts made with the expatriates, the nationals are

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[1]   Hunter, G. The Administrative Machine. African Affairs. Vol. 65, April 1966, p. 133.

permanently tied down to their country as it were, and therefore, to their jobs. Benefits such as pension, loyalty, patriotism, are factors that contribute to long-term planning and personal satisfaction to individual civil servants. The result therefore is stability of the government service. When localization takes place, however, it is not only the replacement of expatriates, but the whole ethos, structure and attitude is in the changes.

On the importance of the utilization of expert knowledge of the retired officers, it is necessary that this knowledge be utilized in advisory services, commission work, or statutory bodies created by a government. If an officer is not a national, it is not possible to make use of him after retirement since each one of them retire to his original country. In this way the vast experience gained by an expatriate in a given country, is lost completely.[1]

In the case of the nationals, even extension of service is possible, and even if they retire, they establish themselves permanently within reach of the government in case their services are needed. Their expertise can always be used sometimes when the incumbents of posts are on leave. For example, the recently retired top officials of the Department of Education and Culture in KwaZulu, Mr D.Y. Zimu former Secretary of Education and Culture; Mr E. Mvemve former Deputy Secretary (Professional), Dr G.D. Soni, former Deputy Secretary (Auxilliary Services).

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1   Kirk-Greene, op.cit. p. 261.

Problems of Localization

There are various problems related to the process of localization everywhere when the policy is being applied. The main problem is that of the concern from everyone, especially the expatriate, with the possible lowering of standards as a result of the appointment of new officials in new positions. Consequently, it is normal with governments who adopt the policy of localization to concern themselves with the training and education of the nationals to enable them to be prepared for the positions they would eventually occupy. This is done so that inefficiency would not ensue as soon as localization had been effected.

There were three ways in which training programmes were implemented in the post-colonial era: in-service training, or on-the-job training, education abroad education and training in an institute of administration in an independent African country.

Among the consequences of lowering of standards supervisory duties became so burdensome and complex for new incumbents, at middle level echelons of the hierarchy, that it became very difficult to supervise the lower echelons of the civil servants. Such lack of supervision and of measures of control may lead to corruption, mismanagement of resources and crime. In this connection, the KwaZulu Minister of Justice is reported to have said recently:

> A complicated and involved pension thefts
> network has been exposed in certain
> magistrate's office in KwaZulu ... The
> offences are extremely serious and involve
> huge sums of money.(1)

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1   KwaZulu Government Service: Policy Speech of the Minister of Justice 1989/90, Ulundi: KLA p.13.

As a result of familiarity, ethnically - biased and tribally-motivated discriminatory attitudes that may permeate the civil service, suitable and desirable candidates for senior position might be omitted when appointments are made, instead unsuitable candidates might be recruited. These might lead to the lowering of standards.[1]

The politicization of the civil service, may creep quietly into the localized civil service to the extent that appointments are made on the strengths of political affiliations rather than merit; thus lowering the standards in that meritorious persons might be omitted unnecessarily and an inefficient but loyal political followers. As far as KwaZulu is concerned, political affiliations in KwaZulu have hitherto not affected the Public Service Commission appointments.

As a result of the dire need to educate and train would-be African administrators, country after country set up institutes or colleges for this purpose. For example, Zambia, Pakistan, India, and East Africa set up institutes for training administrators as a sequel to Britain's relinquishing of power.[2]

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1   To appoint civil servants to influential positions as a result of their support of the ruling party.

2   Reilly, W.A.P. Training Admministrators for Development. London: Heinemann, 1979, p. 209.

As far as the sending of nationals overseas was concerned, both independent countries and colonial powers did this on a large scale. This system led to the situation in 1964 when there were 40 000 students from commonwealth countries in Britain.[1] In 1966, it was revealed further that there were 2 000 people from the African continent who came to study to Britain.[2] One fifth of these were in Public Administration. Middle executive civil service training for civil servants was conducted in Tanzania, Zambia, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland.[3]

As far as the training on-the-job was concerned, various problems were experienced. The aim of this training was to accelerate the taking over of senior posts by locals from expatriats and is therefore referred to as "accelerated promotion approach".[4] Essentially it consisted in an African taking over an expatriate-held post after a much shorter apprenticeship than would normally

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1 · Dowuona, T. Training for Development in Africa. African Affairs Vòl. LXV, 1966, p. 141.

2 Cohen, A. Development in Africa. The problems of Today Journal of Administration Overseas. Vol. 7, 1968, p. 437.

3 Ibid. p.

4 Tordoff, W. Government and Politics in Tanzania. Nairobi: East African Publishing Co. 1967 p. 196.

be required to serve.[1]   However, this strategy had serious
problems when it was applied in some countries.   For instance,
in Sudan it was found that this training was of an ad hoc nature.
There was a shortage of instructors and trainers.   Top civil
servants found it very difficult, therefore, to submit themselves
to any training programme.   A further problem related to the
accelerated promotion approach was the question which was asked
by officers who were being trained for mere efficiency as opposed
to those who were trained specifically for promotion prior to
independence.   "What will be our reward for undergoing such a
strenuous course"?[2]

A serious problem of localization, though, is that of the bare
shortage of educated and professionally trained personnel.   This
situation not only retards the speed with which localization can
take place, but is also an embarrassment to those who are in
power at the time of the execution of the policy of localization.
The .system whereby Africanization was related to school and
university output and the length of time which it took an African
officer to prove himself within the service was referred to as
the "colonial approach".[3]   The production of educated or

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1   Adedeji,   A.   Training for Development Administration in
     Western Nigeria: Journal of Administrative Overseas,   Vol
     VIII, No. 2, 1969, p. 4.

2   Tordoff, op.cit p. 196.

3   Al-Teraufi, A op cit p. 126.

qualified persons in developing countries has, however, been always outpaced by the demands of manpower in general and that of localization in particular by far. As a result, where the colonial approach was followed in localizing a civil service, many vacancies could not be localized. For instance, according to the 1948 Sudanese government report of the committee on the Sudanisation of the Civil Service, the following picture emerged: [1]

TABLE I

SUDANESE CIVIL SERVICE 1936 - 48

YEAR	NON-SUDANESE POST	SUDANESE POSTS	TOTAL
1936	453	4	459
1940	515	28	546
1944	570	47	617
1948	612	117	729

From the above table it is clear that only 20 percent of the post had localized in twelve years.

In 1962 another report was amde about the Sudanization of the civil service. The picture had improved greatly because more educational facilities had been set up. The Sudanese people had been sent overseas for training and education. A two-year training programme for administrative personnel had been set up.[2]

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1   Ibid. p. 127

2   Ibid.

In Zambia, the same problem confronted them seriously, when they were implementing the policy of localization, viz. the lack of properly and sufficiently educated personnel. In 1968 the position was as follows:[1]

TABLE 6

ZAMBIAN CIVIL SERVICE : 1968

	Less than Form 2	Form 2	O-level	A-level	Degree	Total
Africans	12 015	7 282	1 516	517	150	21 480
Non-Africans	1 853	11 385	13 433	6 450	3 618	34 556
Totals	13 868	18 667	14 949	7 967	3 668	56 036
% of Africans	87	39	11	5	4	38

The above picture shows clearly that in Zambia the bulk of the nationals in the civil service had school education which was below Form 2.

Faced with numerous problems and difficulties en route to localization, some African countries adopted a strategy referred to as the"job analysis approach" - a corollary of the accelerated promotion approach, whereby a detailed examination of the complements and qualifications of each post in the civil service was made in order to relate the organization of work and the qualifications required for a post to the African manpower available.[2]

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1   Greenfield, A. Manpower Planning in Zambia. Journal of Administration Overseas. Vol. 7, 1968, p. 502.

2   Tordoff, op.cit. p. 196.

More often than not, the emerging countries were forced by the shortage of skilled African manpower to resort to expatriate officers, more especially in technical, professional and scientific departments where international standards are rigidly laid down for qualifying Africans. Examples of these categories are doctors, engineers, research scientist, technical officers[1]. Some countries were prepared, however, to wait for a considerable length of time to be able to produce Africans with these qualifications without sacrificing standards. Some did not wait.

Another important reason which complicates the problem of localization is the brain drain. Political stability has an influence on the distribution and the utilization of professional personnel in the country. A distribution effect on personal utilization appears when a government wishes "to accomplish an employment objective to the exclusion of some."[2] For one reason or another, a professional might not be recruited into a highly regarded position in the civil service even if he qualifies. He might, as a result of such a snub, opt out of the country for greener pastures or a higher pay than in his own country. This results in a brain drain. A redistributive effect is experienced when as a matter of must, through the programme of localization, a government of a developing country recruit relatively capable personnel.

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1   Adu, op.cit p. 173.

2   Mtewa, M. Public Policy and Development Politics. The Politics of Technical Expertise in Africa. Washington, DC. 1980, p. 39.

The problem of the emigration of professionals from young countries to developed countries dates back from colonial times and is still being experienced nowadays. It is therefore necessary for those nations that embark upon the policy of localization to recruit broadly and internationally. As a result of recruitment at international level, the locals who might have settled in foreign countries may be attracted towards the land of their forefathers and the service at executive level.[1]

African professional personnel are subjected to two pressures connected with their education, training and certification. The first one is that they have to meet their own professional expectations relative to the overseas staff. The second one is that they have to measure up to high and unreasonable standards set by their governments themselves.[2] These governments, on the one hand, have to justify their localization policies to sponsors and use the performance records in their motivations for funds. These factors have, therefore, created artificial shortages on top of the real ones. Finally, a developing country may have assertive, regulatory policies on professional standards and performance levels. All these factors might lead to a redistribution of personnel to other countries where they may be needed.[3] People go where the conditions are better.

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1   Ibid.

2   Ibid.

3   Ibid.

The shortage of educated personnel in emergent countries is further aggravated by classes between professional leaders and political leaders often resulting in migration to escape the wrath of politicians or the whole situation. Often communication between politicians and civil servants or professionals breaks down completely. Normally the politician would think that the civil servant is intentionally sabotaging his plans; and the civil servant, who does not think much of the intelligence and capabilities of his political head would in turn think that the politician does not have the interests of the civil servants at heart.[1]

The speed with which localization can be accomplished constitutes yet another problem. While Africans wanted the process of localization to take place rapidly, some British officials were opposed to this. For example in Sudan, the. Sudanization Committee (1946) recommended that with regard to posts for which it was necessary to appoint a non-Sudanese, they should be filled with persons serving on definite term contracts and;. in the meantime, Sudanese should be trained to fill the posts at the expiration of the contracts.[2] When the Sudanization committee wished to complete the Sudanization after 1954, the British expatriates objected. As a result of British objection to the process of localization in Sudan, some non-Sudanese and non-British (neutral) persons were recruited.

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1   Al-Teraufi, op-cit. p. 126

2   Ibid. p. 128

These officers capable as they were, were, however, ignorant of the culture of the people and the country - which was unacceptable to both the Sudanese and the British colonizers.[1]

Another example of a problem, is that of the contrary situation where conditions may allow rapid Africanization like in Ghana. The Ghana National Trading Co-operation succeeded in a rapid Africanization of its staff. In 1961 it had 86 expatriate managers. Five years later, the number of expatriates had declined to 9. These facts reveal that circumstances like the need for jobs for locals might allow a rapid process of Africanization in one country and not in another.[2]

The matter of expatriates opposing the process of Africanization in some African countries like in Sudan was experienced elsewhere in Africa and might still be experienced in the national states of South Africa at the moment. Expatriates were divided as to whether or not they should resist the process of being replaced by Africans. Sir Alan Burns, the governor of the Gold Coast said:

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1   Morgan, op.cit p. 154.

2   Al-Teraufi, op,cit. p. 126

> Africanization is a settler policy. The
> role of many European officials is in fact
> changing from an executive to an advisory
> one. There will be little room .for
> officials who do not regard the having of
> African staff as their primary
> responsibility. There are some diehards
> who consider we are moving too fast. Any
> such an officer, should consider seriously
> whether they can conscientiously continue to
> serve a government with whose policy they are
> in fundamental disagreement.(1)

Localization is a problematic policy. It can either be too fast
or too slow. This happens when nationals who graduate from
local or overseas universities are sought out and given posts and
very rapidly get to the top-most positions. Within a short
time, in most newly independent countries the expatriate
personnel is significantly reduced.[2] The other side of the
coin, however, is that the transfer of political power is as
complicated as the transfer of technology.[3] In most African
newly independent countries the tendency has been, once
substantial development programmes commence the need for more
expatriate personnel becomes acute. These may be administrative,
professional and technical personnel as well.

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1 Austin, D. Politics in Ghana. 1946-1960. Oxford: OUP. p. 8.

2 Dowuona, T. op.cit p. 129

3 Soper, T.S. External Aid. African Affairs Vol.LXV, 1966,
  p. 210.

Such countries resort to the recruitment of expatriate personnel
with the result that this category of personnel increase to a
higher level in number than before independence - thus slowing
down the process of localization once more.[1]

The most important single factor which needs to be addressed as a
problem of localization, is the maintenance of efficiency and
standards vis-a-vis the speed with which localization can be
accomplished in a given country. According to Tordoff the
inevitable decline in the efficiency of staff since independence
is in fact a more serious problem than the reduction in staff
numbers and is a vital factor to be taken to consideration.[2]

There are various reasons why efficiency is affected when there
is a new incumbent in a post.   In the first place any person
arriving in a new setting on a new job would, under normal
circumstances, need to be orientated about the environment, the
facilities, the people and the procedures which are going to
affect him.   During this period of "orientation" very little or
no work is done.   During the period of localization there is a
higher proportion of newly promoted persons in employment than is
usual or normal.   When all these people are in the process of

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1   Dowuona, op.cit p. 141.

2   Greenfield, A. Manpower Planning in Zambia.   Journal of
     Administration Overseas.   Vol. 7, 1968 p. 502 The reason
     for the loss of efficiency here was the Zambianization of
     the civil service in Zambia.

"settling in" the country suffers inefficiency in administration at various levels, - e.g. at provincial or central government levels. Although some expatriates may be reluctant to leave their positions, experience has shown that in some countries they leave the country of their own accord sooner than is necessary or desirable from the national point of view - thus creating vacancies which cannot be filled on short notice. Inefficiency can therefore result from this situation where vacancies exist for a year without being filled.[1]

In some countries the quality of supervision lowers and deteriorates as soon as the policy of localization is implemented as a result of the residue of expatriates who become demoralized and therefore reluctant to use their authority to control the nationals under their jurisdiction. Conversely, the nationals who find themselves under the supervision of their fellow Africans or "pals" become reluctant or unwilling to take orders from newly promoted fellowmen or contemporaries even if the promotion is justified.[2] For example, in the Administrative College of Papua, New Guinea, the Registrar's branch was perilously near collapse, largely because it had been localized so rapidly that many officers were having to attempt to handle

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1   Ibid. p. 507.

2   Ibid.

jobs for which they had no training and virtually no relevant experience, but, no one was prepared to tackle the problem.[1]

The whole question of "standards" and "efficiency" in developing countries has become controversial. Assuming that efficiency is, in this regard, the accomplishment of goals or purposes by an organization or a government within the shortest possible time through the most economical means, it becomes questionable how western "standards" could be reconciled to African "standards". It was also not clearly defined what the "acceptable standards" consisted of in African terms. Commission after commission from country to country emphasized the need for the maintenance of standards. These commissions, were normally composed of colonial officers only, who would have been directly affected by the envisaged policy of localization.[2] It is therefore a question whether the so-called standard was justifiable in the face of the vast differences between the metropolitan colonial milieu and the developmental African one. Developing countries inherited western-oriented, personnel administrative systems whose requirements were to provide an impartial dedicated civil service over and above the keeping of time, records, control and the processes of planning, organizing, co-ordinating, budgetting, staffing, evaluating and decision-making. When Africanization ensued, it was questionable whether impartiality was is fact a virtue. As a matter of fact, it became a virtue to be impartial

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1   Reilly, op.cit, p. 209.

2   Mentz, J.C.N. Ibid. p. 29

to the demands of politicians, relatives, and friends and was punishable in the long run.

There is also the dimension of procedures and practices in administration which have to be localized or Africanized. Africanization is not only a replacement of expatriates or seconded officials, with locals or indigenous persons, but it is also the Africanization of procedures and practices of the administrative system. The change in thes procedures and practices does not necessarily lead to the lowering of standards, they may in fact, invariably lead to more efficiency than in the colonial times. Standards should, therefore, be clearly defined and should take into consideration the milieu, ethos, and the political framework ofthe country before the process of localization is embarked upon.

Another problem of localization is the question whether or not they are "men of the people". Civil servants normally adopt,

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1   In this aspect Kirk-Greene indicates the countries that have progressed considerably: Tanzania (Nyerere) Ghana (Nkruma). Guinea too has progressed albeit slowly.

2   Schaffer, B. Administrative legacies and links in the post-colonial state. Preparation Training and Administration Reform. Development and Change Vo. 9. 1978, p. 180.

willy-nilly a set of values that are elitist and therefore far removed from the people, i.e. their less favoured countrymen. The educational system and its fundamental principles are responsible for instilling in the trainee-administrator elitist western values. As a result, the post independence African administrative machineries were regarded each as:

> "A bourgeous bureaucratic elite, the core of which has been selected and trained by colonialists ... the upper crust of a monstrously inflated hypertroplined state machine for the maintenance of which a considerable portion of the national budget is spent".(1)

Their training and preparation for their jobs has produced in the them a passion of certificates and diplomas rather than an adaptation to meet the new demands of independence. One of the reasons for the diploma disease is the inability of the content and aims of their education and training to be decolonized.

The international mobility of the educated and their access to the world market values derives from the non-indigenous nature of

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1   Godfrey, M. op.cit p. 11.

the education and training system. This system usually prepares students for foreign (in foreign-oriented) qualifications, employs many foreign teachers and sends many students abroad uses international rather than a local language as a medium of instruction and is not geared to the needs of the economy as a whole. There is no equality in provision as well as orientation towards employment. Productivity is not related to resources.[1]

The criticism of the non-local nature of the civil service and the privileged position of the civil servants is very serious in developing countries especially where there is lack of employment and facilities. The identification of the centralized organziation and hierarchy with privileged, stratified and separate personnel and salary conditions based on non-national and non-local comparisons was the order of the day.

The situation was compounded in the years that followed, by the fact that the more localization became a reality the more Western-oriented Africans gained power and influence. The goals of social and economic reform were muted by the achievement of status and high salaried positions.[2] It was therefore, not unusual for national officers to demand the same allowances as

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1 Godfrey, M. op.cit. p. 11.

2 Green, H.A. Bureaucracy and Professionalisation: Toward Management. Improvement in Nigeria. Journal of Administration Overseas. Vol. XVI. No. 2. 1977, p. 122.

those of the seconded staff they had replaced; losing sight of the fact that their predecessors received, for instance, a territorial allowance from the metropolitan treasury, as an inducement by the colonial power to stay on, and that it did not affect the national budget. Many a government has therefore ended up paying exorbitantly to keep the Africans in their countries even at the expense of other aspects of development:

> "Can the country afford to pay? The technicians, the staff with professional qualifications and the senior administrators and people upon whom successful government and development depends. It is their skills, resourcefulness, and dedication which will shape the future."(1)

Indeed in other countries, the government had of necessity to provide additional inducements to nationals in cash and in kind otherwise the worthwhileness of working in Africa was going to be questioned. Senior - ranked, internationally qualified Africans shared their social life with the expatriates with whom they worked.[2] Moreover, most of them had been trained in Europe and America and had assumed life-styles of these materially

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1   Godfrey, M. op.cit p.12

2   Adu, op.cit. p. 120.

advanced countries.   It became unreasonable, therefore, to pitch
the scales to much below those enjoyed by their expatriate
counterparts.[1]

Another important problem of localization was that of the
generational gap in the civil service.   Usually senior
administrators were promoted on grounds of age, experience and
seniority rather than on merit or achievement.   In the case of
Sudan, up till the early sixties most of the heads of departments
and all provincial authorities were non-graduates.   As a result
of the process of localization, new graduates firstly from
overseas and later from the national university eager to
participate in government and take over industry, and above all
ready to show the magic of their academic advantage arrived.
They would be enthusiastically welcomed and given a special entry
point to the ladder somewhere with no vision of promotion or
authority in the foreseeable future.[2] Subsequently, frustration
ensued and frequently justified, even if in some cases there
might be a naive desire to start in the middle of the ladder and
go upwards.   Certainly, the prospect of an echelon of superiors
less well-qualified academically and with some 20 to 30 years
apparent service ahead of them is discouraging to any new

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1   Al-Teraufi, op.cit p. 130.

2   Hugh, T.H. Some Aspects of Manpower Planning in Developing
     Countries. Journal of Administrative Overseas. Vol. XI. No.
     2. April 1972, p. 104.

arrival. This blockage of the channels of promotion for the better qualified successors gave rise to a sense of frustration and resentment.[1] The frustration and bitterness which was experienced by these officers who could not be promoted, was similar to the bitterness which was experienced by the Africans as a result of the British colonial administration which was categorized into junior and senior divisions manned by Black officers and British colonists respectively.[2] This was because Blacks could not enter the senior divisions by promotion. After independence, these divisions were abolished and the Overseas Service Aid scheme was introduced. This scheme compensated the British colonists in case they resigned and provided allowance for those who continued to work for former colonies on a contract basis. The whole scheme led to conflicting goals in the development of a sound civil service. In the final analysis the British government found themselves compensating both those who were resigning and those who stayed on-which posed a serious problem to the colonial government of Britain.[3]

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1   A-L Teraufi, A. op.cit 134.

2   Mentz, op.cit p. 29

3   Ibid p. 29

Besides being racialistic, concerning itself as it did, with the compensation of British citizens for loss of occupation and with the provision of allowances for British expatriates, working on a contractual basis, it was an unsound policy and was bound to lower the morale of the national civil servants.

Conclusion

In general, it would seem that in a country or society where jobs are scarce and where the level of payment is generally low, appointees to official posts occupy an economically privileged position.[1] The situation does not exclude the possibility of the pressure of nepotism, political astuteness, toppling of the regime by violence, corruption and gerrymandering which may be brought to bear on the national civil servants. These problems are normally unlikely to be experienced by expatriates or seconded officials. Elsewhere in Afria there has been a great increase in corruption in public life during the period of localization, while an element of hooliganism and violence was introduced into the political life of the country mainly by warring political parties.[2]

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1   Southall, R.J. The beneficiaries of the Transkeian Independence. Journal of Modern African Studies Vol. 15. No. 1 1977 p. 1.

2   Cohen, A. Ghana, Education and Change: London: Longmans, 1975, p. 122.

As far as efficiency is concerned, it is logical that there should be a slight drop in that aspect, although of course as soon as the incumbents are settled in their positions, they should be more efficient than their predecessors.

A localization time-table or plan, however, can assist a territory in order to clarify its mind about the objectives of localization in the first place, secondly, to plan the time limits within which this could take place; thirdly; to identify the levels, departments, nature of posts which could be targets of localization and finally to identify and train the understudies of the seconded or expatriate staff. With these aspects of the programme in mind, a country may set out to embark upon a vigorous but well-thought out plan to localize a civil service to the benefit of a country rather than the embarrassment thereof.

In spite of it demanding meticulous planning and political astuteness, the process of localization is a solution to some of the problems of unemployment and lack of promotion which normally cause frustration to those who have been properly educated and trained for certain jobs in the civil service. When training facilities are being stepped up, therefore, adequate arrangements should be made well in advance to recruit, place and develop the up and coming civil servants immediately after they had qualified.

As has been noted in the foregoing sections of this chapter, localization is not a mechanistic substitution of one race by another, but it is the transformation of the ethos of the whole civil service including the administrative processes, procedures and usages. For example, changes in the official languages used, the national anthem sung and procedures of protocol, which have been experienced in KwaZulu since self-government.

CHAPTER V

THE IDEA OF LOCALIZATION IN KWAZULU

Introduction

As a matter of policy applied by the central government in the national states, it is normal for White South Africans to be employed as seconded officials mainly in control of professional posts requiring specialised knowledge pending the availability of suitably qualified indigenous civil servants. Theoretically speaking, as soon as a qualified Black civil servant becomes available for a senior position, the post is localised and an indigenous official is appointed. If, however, a suitable Black person is not available, such a post would be "identified" for future occupation by a seconded official from the central government[1] (see table 7 page 114')

This policy is applicable to all the self-governing national states including KwaZulu. In this chapter the idea of localization in KwaZulu will be discussed from the point of view

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1   Interview with Mr I.N. Nkosi, Assistant Secretary (Administration), Department of Finance, KwaZulu. In addition, according to the National State Constitution Act of 1971 Section 5(4), the Minister of Development Aid and of Education and Training could allocate officials of the central government public service when and if no recruits from the national states are available. According to the KwaZulu Public Service Act of 1975 the Blacks shall administer their own affairs and shall as they become sufficiently advanced fill all the important decision-making posts in the civil service.

of the processes involved and the opportunities available for civil servants who aspire to assume greater responsibility in KwaZulu, for example, in-service education and training of civil servants with a view to promotion to higher ranks and views of a select group of civil servants on the problem of localization in KwaZulu.

TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF NUMBERS OF SECONDED STAFF IN ALL DEPARTMENTS IN KWAZULU AS AT JULY 1988 [1]

TITLE	NUMBER OF OFFICERS
Director	5
Deputy Director	6
Assistant Director	24
Senior Administrative Officer	11
Administrative Officer	5
Chief Administrative Officer	5
Senior Admministrative Officer	10
Administrative Clerk	9
Assistant Administrative Clerk	2
Typist	1
Personal Secretary	1
Architect	1
Quantity Surveyor	1
Control Works Inspector	6
Principal Works Inspector	7
Artisan A group	39
Artisan B group	19
Artisan C group	25

1   Information obtained from the Secretary of the Department of Chief Minister, KwaZulu, 11 October 1989.

TITLE	NUMBER OF OFFICERS
Artisan Superintendent	2
Artisan Foreman	7
Superintendent of Works	4
Stores Officer	1
Senior Storeman	1
Works Inspector	3
Senior Works Inspector	6
Chief Medical Technician	1
Senior Medical Technician	3
Medical Technologist	3
Chief Pharmacist	1
Principal Pharmacist	5
Senior Pharmacist	8
Pharmacist	24
Senior Dentist	4
Dentist	14
Senior State Accountant	4
Assistant State Accountant	1
Commissioner of Police	1
Lt. Colonel	4
Captain	3
Warrant Officer	5
Major	6
Sergeant	1
Lieutenant	2
Senior Magistrate	7
Magistrate	22
Chief Vet Surgeon	1
Veterinarian	4

The main reason why officials are seconded to KwaZulu is that there is a shortage of suitably qualified personnel. From the foregoing table it is clear that the top management represented by Directors, Deputy Directors and Assistant Directors which are seconded to the KwaZulu national state could take a considerable length of time to localize. Another large group needing localization albeit slowly, is that of Artisan A and C group which total 39 and 25 respectively. Seconded magistrates, pharmacists and dentists for example, are also difficult and costly to train and educate, therefore there are 7 senior magistrates, 22 seconded magistrates, 24 pharmacists and 14 dentists. Table 6 in Chapter 3 page 75 indicates the number of locals existing in the same categories in KwaZulu as follows: 3 senior magistrates, 70 magistrates, 1 pharmacist and 4 dentists.

If, however, there are aspirant Zulus, properly qualified and experienced to understudy the present incumbents of posts, localization might be effected in the long run.

Policy of localization

The policy of localization was announced by the Chief Minister in his remarks as follows:

> It is the policy of KwaZulu government
> to localize posts in the civil service.
> There is, however, an outcry that this
> is not happening fast enough, I appeal
> to you today to help us to implement
> this localization at a faster rate than
> is happening at present.(1)

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1   Buthelezi, M.G. <u>How we can become partners in the development of our people in our liberation struggle.</u> Ulundi. Speech 17/9/1977. p.12.

However, there are certain qualities that a person must posses in order to be eligible for promotion in KwaZulu. Besides possessing the necessary skills, knoweledge and ability in public administration, an incumbent must show the following qualities: loyalty, diligence, identification with the ordinary people, dedication to one's job and to one's people, incorruptibility.[1]

KwaZulu has developed a civil service which is divided into two groups: the (White) allocated or seconded officers paid by the central government (see annexure 1) and the indigenous officers of KwaZulu employed by the KwaZulu Government Service. In terms of the National States Citizenship Act No 26 of 1970.[2] White civil servants cannot acquire the citizenship of the national states. Their salaries and allowances are, therefore, paid by the central government at Pretoria as they are employees of the central government. It is understood and is procedural that when a suitable national official becomes available to take over from the allocated officer, the central government, in collaboration with the national state concerned, shall withdraw the services of a seconded staff.[3]

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1   Ibid, p. 15.

2   The word "homeland" was substituted by "national state" in all state publications and statutes as from 1978 hence National State Citizenship Act of 1970.

3   There are financial implications for KwaZulu if a post is being localized for example, a Black Secretary of a Department will have a salary of R80 000 per annum out of KwaZulu Treasury.

By as early as 1955 the central government had clearly spelt out the necessity of the Black administration to be gradually transferred to the Blacks themselves in their own areas. The following quotation from the Tomlinson Commission report illustrates the central government's plan:

> It should be the ultimate aim in the implementation of the policy to separate development of the races that as the Blacks become sufficiently advanced to manage their own administration of such affairs should be gradually transferred to them.(1)

Further to the recommendation of the Tomlinson report, the annual reports of the then Department of Co-operation and Development stated explicitly that this department visited all the national states each once a year "to confer with members of the cabinet government/public service commission and heads of departments on whether suitable Black officials could take over from the White officers allocated to posts on the establishment of the national states".[2]

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1   Tomlinson Commission, 61/1955, p. 67.

2   Republic of South Africa: Annual Report of the Department of Co-Operation and Development, p. 19, 1980. The local funds for the government service come from the KwaZulu Treasury, Ulundi, after having been allocated by the Minister of Finance of the Republic of South Africa during his budget speech.

The Application of the Policy of Localization in KwaZulu

The central government policy contained in Section 5 (4) of the National States Constitution Act of 1971 provides that the Minister of Development Aid may allocate officials of the Republican public service when and if no recruits from KwaZulu are available. The idea was that when a local successor had been identified and was in the process of being trained for new responsibilities, the allocated official and the understudy were supposed to occupy the same post in the establishment.[1] The process of localization was, therefore, going to be implemented in four phases:

a)   Localization of the posts of administration clerks as a whole in the government services.

b)   The appointment of understudies to allocated officials who should train understudies in all facets of their work.

c)   To complete replacement of allocated officers by KwaZulu officers who have been understudying allocated officers while the allocated officers became advisers.

d)   The withdrawal of seconded advisers leaving KwaZulu officers in charge.[2]

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1   National States Constitution Act 21, 1971, Section 5 (4).

2   These phases were supplied orally by Mr S.E. Armstrong, Secretary of the Department of Chief Minister, KwaZulu, Ulundi, 3/7/1988.

While it was relatively easy to localize clerical posts at the lowest echelons of the service over the years since 1971 referred to in phase (i), there are certain problems which prevented some of the phases to be implemented. Phase (ii) could not be implemented because KwaZulu could not financially afford the understudies who would occupy the same post in an establishment with an allocated official in order to understudy him in all facets of work assigned to him in that post.[1] Funds for this purpose could have been supplied either by the Development Bank of Southern Africa on a loan basis or from central government itself as a grant if it was available.[2] However, the annual estimates of the national states are normally severely cut when the central government finally allocates funds to them. It has, therefore, been difficult for implementors of the policy of localization in KwaZulu, to implement phases (b), (c) and (d). Since the standard of administration required by the public in the civil service is high, it is necessary that the education system, the in-service training provision, university training in KwaZulu be utilized to produce suitably qualified personnel for taking new supervisory positions in the higher echelons of the civil service.

Manpower Shortages in Mathematics and Science

For localization to succeed, an adequate number of high school graduates, technikon graduates, college and university graduates should enter the civil service of KwaZulu every year.

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1   Interview with Mr S. E. Armstrong, Secretary of the Department of Chief Minister, KwaZulu, Ulundi, 3/7/1988.

2   Ibid.

Although there is no overall manpower plan that relates the localization of the civil service to the probable output of the educational system yet, aimed at promoting the localization of the KwaZulu Public Service, there is a section in the Public Service Commission which is manned by ten officials, one chief training officer, one senior training officer and eight training officers whose function is to train civil servants in service for higher positions.[1]

However a dire shortage of skilled manpower in KwaZulu is caused by the inability of the KwaZulu school system to supply adequate technologically and scientifically trained manpower. Historically "Bantu Education" was actually designed to exclude Blacks from skilled manpower, as there would not be any need for them to use these skills in their own areas which are basically rural and traditional in nature.[2] Therefore, technical and science subjects were very rare in Black schools. Conseuqently, only a few Black schools currently offer those options or directions of study. Although the policy has changed very few schools offer technical and science subjects.[3]

In addition, some Black students have a problem with the medium of instruction which is either a second language (English) or third language (Afrikaans). This compounds their problem of coping with mathematics and science as subjects.

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1   There exists a manpower development division and a bursary section as well in the KwaZulu Public Service Commission to promote localization as a policy: Interview with the Public Service Commission Chairman, Mr C.W. Mncwango, Ulundi, KwaZulu, 11/10/1985.

2   Dreijmanis, J.: The role of the South African government in Tertiary Education. Johannesburg. SAIRR, 1988. p. 71

3   In Mehlwesizwe Circuit, only 1 school out of 85, offer secondary technical education.

According to Dreijmanis the sub-committee on technical and vocational education of the De Lange Commission concluded that children from a traditional background lack the type of exposure required by mathematics and science.[1] Further, a study by the HSRC of Africans' mathematical ability noted that the emphasis on the axiomatic deductive approach in the way that mathematics was taught as well as the content lead to parrot learning and the inability to apply what was taught.[2] However, the Work Commission of the Teachers of the Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Technical subjects of the De Lange Commission identified some other problems in the teaching of these subjects common to all the population groups. It noted that the syllabi were too theoretical, congested and rigid. It further noted the lack of adequate laboratories and shortages of highly qualified teachers who can teach these subjects in a stimulating manner.

According to Wallace and Adam, children from a low socio-economic background and underdeveloped rural backgrounds of subsistence farming often have a bigger gap between home and school. The need to consciously provide the mediation necessary to bridge the gap between their current cognitive development, cognitive skills and the conceptual framework necessary for a high level of functioning in a formal school environment, is great.[3]

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1   Ibid.

2   More information can be obtained from the De Lange report: Provision of Education in the Republic of South Africa, 1981. Report of the Main Committee of the Human Sciences Research Council Investigation into Education: Pretoria: HSRC.

3   Wallace, B. and Adams, H.B.: Assessment and development of the potential of high school pupils in the third world context of KwaZulu/Natal, p. 83. South African Journal of Higher Education Vol 3 (1), 1989. p. 83.

Another problem is that many government officials and educationists who need to effect changes in education have also "suffered" lack of socialization and education in mathematics and science and perhaps they would have opted for the science-related professions if they had been educated in the Sciences. They therefore, find it difficult to break the cycle sowewhere along the line.[1] In order for anyone to be trained as an architect or a medical technologist, a pharmacist, a dentist, a veterinarian or a doctor, it is at least necessary to do mathematics as a subject at a high school level.

The situation, however, is that very few high schools offer mathematics as a subject in KwaZulu, resulting in a large number of matriculants qualifying in the humanities rather than science and mathematics. Normally, the "scarce subjects" like mathematics and science are difficult to offer in schools because there are only a few teachers trained to teach them. If these subjects are offered as choice subjects, pupils opt for "softer" subjects like Biblical Studies and History resulting in the shortage of eligible candidates for selection in medical schools, technikons and science faculties or engineering faculties in universities.

Entrance into technikons, universities and colleges is often very difficult to achieve for Zulus, since the facilities are limited for such training and financial assistance is not readily available. For example, there is only one technikon for Blacks in Natal,[2] and one medical school in the province.[3]

Other tertiary institutions to which Zulus have access are the University of Zululand, Medunsa, Natal University, Durban-Westville. The university of Zululand is supposed to supply the

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1   Dreijmanis, op.cit, p. 72.

2   Mangosuthu Technikon, Umlazi, near Durban.

3   University of Natal

National State of KwaZulu and the private sector with all sorts
of experts - assuming the fact that it is the only university in
"Zululand" - the country north of Tugela river in Natal, but the
annual supply is far from being enough as these experts get
employment anywhere in the Republic after graduating. The
University of Durban-Westville which was originally established
for the Indian racial group also admits Zulu students. The
Medical University of South Africa and Natal University admit
students from KwaZulu who would like to qualify in medicine.
These also contribute to the training of medical personnel even
if they take a small number.

As a result of the fact that the University of Zululand can only
have an enrolment of about 3 000 students, it is unable to supply
adequate scientific experts and administrative controllers
necessary for the achievement of a high rate of localization.[1]
The part-time, non-residential universities such as Vista
University and the University of South Africa[2] also contribute
towards the development of manpower in KwaZulu by offering
correspondence degrees especially in the Human Sciences and the
Natural Sciences as well.

As far as the education and training of science teachers are
concerned, out of the nine colleges of education in KwaZulu, only
2 are training mathematics and science teachers for secondary
schools.[3] The shortage of people who are trained and educated in

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[1] The University of Zululand has the following faculties:
     Arts, Commerce and Administration, Education, Law, Science
     and Theology.

[2] This correspondence university has examination centres all
     over the world including KwaZulu.

[3] Eshowe and Esikhawini College of Education.

mathematics is, therefore, a vicious cycle in that the shortage of teachers reduces the chances of students taking mathematics and science as subjects in the high schools and that, in turn, causes the shortage of candidates for entrance to teacher education in these subjects either in the universities or colleges of education.

In-service Education and Training

Since further education and training are the only ways in which Blacks can gradually gain access to the higher echelons of the civil service, in-service training and education has been identified as an integral and an indispensable aspect of personnel management and administration. In order to facilitate training, provisions were made for an institution to undertake to provide accommodation, equipment and trainers. Since training could not be isolated in the government service, collaboration with an institution of higher learning[1] was sought and obtained and in-service training courses commenced in 1973.

Any government official in KwaZulu has to undergo continuous training until retirement. This is necessitated not only by knowledge explosion, but even by technological advancement, sophistication of life style in general and the demands of the policy of localization. Further, it has been proved beyond doubt that in any work situation, the gap between what an employee is potentially capable of producing after training and what he is producing at a given time will always be there[2]. In

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1   University of Zululand

2   Cochrane, C.B.: The Training of Black Public Servants in the KwaZulu Government Service. Unpublished M.P.A. Dissertation UP, p. 45, 1981.

addition it is common knowledge that each level of promotion poses new demands and imposes new stresses and strains on an incumbent so that it is absolutely necessary to be trained for such demands as an official advances in the hierarchy as a result of localization or normal advancement. Consideration has been given to aptitude, interest and aspirations of the trainees in KwaZulu. Emphasis have been placed on insight, human relations, organziation, productivity and general leadership of a worker in a work situation.[1] There are training sessions and evaluations of personnel for localization purposes and for general promotion purposes. Over and above any type of training programmes imposed upon officials, further education is a necessity for self-improvement. Theory and practice is correlated at all times during training to sharpen the leadership qualities of the young officials (Black) for the eventual take-over of the government service. The results have been effective and promising.

In an attempt to stimulate self-development, provision has been made by KwaZulu government service for full-time bursaries and part-time bursaries as well as for those who would like to improve their qualifications.[2] Not only does the KwaZulu

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1   Interview with Mr I.N.Nkosi, Assistant Secretary, Department of Finance, 4 May 1989. KwaZulu. Ulundi.

2   Public Servants registered full-time at the University of Zululand may get paid leave for the duration of their studies provided they pass their examinations. They attend only one semester per year.

government provide bursaries, it provides training opportunities for short in-service courses too. It renders assistance and subsistence during and en-route to education and training sessions (see table 8 and 13 obtained from the Public Service Commission).[1]

TABLE 8

NEW BURSARIES

		NUMBERS			COSTS		
COURSE		1988	1987	1986	1988	1987	1986
1.	Meidicine (MB., CHB)	42	26	15	R131 500	R105 500	R22 500
2.	B. Dentistry	1	-	2	3 500	-	3 500
3.	B. Cur	12	3	3	42 000	10 500	4 000
4.	Pre-Medicine	2	-	-	7 000	-	-
5.	BA (SW)	2	8	4	7 000	28 000	8 000
6.	National Dip (Eng)	2	-	-	5 500	-	-
7.	B.Comm	4	4	1	14 000	14 000	2 000
8.	B.Admin	2	-	-	7 000	-	-
	TOTAL	49	41	24	2 175 000	158 000	39 000

The bursary holders are obliged to work for the public service for the equal number of years that they have been financially assisted.

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[1] KwaZulu Government Service: Public Service Commission Annual Report, 1988 Ulundi: Mimeo, p. 15.

TABLE 9

STUDY LEAVE WITH FULL PAY (RELEASE FROM SERVICE)[1]

NEW BURSARIES

COURSE	NUMBER OF OFFICERS		
	1988	1987	1986
1. Masters degree in Community Health	1	-	-
2. National Diploma in Public Health	1	-	-
3. National Diploma in Nursing Education	2	4	5
4. National Diploma in Nursing Admin	2	2	-
5. Diploma in Public Administration	23	13	4
6. Diploma in Organisation and Method Study	6	-	-
7. Diploma in Public Finance and Auditing	5	14	6
TOTAL	40	33	15

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1   KwaZulu Government Service: Public Service Commission Annual
Report 1988, Ulundi, Mimeo p. 15.

TABLE 10

BURSARIES RENEWED[1]

	COURSE	1988	1987	1986	1988	1987	1986
1.	Medicine (MB., CHB)	51	65	52	R223 750	R242 500	R78 000
2.	B. Dentistry	6	5	1	21 000	17 500	1 500
3.	B. Cur	1	7	-	3 500	24 000	-
4.	Pre-Medicine	1	1	4	3 500	3 500	6 000
5.	Oral Hygiene	1	2	-	3 500	7 000	-
6.	B. Pharmacy	4	-	5	14 000	-	10 000
7.	BA (SW)	3	4	4	10 500	14 000	8 000
8.	B. Juris	2	1	-	10 500	3 500	2 000
9.	B. Occup. Therapy	2	2	1	7 000	3 500	-
10.	B. Radiographer	1	2	-	3 500	7 000	-
11.	B.Sc Dietectics	1	2	1	3 500	7 000	1 500
12.	UNISA	3	-	4	1 540	-	860
	TOTAL	76	91	72	305 790	329 500	107 860

1   KwaZulu Government Service: Public Service Commission Annual Report. 1988, Ulundi, Mimeo. p. 16.

TABLE 11

BURSARIES RENEWED [1]

COURSE	NUMBER OF OFFICERS		
	1988	1987	1986
1. Diploma in Public Finance & Auditing	15	6	-
2. Diploma in Local Govt and Admin	10	2	2
3. Diploma in Co-op Management	1	-	-
4. Diploma Juris	16	9	9
5. Pupil Nature Conservator	16	-	-
6. B.Sc Civil Engineering	7	-	-
7. National Diploma in Civil Engineering	2	-	-
8. National Diploma in Survey	15	4	4
9. National Diploma in Architecture	6	-	-
10. National Diploma in Town & Regional Planning	4	-	-
11. B.Sc Home Economics	1	1	2
12. B. Agriculture	2	3	3
TOTAL	95	25	20

The duty of administering the civil service bursary scheme is the Manpower Planning and Development divisions of the Public Service Commission.

The Manpower Planning and Development divisions are housed in the office of the Public Service Commission, which is in turn housed in the Department of the Chief Minister.[2] Other sections of the Public Service Commission are Personnel, Publicity, Auxiliary services and Efficiency services. The Manpower division is headed by the Chief Manpower Development Officer who is directly

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1   KwaZulu: Public Service Commission Annual Report, 1988, p.16

2   Interview with, Chairman: Public Service Commission, 11 October 1985. Ulundi.

responsible to the Secretary of the Public Service Commission. The division has training (Manpower Development) and bursary sections. The training sub-division is headed by a Chief Training Officer whose function is to lecture at seminars, symposia, courses, or to organize speakers, lecturers and determine training needs for the whole KwaZulu government service. The bursary section is headed by an administration clerk whose function is to handle all matters pertaining to bursaries including consideration of application needs, progress of bursary holders, liaison with educational institutions concerned and recipients of bursaries.[1]

The KwaZulu Public Service Commission is basically responsible for the appointments, education, promotion and discipline of civil servants. The responsibility of staff development is shared by the various departments which can also train their workers for specific jobs. It can be noted, however, that the KwaZulu government service departments do not have training divisions in them,[2] although some training courses are run from time to time.[3]

There was, however, a training Liaison Committee for the purpose of liaising between the Institute for Public Service and

1   Cochrane, C.B.: Ibid. p. 45

2   Public Service Commission Chairman, Ulundi, KwaZulu, 11/10/85.

3   A course was held for circuit office clerks at Esikhawini College on 6/9/89.

Vocational Training and the KwaZulu Government Service.[1] It consisted of the following members:

a) Director of Institute for Public and Vocational Training, University of Zululand.

b) Dean, Faculty of Commerce and Administration, University of Zululand.

c) Deputy Secretary, (Professional) Department of Education and Culture, KwaZulu.

d) Secretary Public Service Comission, KwaZulu.[2]

Training assistance is also continually being received by KwaZulu from the central government departments of Development Aid and that of Education and Training.[3]

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1 This institute is now being phased out in the University of Zululand with effect from 1990. It will be replaced by Mangosuthu Technikon.

2 Cochrane, C.B. Ibid. p. 46.

3 Annual in-service course for all Black Rectors of Coleges of Education in Pretoria from national states and from the Republic of South Africa as well.

TABLE 12

COURSES PRESENTED BY THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT AID: 1988[1]

COURSE	NUMBER OF OFFICERS ATTENDED
1. Stores Admin	17
2. Secretarial	5
3. Typists Phase I	13
4. Typists Phase II	10
5. Written Communication	97
6. Registry	86
7. Switchboard Operators	9
8. Instructors	22
9. Training Officers	1
TOTAL	360

The process of decolonization of Africa almost invariably led to the establishment of an Institute for Public Administration in each independent country, either separately or attached to a university in order to cater for the training and education of the nationals with a view to localization. In the case of KwaZulu, the only institute which could be utilized for the training and education of its public servants, was the Institute for Public Service and Vocational Training of the University of Zululand. Its aim was to provide training for employees of both the public and the private sector in order to improve their efficiency through formal and functional training. Although originally its function was to train public servants, this institute expanded its functions to include the private sector.

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1   KwaZulu Public Service Commission Annual Report, 1988, Ulundi, p. 16.

The three main functions of the institute were teaching, research and consultation by the public or the government. The following diplomas were offered:[1] Law, Local Government and Administration, Co-operative Management. Provision for research was, however, not made, therefore a very limited amount of research was being done by staff; thus making the institute essentially a teaching institute.[2] Conferences, workshops and seminars were arranged by the institute from time to time. It further published papers, annual reports and a journal which served as a reading material for KwaZulu public servants. Since the institute was attached to a university, it was necessary for it to step up its research function in keeping with the functions and aims of a university rather than operating within the narrow confines of teaching.

The organizational locus of the institute was within the setting and tradition of a university. Residences were, however, outside the campus. The attachment of the institute to the university was advantageous to those who were directing it because the university is endowed with freedom of speech, academic freedom and is administratively and financially autonomous.[3] As an integral part of the university, the institute was removed from the KwaZulu official control and therefore enjoyed the ability to determine, plan and execute its training programmes independently.[4]

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1   University of Zululand Calendar, 1989 p. 68.

2   Cochrane, C.B.: Ibid. p. 46.

3   Ibid.

4   Although the KwaZulu Government Service was the only national state represented in the management structure, the institute as well as the university served all national states equally.

The internal organization of the institute was such that it was recognized as the seventh faculty of the University of Zululand.[1] Its administrative structures consisted of the Council of Rectors which was made up of the entire teaching staff of the institute. In addition, there was a Board of the Institute which was a Board of the Institute which consisted of the Director, head of Departments[2] and some other persons who could be appointed by the Senate of the University of Zululand.

The main office-bearer in the institute was the Director.[3] He was responsible for a vision and direction of the institute. The appointment of this prestigious and high ranking officer rested with the University Council. If the university could not appoint a senior professor from among its staff, a civil servant from the central government could be seconded as a director. Any staff member of the institute could be seconded from the public service.[4]

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1   University of Zululand Calendar, 1989, p. 86.

2   Departments of Law, Organization and Method Studies, Public Administration, Finance and Auditing, Local Government and Administration, Advanced Public Administration.

3   The first Director was Prof J.C.Bekker, BA, LL.B, LL.D. (SA)

4   The function of the institute have been transferred to Mangosuthu Technikon, Umlazi with effect from 01 January 1990.

As soon as a civil servant acquires a diploma,[1] he is entitled to recognition by way of promotion or appointment in a post where he will utilize his knowledge adequately. The programme of localization is enhanced if as a result of university training and education, a local civil servant is empowered to contest for a localised promotion post. In 1988, 25 bursary holder civil servants completed their qualifications while they were in the employ of the KwaZulu Government Service in various departments.[2]

TABLE 13

CIVIL SERVANTS WHO QUALIFIED IN 1988[3]

DEGREES	NUMBER
B. Comm	2
B. Admin	1
B.Sc Dietics	1
B.Cur	1
B. Occupational Therapy	1
B. Pharmacy	2
TOTAL	8

1   Diploma in Public Administration; Diploma in Public Finance and Auditing; Diploma in Organization and Method Study; Diploma Juris; Diploma in Local Government and Administration; Diploma in Co-op Management.

2   KwaZulu Government Services: Public Service Commission Annual Report, 1988, Ulundi: Mimeo p. 15.

3   Ibid

TABLE 13 (Continued)

DIPLOMAS	NUMBER
Diploma in Law	12
Diploma in Public Admin	4
Diploma in Public Admin Finance & Auduting	1
TOTAL	17

It can be assumed that with the necessary experience and leadership qualities, the civil servants referred to above will lead various sections of the civil service in future.

In view of the fact that access to promotion posts can also be through gradual advancement within the system of the civil service. Black officials are normally eligible to promotion or to take over where and when they become suitable.

Progress with Localization from 1971-1982

Between the 1971/2 and the 1981/2 financial year, the progress made in the implementation of the localization policy was as follows:

TABLE 14

CIVIL SERVANTS IN KWAZULU : 1971-1982[1]

YEAR	NUMBER OF PERMANENT POSTS IN KWAZULU	NUMBER OF KWAZULU CITIZENS OCCUPYING POSTS	NUMBER OF SECONDED OFFICALS	PERCENTAGE
1971/2	2 377	2 121	256	10,7
1972/3	2 377	2 121	234	10,7
1973/4	1 913	1 679	234	12,2
1974/5	2 962	2 588	374	12,6
1975/6	4 640	4 181	459	9,3
1977/8	5 751	5 391	353	6,1
1978/89	10 692	10 349	343	3,2
1980/1	12 456	12 018	438	3,5
1981/2	19 004	18 656	348	1,8

(Adapted from Annual Reports of the Department of Co-operation and Development, Pretoria, Government Printer, 1971 - 1982-3).

From 1971/2, when the KwaZulu Territorial Authority became a Legislative assembly,[1] the allocated personnel decreased by an average of 1,5 percent up to 1981/2. The biggest percentage of

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1   The change of nomenclature used is not insignificant in terms of power and authority. The Legislative Assembly can create more departments than the Territorial Authority and can legislate on issues like the economy and health of the national state whereas the Territorial Authority is confined to, Education, Culture, Justice, Community Affairs, Authority Affairs and reports.

a decreased was that of 6,1 percent in 1977/8, notwithstanding the fact that in 1975/6 they increased numerically. This numerical increase can be ascribed to the creation of the Health Department in 1977 in which many doctors and other technicians were employed. The lowest percentage in the decrease of allocated officers in the KwaZulu government service was experienced in the 1976/7 year, when it was only 0,4 percent. This can be ascribed to the lack of deliberate promotion of localization on the side of policy-implementors and policy-makers as well who might not have been committed to the policy at that time.

In the years 1973/4 and 1980/1 respectively, the process of localization experienced a retrogression rather than a development. The allocated personnel increased from the percentage of 12,2 percent to that of 12,4 percent and that of 3,2 percent to that of 3,5 respectively, an increase of 0,4 and of 0,3 percent respectively.

However, in the 1981/2 years, the process of localization took off again and the percentage of the allocated personnel decreased from 3,5 to 1,8 - indicating a development of the process of localization.

In 1982/3 there is no significant development that took place as the percentage of seconded officers remained at 1,8.

According to the records for example of the financial year of 1975/6[1] of 91 appointments in the Department of Authority Affairs[2] in 1974, 70 were held by Blacks, all at the level of senior clerk or below.

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1   Butler, J. et.al.: The Black Homeland of South Africa, p. 44.

2   After the reaching of self-government by Legislative Assembly of KwaZulu government this department was named Department of Chief Minister and Finance.

Of 704 posts in the Department of Community Affairs, 657 were Black positions. All of the senior officials were White. Likewise, in the Department of Works, 982 out of 1 075 posts were Black. All senior administrative and technical positions were White. For example, 58 out of 110 work formen were White and that position had not changed for a year previously.[1]

In the Department of Education and Culture, 816 posts existed. In this department the opposite of what existed in the departments mentioned in the foregoing paragraph was obtaining in that 805 were occupied by Blacks. What is significant however, is that the 6 officers who were seconded by the central government held decision-making (senior) positions.

The Department of Agriculture and Forestry employed 3 266 officials of whom 3 116 were Blacks, but White seconded officials dominated the few available senior professional posts like in the Department of Education and Culture. For example, out of 29 agricultural officers, 23 were White. Even in the previous years, the position was the same.

In the Department of Justice, the same pattern as described above persisted: senior administrators, chief magistrates, principal magistrates and senior magistrates were all seconded officials. Of the 24 magistrates in KwaZulu, 18 were White, a position which has existed the previous year. Progress has been recently experienced when the post of the Deputy Secretary of Justice was localised and an experienced Zulu magistrate was appointed.[2]

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1   There were 933 posts in this department in 1988 of which 35 were seconded staff. Refer to KwaZulu Department of Justice Policy Speech, p. 4, Ulundi, 1988.

2   Ntshangase, D.S.V: Principal Magistrate.

Professional posts like those of vets, surveyors, doctors, technicians, engineers, magistrates, directors, technicians, engineers, magistrates, directors of departments like those of health education, and justice are difficult to localize as indigenous people have to undergo lengthy training periods to be eligible for appointment in these positions. The statistics regarding seconded officials occupying these posts keep on being repeated year in and year out causing a plateau in the process of localization.

The shortage of suitable Zulu candidates for promotion posts, technical posts and professional posts like those of medical practitioners, is as a result of lack of access to a properly diversified curriculum at school level, inability to afford fees in tertiary institutions, and lack of access to training and educational facilities and lack of motivation on the part of some permanent staff to study further.

The implications are that a concerted effort to motivate possible candidate for civil service to opt for relevant subjects, for example, those who are interested in Accounting should matriculate in Accounting. In addition a co-ordinated manpower planning and in-service education and training programme or plan should be put up by the KwaZulu Public Service Commission and approved by the Cabinet and be disseminated to all departments in the territory, so that recruitment, selection, placement and promotion in the civil service should take place effectively and in an orderly way with a view to providing for the gradual localization process throughout the territory. Localization, however, does not only depend upon the education and training of nationals, socio-economic problems like the migration of trained personnel to cities and promotion prospects are also important factors.

Problems of Migration of Population to Towns or Cities

As a result of the migration of the population from rural areas to urban areas, there is a shortage of skilled manpower in KwaZulu. The cities outside KwaZulu where there are tarred roads, electricity, schools, colleges, technikons, universities, large shopping centres, communications network, community centres, rapid development and opportunities in general still attract a large percentage of KwaZulu professionally qualified citizens. The underdeveloped and rural nature of KwaZulu, therefore militates against the policy of localization.

Moreover, highly trained manpower are trained in universities or technikons which are, necessarily almost invariably, found in cities and big towns or growth points making it inadvertently difficult for KwaZulu to localize positions in the civil service. It becomes difficult for diplomates and graduates of institutions of higher education to accept posts in rural areas as these areas are unattractive and without basic facilities of health, education and communication network.

Butler, et.al contends that South Africa has a reputation of having produced a larger reservoir of trained manpower than that of any of the recently independent African countries for work [1] However, KwaZulu though still constituting part of South Africa, cannot compete with industry and commerce in the Republic where salaries are necessarily higher than those of the civil service. This lack of attraction of employees in KwaZulu causes the distribution of trained manpower to be unequal between cities of South Africa and KwaZulu. It is therefore difficult for the

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[1]   Butler,   e t.al.:   The Black Homelands of South Africa. Berkeley: UCLA, 1977, p. 47.

implementors of localization to get suitable candidates for important localized positions as the private sector offers greater benefits than a career in the civil service. It would seem that the government has to be satisfied more often than not, with mediocrity and make the best out of the human resources available. A civil servant may be promoted on merit into a localized position. Promotions and merit assessment of civil servants therefore play an important role in the process of localization.

Promotability of Civil Servants

Although the civil service is not necessarily attractive to a fresh matriculant or school leaver, those who enter the civil service can slowly but surely progress up the ladder of the civil service through promotion, provided they are meritorious on evaluation.

For anyone to be promoted in the civil service, he should be evaluated by his supervisor and his controller, assessed by a regional merit assessment committee and later by a central merit committee. The Public Service Commission in KwaZulu has a final decision on such promotions. The stages of merit assessment can be summarized as follows:

STAGES OF MERIT ASSESSMENT

KwaZulu Public Service Commission
∧

Secretary of a Department
∧

Central Merit Assessment Committee
∧

Regional Merit Assessment Committee
∧

Controller
∧
|
|
|
Supervisor
∧
|
|
|
Worker

If a worker is found promotable, the Public Service Commission promotes that person to a higher rank.   Personnel evaluation is a continuous process of sustained observation of the worker in respect of whom the evaluation must be made to discover his potentialities,   abilities,   inabilities,   preferences   and weaknesses.

While the system of personnel evaluation referred to in the above sketch is beneficial to the employees, it is also beneficial to the Departments concerned and to the policy-makers because:

a)   it determines whether or not the employee is efficient in his work; and therefore suitable for advancement;

b)   it reveals whether the worker is correctly placed and therefore properly utilized;

c)   it determines the training needs of the worker;

d)   it reveals problems of the employees both at a supervisory level and a sub-ordinate level.

e)   it enables the employer to identify talent and personnel who are no longer gainfully employed.[1]

Qualities of Evaluation

Currently, the system of evaluation of personnel is due according to the following qualities:

a)   responsibility   (Annex Zb 27 (a))
b)   insight   (Annex Zb 27 (b))
c)   human relations   (Annex Zb 27 (c))
d)   organziation   (Annex Zb 27 (d))
e)   productivity[2]   (Annex Zb 27 (e))

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1   Republic of South Africa: Department of Development Aid: Course in Personnel Evaluation, Mimeo, 1985 Module 2, p. 8-9

2   Ibid p. 24-30.

Application of the System of Personnel Evaluation in KwaZulu for Promotion Purposes

The most important document emanating from the above-mentioned system is a supervisor's report written by a supervisor on an employee or worker. However, a supervisor cannot write any report without a worker having written his achievements on a quarterly workers report form (see annexure Zb 49 (f)).

The supervisor's quarterly report is a means by which the worker's achievements are gauged, supplemented, evaluated and clarified accordingly. It reflects on the ability of the supervisor, too, to train, develop and utilise subordinates effectively[1] (see annexure Zb 27).

After a staff report has been dealt with by a controller, he forwards it to the regional merit committee constituted by the department from knowledgeable officials, keenly interested and competent officials not exceeding two in number, one of whom should be a leader. The regional merit committee visits branch offices or stations where candidates for merit assessment have been identified, to inspect work and evaluate it. Before a visit takes place, a candidate is informed in good time, all his reports are studied thoroughly by the regional merit committee. In case the committee disagree with the controller, full reasons should be furnished,[2] and discussions should be held with him, after which a report needs to be drawn up for presentation to the central merit committee.

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1   Ibid. p. 31

2   Ibid. p. 45

The central merit committee is supposed to moderate and assess findings of the previous structures of assessment on the strength of the evidence submitted so that justice is done. This committee submits its findings to the Secretary of a Department.

It is assumed that the Secretary will not differ from the central merit committee assessment. In case he differs he should submit a detailed argument on which he bases his opinion about the worker in order to guide the Public Service Commission. The last stage of assessment is by the Public Service Commission[1] which carefully considers the findings of the central merit committees and settles whatever differences that may exist between the Secretaries (Heads) of Departments and the central merit committees and finally decides on a promotion or demotion.

Problems Encountered in the Personnel Evaluation System

Since personnel management has its own universal problems as a vocation, personnel evaluation as part of it has similar problems connected with the human factor in management. Some of the problems not necessarily peculiar to KwaZulu are experienced by supervisors, and some by workers. The following may be mentioned.[2]

The Time Factor

A supervisor may regard the writing of a report as an additional burden preventing him from doing other urgent duties. He finds himself, therefore, having to set aside time which in his opinion

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1. *Ibid.* p. 55.

2 Interview with Administration Clerks, P.M. Nkosi and A.S. Nkabinde stationed at Esikhawini College of Education.

is for doing somebody a favour for example, writing a report on a colleague or a subordinate for his benefit. This leads to an indefinite postponement of the writing of a report.

Lack of Evidence

Sometimes workers and supervisors equally make excuses that they have no evidence of achievements in a work situation about which they can comment in a report except ordinary routine.

Fear to Jeopardise the Career of a Worker

A supervisor may be inclined to avoid reporting negatively on a worker preferring not to write a report at all. Conversely some supervisors tend to report only on favourite incidents about the worker, thus creating a wrong impression about the worker. Such reports have no value at all.

Uncertainty as to the Basic Principle of Reporting[1]

Some supervisors may be uncertain about the way in which they should go about reporting on a worker either through lack of understanding of the basic principles involved in determining norms of evaluation or complete ignorance of the part of the supervisor as to the elements of evaluation.[2] These problems create apathy on the part of a supervisor.

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1 Quality of work produced by a worker, conduct (behaviour) of worker in work situation.

2 Responsibility, productivity, organization, insight.

Factors Influencing the Supervisor's Judgement [1]

A supervisor, like all human beings, might have established preferences and prejudices in respect of politics, religion and culture. His subordinates may differ from him sharply on these issues. A supervisor may have difficulty in controlling his own prejudices about workers based on the topics mentioned above. An extreme situation may occur when a supervisor judges' his subordinate from preconceived ideas which are not based on facts, causing himself to make his assessment according to the opinion he has erroneously formed.

Attitude of a Supervisor

A supervisor may have a completely negative attitude towards a worker. This mental disposition towards a person who is being assessed is negative. The adjudicator will be inclined to notice only bad things in a worker. The opposite may also be true if a supervisor is looking for only good things in a worker. Faults may be overlooked. The only manner in which these problems can be avoided is complete objectivity.

Insufficient Information of Facts

It can happen that assessment is done on insufficient information or facts. In such cases a worker is assessed higher than he deserves resulting in disastrous choices at a higher level of employment.

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1   Republic of South Africa: Department of Development Aid: <u>Course in Personnel Evaluation</u>. Mimeo: 1985 p. 32.

Unaquaintance with the Worker

A worker who is assessed by a strange supervisor (as a result of transfer) is likely to be assessed lower than he would have been assessed by a previous supervisor who knew him.   Such assessment becomes unfair and distorted where a supervisor merely rates the worker as   mediocre in respect of all qualities.   Where the assessor clearly allocates a mark above average the worker might have   been capable of providing strong evidence   for   his achievements - which is also likely.

Problems of Localization Militating Against Promotions and In-service Education of Blacks.

The most important problems militating against the promotion of localization in KwaZulu are those relating to the exercise of power and authority, standards, efficiency and the attitude or news of the civil servants themselves.

Exercise of power and authority

According to Butler, et.al, it is arguable, though difficult to prove, that more Africans are capable of assuming responsibility in the national states than are currently permitted to do so. One of the reasons for not readily permitting Africans to assume these responsibilities is that historically speaking, it was unknown to place Africans in positions of authority over Whites in the national states, and White South Africa. When that happens in the same country, it is a step forward in normalising race relations.   Exceptions have gradually begun to happen in   the sphere of KwaZulu education where the Secretary of Education and Culture and all chief inspectors are Zulus.   Another reason for lack of Black advancement is that, there seems to be an absence of adequate on-the-job-training for Blacks and only limited adoption of schedules or procedures for replacing seconded

officials by Blacks.   Butler goes on to say that this
reluctance may be due, in part, to the unwillingness of officials
to devolve power to persons whose ideas, methods and goals
differ.[1]   He further argues that the colonization of services by
Whites has been the guiding principle.[2]

It has been argued, according to Butler et.al, by armchair
critics, not totally without accuracy, that the "grooming" period
of Blacks for certain positions in the national states is
necessarily equal to the length of time left before the Whites
occupying them retire.[3]

The above mentioned counter-arguments against the policy of
localization are a pointer to the fact that some researchers and
observers think that the policy of localization is futile and is
not worth adopting because it seems to be unattainable.
However, this policy can still be pursued in KwaZulu as there are
prospects for development of local expertise.

The most important inadequacy preventing the Blacks from assuming
decision-making positions in the technical field is the lack of
technical educational facilities in KwaZulu.   The position
resembles that of Zambia where the colonial powers withheld
secondary education deliberately until the 1940's and the
locally-based higher education as well which meant that the
emergence of a nationalist leadership was retarded and that

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1   Butler, et.al, op.cit., p. 48.

2.   Ibid. p. 48.

3.   Ibid, p. 48.

Zambia had to enter independence with only a small pool of educated manpower.[1] "Whereas less than 20 African officers had occupied posts in divisions I and II in 1956 there were some 450 Zambians in these divisions by 1966 and over 14 500 by the beginning of 1976".[2] KwaZulu therefore, does not possess a strong base of technical manpower and has difficulty in obtaining local expertise in the technical field.

The Problems of Standards and Efficiency

The problem of standards and efficiency in public administration in less developed countries and the speed with which localization can be achieved have always been subject of interest. The KwaZulu Public Service Commission are aware that anyone who has been promoted to a higher post necessarily has to be trained for new responsibilities and has to have a period in which he is "finding his feet", hence the manpower development division. During this period "settling some inefficiency is always experienced, and is normal".[3] If, therefore, many civil servants would find themselves in new positions of decision-making simultaneously across the territory, every year, productivity would suffer.

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1   Tordoff, W. Government and Politics in Africa; London; Macmillan 1984; p. 133.

2   Tordoff, W. Administration in Zambia. London; MacMillan; 1984 p. 77.

3   Alleged inefficiency and corruption experienced in some emergent nations have led to coups. The Transkei experienced a coup in 1988, as a result of corruption and inefficiency.

The problem of the decline of standards during localization, is related to the equally serious problem of the decline of the quality of supervision which ultimately leads to the decline of efficiency. Experience has shown elsewhere in African self-governing territories, that people who have been observing strict rules and code of conduct dictated by the master-and-servant relationships and legal regulations within the framework of apartheid might view localization as a liberation from "bondage" and therefore a relaxation of universal rules governing productivity, man-hours and the strict principle of equal pay for equal work. The excessive use of familiarity, kinship, ethnic relation, tribal relation, past friendships in a work situation might lower the quality of supervision during the earlier phases of localization. The situation may be serious in the case where a young, but suitable, Zulu after being promoted to a higher position, fears or becomes reluctant, out of modesty, to use his authority and the long-serving subordinates in turn, become reluctant to take orders from him.[1]

Another problem of localization in KwaZulu is the deliberate "control" of the process of localization by seconded officials[2]. Sometimes seconded officials want to retire in KwaZulu rather than be withdrawn. In such cases the Public Service Commission merely obliges. The opposite can, however, happen when a seconded official leaves of his own accord sooner than is necessary or desirable from the point of view of KwaZulu.

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1   Interview with Mr I.N. Nkosi, Assistant Secretary (Administration), Department of Finance, Ulundi, KwaZulu 4/5/89.

2   Sometimes they say there are no Blacks to take over from them. This may not necessarily be true. Source: Secretary of the Public Service Commission, KwaZulu, Ulundi, Interview 22/5/89.

It becomes extremely difficult to replace these officials with locals as locals are often not ready to take over. This situation, therefore, militates against the policy of localization as such posts need to be identified for occupation by seconded officials.

The problem of corruption and nepotism both in the first world and the third world are frequently found.[1] However, where people have gained positions of power and influence after a continued period of subjugation, the tendency is to pose as legally immune and, as a result of general inefficiency of the legal systems, such people may get away with it. The general system of internal control becomes inefficient and powerless, favouring as it normally does, the powerful and the strong. An official who is guilty of corruption cannot discipline his subordinates who are practising corruption. As a result of this, the whole system can therefore, crumble completely and may, under normal circumstances require drastic steps and overhaulage.

In a national state like KwaZulu, to be employed by the state is to occupy a privileged position economically and socially as well. Pressures are serious upon civil servants who do nothing to help their people who may need all kinds of help including old age pensions, positions or employment opportunities.[2]

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1   Compare the Department of Education and Training computer sale scandal in Pretoria with the land sale scandal, Ministry of Lands in he RSA in 1987.

2   Interview with Public Service Commission Secretary, Mr B.S. Zondi, KwaZulu, 23/5/89.

To some KwaZulu officials clan pressures, and cultural bonds are so strong that a transfer may be refused even if it means promotion, if it also means relocation, uprooting or removal from a place of birth or a comfortable geographical area. In the face of a push, they would rather resign than accept relocation in the interest of public service. Thus a lengthy period of service may be forfeited and as a result localization suffers.[1]

In the less developed countries like KwaZulu the tradition of loyalty to the public service has not developed to the same extent as is the case in the public service of technologically advanced countries. Customs, rather than the dictates of the Western model of bureaucracy and the Westminister system of government in the civil service may be of paramount importance resulting often in a "soft state".[2]

Having enumerated these problems referred to in the previous pages, it is gratifying to know that the national state of KwaZulu is experiencing advancement in terms of educational

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1   Cochrane, C. op.cit, p. 35.

2.   Use of corruption to secure objectives other than those officially stated as described in Hyden, G. No short cuts to development. London: MacMillan, 1984.

opportunities[1] and curriculm development at school level. An advantage should be taken of these developments[2] to plan a guidance system which ensures a steady supply of properly oriented high school candidates for training at technikon or university level for the scarce vocation and advanced management both in the public sector and the private sector as well. Access to these universities and technikons by employees of the government as part time students is ideal. In the long run sufficient manpower may finally exist.

Views of KwaZulu Civil Servants About Localization as a Policy

A questionnaire was prepared for administration among 117 top management civil servants, middle management and junior civil servants in KwaZulu in all departments randomly selected. The purpose of this exercise was to determine whether localization was being carried out and if so, the extent to which it was being applied as a policy, the attitude of civil servants towards this policy. The age group, numbers and percentages of the respondents were as follows:

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1   Private sector involvement like Shell, Anglovaal, Richards Bay Minerals, Urban Foundation, Mobil Foundation, English Language Trust, Teacher Opportunity Programmes, Protec.

2   The KwaZulu Educational Enhancement Programmes in collaboration with the University of Natal encourage Comprehensive schools with technical high school education.

TABLE 15

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

AGE GROUP	NUMBER	PERCENT
31 - 34	32	27
40 - 49	47	40
50 - 59	22	19
60 - 65	16	14
TOTAL	117	100

I view age as an important variable in determining one's aspirations, expectations and attitude towards conditions of service and future prospects in a work situation. People between the ages of 31 and 49 have ample chances of progressing within the civil service and end up in charge of the various departments in which they serve. In this research such persons account for 67 percent of the respondents as indicated above.

As far as the education of the respondents is concerned the position is as follows:

TABLE 16

QUALIFICATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

Qualification	Number	Percent
Below Standard 10	-	-
Standard 10	41	39
Technical/college	15	14
University	32	31
Post-graduate	16	15
TOTAL	105	100

Education.in my view is also an important variable in determining one's aspiration, ambition, future prospects, mobility, attitude towards government, and advancement, of the government performance. The more educated the more ambitious and the more likely to compete for higher posts in the civil service than the less qualified. Such degreed personnel account for 46 percent of the respondents in the above table. This number is reasonable considering the fact that entry qualification in the civil service is standard 10 or senior certificate.

Since in-service training and education is an important means, in my view, by which employees can sharpen their skills and therefore became eligible for promotion, it was necessary to find out whether or not they had received in-service education and training.

As far as the sex of the respondents is concerned only 1 percent of respondents were females.

TABLE 17

DESIRE FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Responses	Number	Percentage
Positive	98	93
None	15	7
TOTAL	113	100

The majority has received in-service training. It was necessary
to find out whether or not the in-service education was relevant
or not the following transpired.

TABLE 18

RELEVANCE OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Some respondents did not answer this question - hence 91
responses. A bigger means a bigger response.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Relevant	83	96
Not relevant	8	4
TOTAL	91	100

The majority (96 percent) felt that in-service training was
relevant.   On the question of the civil servants having received
in-service training in jobs other than they were occupying, 29

percent were positive and had therefore a potential of doing other jobs since they had received training over and above the jobs they were currently engaged in. A large percentage (44 percent) however, had no other training except for what they were doing at the time of research. This is a negative development in as far as prospects for localization are concerned, because a high promotion post often demands knowledge of a variety of skills and a wide "hands-on" experience as well.

TABLE 19

OTHER TRAINING

Responses	Number	Percent
Positive	42	28
Negative	65	44
Relevant	36	42
Not very relevant	3	2
Of little use	2	1
TOTAL	148	100

According to the survey, 83 percent of the respondents had a need for additional training for their jobs, indicating that in KwaZulu there is a shortage of in-service education in the civil service and therefore a lower degree of readiness to take over positions of influence in the departments.

Table I9 (Continued)

Responses		Number	Percent
Positive		71	83
Negative		15	17
	TOTAL	86	100

Civil servants are sometimes not prepared to move from one department to another. This is a negative prospect for the policy of localization. Fifty one percent of the respondents had not served in more than one department. Forty one percent, however, had done so.

However, fifty six percent of the respondents have an attitude that frequent changes of work from one department to another is stimulating. Twenty nine percent has a conservative idea that it was unsettling. It augurs well for localization if most civil servants are prepared to move from one department to another.[1]

The important factor of the knowledge of the public by the civil servants was also probed into; as it is imperative that civil servants assuming influential positions in the service be knowledgeable about the public. Forty four percent of the respondents had very little knowledge. Forty three percent had some knowledge. The prospects for localization were not good in this aspect.

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1   Cele, J.B. Deputy Secretary (Personnel), Department of Education and Culture was an Assistant Secretary in the Public Service Commission for many years until 1 July 1989 when he was transferred to the Education department.

As far as the progress rate of localization is concerned, forty five percent of the respondents think that the process of localization progresses fairly satisfactorily. Forty percent think that the position is opposite.

Only fifteen percent of the respondents think that it progresses very satisfactorily. This research has confirmed, that the progress is unsatisfactory. The main reasons advanced by respondents for lack of progress in the process of localization in KwaZulu are:

a) Too little facilities for training (25 percent respondents advance this reason).

b) Lack of opportunities for seniors to train junior staff adequately (22 percent respondents advance this reason).

c) Lack of understanding of the policy (20 percent of the respondents advance this reason).

Other reasons are (i) too low educational output at the secondary school (high school) level, and (ii) lack of government funds to speed up the policy. In order for localization to be effected reasonably well, the civil servants should view the civil service as a career. Fifty percent of the respondents regarded the civil service as a satisfactory career and might therefore stay on until retirement - a positive prospect of localization. However, fifty four percent of the respondents consider the civil service as not offering enough scope or opportunities for promotion. This attitude is negative towards localization. Civil servants may leave the service if they strongly believe that there are no prospects for promotion. This response correlates well with the response frequencies on the question of

the reasons for localization as perceived by the civil servants: forty one percent thought that localization increased employment opportunities for Blacks. Thirty three percent thought that it was motivated by the need to satisfy the aspirations and ambitions of Black people. Eleven percent thought that localization should be promoted as to demonstrate political control.

Conclusion

In this chapter it has been stated that the Tomlinson Comission had recommended as early as in 1955 that the administration of Black affairs should be gradually transferred to the Blacks themselves - hence the policy of localization. In as far as the application of this policy is concerned, there are serious constraints militating against it.

For example, there are too little facilities for training. There is a lack of opportunities for senior officials to train junior officials in service. There is also a lack of sympathy and understanding for the policy of localization by senior officials of departments. The education system is biased towards the liberal arts as against technical and mathematics education.

The Institute for Public Service and Vocational Training is being phased out from the University of Zululand after serving the KwaZulu for about fifteen years. Since the need for or continuous programme of in-service training is still existing, the KwaZulu Public Service Commission desires to have an Institute for Public Service at Ulundi in future.[1]

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1   KwaZulu Government Service: Public Service Commission Annual Report 1988, p. 15.

According to the report of the Public Service Commission, only one post was localised in 1988 in KwaZulu while during the two previous years (1986 and 1987) none was localized. This illustrates clearly the need to prop up the system of education so that the programme of localization also benefits. When training is being organised, clarity should be made as to the difference between ordinary training for efficiency and training specifically for the purposes of localization.[1]

The system of merit assessment of staff is another way of guiding the staff to senior positions if followed professionally without the on-going interference of the human factor in judgement and evaluation. The time factor and the shortage of senior staff are militating against this process. Nevertheless it has to be carried on vigorously if junior staff and the civil service are to benefit in the long run.

As far as the attitude of the civil servants is concerned, the results of the research were that localization does not progress very well. Only fifteen percent of the respondents thought that progress was being made with localization in KwaZulu. Eighty three percent of the respondents indicated that they were prepared to be re-trained for localization purposes.

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1   Udoji, J.O. Training and Localization of Swaziland Civil Servants. Mbabane, 1969. Appendix A Ten, Item 24.

Civil servants in KwaZulu perform a very important role in the control and the administration of the country. Often they are regarded as representatives of a politico-administrative machinery in the society and are therefore forming a distinct group which controls the lives of others.

In my opinion, therefore, the civil servants legitimize the government machinery by participating in it so much that those who had apathy in political matters, feel that those who are in political power are succeeding as long as they work through civil servants who, more often than not, are neutral politically. Localization, therefore, comes in handy when so much importance is placed on the civil servants. The more senior posts are localized, the better for the community. With the parity of salaries now in force, civil servants stand to gain economically from localization on higher pensions, housing subsidy, further training and education, allowances, medical aid, prestige and other economic privileges. Moreover, as experienced middle management staff advance to higher top management level, opportunities are created for experienced junior staff to progress to higher positions in the hierarchy.

The existing political structure and the whole civil service of KwaZulu may, however, experience changes regarding organization and status in future, depending upon the negotiations between the present government and the other contenders of power in South Africa.

CHAPTER VI

THE KWAZULU DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE: A CASE STUDY IN LOCALIZATION

Introduction

In this chapter an in-depth study of the Department of Education and Culture will be used as a case study of localization. This department services a school population of approximately 1 400 000 pupils, 7 000 tertiary students and 30 000 full-time teachers.[1] It, therefore, takes the biggest percentage of the total budget of KwaZulu.[2] This makes it an important Department in terms of national priorities and investment worth investigating as a case study.

Nature of Problems Encountered by the Department

The KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture like all education departments in developing countries has the following problems:

a) Shortage of teaching staff,
b) Overcrowding of class-rooms (over-enrolment),
c) High drop-out rate and wastage at school level,
d) Failure to make significant impact on the problem of literacy,
e) Narrow views on the utility value of education

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1   KwaZulu, Department of Education and Culture, Annual Report, 1988. Ulundi, 1989. p. 34-35.

2   In 1989 the budget of this department was R774 777 800.

f)   Lack of funds and resources.

g)   Lack of facilities like laboratories, libraries, infra-
     structure, teaching and learning media.[1]

Factors contributing to the shortage of teachers class-rooms,
laboratories, libraries, and to wastage illiteracy and drop-outs
all add to the above problems.

The policy within which education is provided for Blacks in South
Africa, is that of separate development on a racial basis,
leading to four sub-systems of Black, White, Coloured and Indian
education.   Blacks are further divided into ethnic geo-political
units each controlling to a certain extent, its education
department within the Republic of South Africa unless they have
opted for independence.   KwaZulu, therefore, has its Department
of Education and Culture as a self-governing territory.

Historically speaking, Blacks lacked access to training
facilities and to mass education and therefore lag behind other
groups.[2]   Although this is still a problem in the whole
province of Natal rather than KwaZulu only, the lack of funds now
militates seriously against the creation of new posts for the
ever burgeoning enrolments in KwaZulu schools.   Physical

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1   Mbokazi, S.Z. Community Development and Teachers in a less
    developed country. Paidonomia 8. 1, 1988 and Wallace, B.
    and Harvey, B. Adams, Assessment and development of the
    potential of high school pupils in the third-world context
    of KwaZulu/Natal South African Journal of H.E. (3) 1, 1989,
    p. 83-84.

2   Dhlomo, O.D. Policy Speech. 1984. KwaZulu: Department of
    Education and Culture. p.1.

and provisions also depend upon the budget. The need for teachers in 1983 was estimated as follows:[1]

TABLE 20

TEACHERS' NEEDS FOR KWAZULU

	1983	1989
Primary schools	6 100	25 988
Secondary schools	16 700	18 058
TOTAL	22 000	44 041

These figures are far from being met. Instead the shortfall is being increased annually as enrolments also increase annually.

The reason for the demand of education by each and every parent for his child is inspired by the fact that education is regarded as a passport to high, lucrative and status - based positions as against the hard and primitive life of the subsistence or peasant farmer. Consequently, there is a shortage of classrooms, schools, teachers, funds, teaching aids, media resources and colleges of education.

The present facilities are not sufficient and can therefore not cope with the rapid growth of population brought about by the high birth rate in Natal as a whole. However, everyone would like his child to be at least literate.

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1   Vos, A.J. Aspects of education in KwaZulu, Paidonomia 8 (1), 1983, and Krige, D. The basic needs approach to development: the question of education for the Black people in Natal. Development Southern Africa, Vol. 6., No. 2. May 1989, p. 173.

The problems of under-provision and lack of access to schools is compounded by the fact that KwaZulu depends on the amount allocated to it by the National Education department of the central government. It is impossible to provide all the required educational facilities without the central government supporting the territory financially. Consequently the budget for education is always outstripped by the demands. The demands are for more schools and posts on an annual basis. The following figures indicate the growth of the school population from year to year.

TABLE 21

ANNUAL SCHOOL ENROLMENT AND GROWTH PERCENT IN KWAZULU 1976-88

YEAR	ENROLMENT	GROWTH PERCENTAGE
1976	554 058	
1977	716 041	23
1978	778 142	8
1979	843 913	8
1980	878 226	4
1981	931 580	6
1982	1 044 413	11
1983	1 Q66 595	2
1984	1 100 000	7
1985	1 176 789	9
1986	1 230 460	4
1987	1 316 134	7
1988	1 393 386	6
Average annual growth %		8

Adapted from Annual Report of the Department of Education and Culture, 1976-1988.

From the above table, it is clear that every year there is a growth of the number of children to be taught in schools. The average growth over twelve years has been 8 percent annually, the biggest increase being in 1977. The total of 1 393 386 pupils in KwaZulu, are very difficult to cater for or to accommodate in the 3 112 pre-tertiary educational institutions with 27 000 teachers.

The KwaZulu expenditure on education leaves much to be desired. According to the latest available statistics the annual expenditure per child in KwaZulu was R359-00 in 1986.[1] Compared to the Department of Education and Training and the Transkei respectively where R476-95 and R413-32 per child were spent, KwaZulu lags behind. Let alone the White Department of Education and Culture which spent R2 508-00 per child in the same year.

The above figures are therefore an indication that equal provision of education in South Africa is a long-term objective rather than an immediately attainable objective; because of the enormous financial commitment that would need to be poured into the national states like KwaZulu in order to equalise facilities, teachers' qualifications, access to facilities and institutions of the self-governing territories and the autonomous TBVC-states.

Although the KwaZulu Education and Culture budget has been increasing year in and year out; it has always been outstripped by the needs and rendered ineffective. The most pressing needs are the creation of new teaching posts and the financing of the building of new schools. Any increase in the budget is always "absorbed" by the existing backlog, where school committees normally wait eagerly for relief after having employed and paid

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1   SAIRR: <u>A Survey of Race Relations,</u> Johannesburg: 1986 p. 75

teachers for years without being subsidized by the government. Some money has to be spent on the "R-for-R subsidy" to the creation of schools.[1]

TABLE 22

ANNUAL BUDGET AMOUNTS FOR KWAZULU EDUCATION 1977-86

FINANCIAL YEAR	AMOUNT BUDGETED	GROWTH AMOUNT	PERCENT	NUMBER OF CHILDREN	GROWTH %
1977	31 933 600	13 411 480	72	716 041	23
1978	39 463 400	7 529 800	24	778 142	8
1979	52 168 538	12 705 138	40	843 913	8
1980	60 168 538 .	6 000 000	24	878 226	4
1981	69 269 000	99 528 462	24	151 580	8
1982	109 269 000	40 269 000	72	1 044 413	11
1983	137 668 000	28 399 000	3,4	1 066 595	2
1984	164 286 900	26 618 900	2	1 100 000	7
1985	233 304 000	69 017 100	42	1 176 789	9
1986	450 764 576	150 806 821	50	1 230 460	4

(Adapted from the annual reports, policy speeches of the Department of Education and Culture 1973 - 1989, KwaZulu).

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1 An R-for-R system is a system whereby a school committee collects a sum of money to build a school and thereafter claim the same amount from the department to build more classrooms.

The highest increase of the budget was in the 1977/8 financial year. This can be ascribed to the large salary increases which were approved for the teaching and non-teaching staff in the Department of Education and Culture which were approved and implemented. An additional factor was the expansion system of education by building more schools and assisting teachers who were upgrading their education with study grants.[1]

Another remarkable increase was during the 1982/3 financial year when it was 11 percent. This can be ascribed to the large salary increases which were approved when the colleges of education were upgraded from school status to tertiary level. At certain post levels during this financial year, a parity of salaries was effected. This also costs money. New schools and new posts were also created, leading to an absorption of a considerable fraction of the territorial budget.

The 1988/9 budget for education was R774 777 800 in KwaZulu. This shows an increase of 36 percent from the 1987/8 budget. During this financial year there was a general increase of 22 percent in the salaries of all the public servants. The KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture used a fair share of the allocated figure to meet this cost. There were new schools in addition and colleges which the department had to build, and for the new institutions posts had to be created to enable them to function.[2]

Although many school children are seeking admission in schools, only 48 percent of the children between the ages of 5 and 15 are

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1 A teacher who passed a subject degree course was granted R50-00 as from 1971 at a university.

2 Ezakheni College of Education started functioning on 01 October 1989.

attending school.[1]   Lack of access to school plus the problem of drop-out and wastage lead to semi-literate and illiterate people increasing in numbers annually.

As far as drop-outs are concerned, in 1986 24 100 pupils left school in KwaZulu with less than Sub-Std A school education. Forty thousands left schools with an education of less than Standard III.   Twenty one thousand, two hundred left school with the standard of education between Standard 3 and Standard 5. Twenty six thousand and eight hundred left school without having passed Standard 8 but had passed Standard 5.   At a high school level, 18 200 pupils left school with either Standard 9 or Standard 10.   The total wastage in one year alone was 130 000 pupils.[2] In 1987 the total drop-out figure for KwaZulu was 136 000.   Only 11 percent of pupils reached standard 10, and only 30 percent of the SSA groups reached standard 5.[3]

Since, there is no way in which compulsory education can be implemented as a result of the ever-burgeoning school population as against poverty and the lack of adequate funds for expansion of facilities, the position is worsening rather than improving.

Although there is a large number of pupils dropping out of schools, there is pressure from some KwaZulu parents perceiving education as a vehicle for social and economic upward mobility.[4] The result of this pressure on the department by parents is

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1   Krige, op.cit. p. 179.

2   KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture, Annual Report, 1986, p. 6-8.

3   KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture: Edplan Stellenbosch 1989, p. 3. Mimeo.

4   Totemeyer, G op.cit. p. 21.

that expansion instigated by communities sometimes take place without proper planning and provision.[1] In spite thereof those who are heading the department have, mainly to see to it that education is provided to the KwaZulu public. The department is headed politically by a Minister and a Deputy Minister as well. The Secretary heads the administrative and the professional aspects of the department.

The organizational chart of the department is as follows:

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1 It is not unusual to find a registered school without furniture, teaching posts, books, but a principal only in charge of children, while the necessary provisions are being awaited.

TABLE 23

ORGANOGRAM OF THE DEPARTMENT : 1990

Minister of Education and Culture

Deputy Minister of Education and Culture

Secretary of Education and Culture

Director : Professional   Director : Auxilliary Services

Director : Personnel

Assistant Ditector : Administration

Assistant Directors:

1.   Regional
2.   Professional

Rectors of Colleges of Education

Vice-Rectors and
Advisory Councils

Lecturers

Assistant Directors:

1. Psychological Services
2. Advisory Services

25 Circuit Inspectors or
Inspectors of Education

Heads of Institutions and
School Committees

Teachers

The Application of the Policy of Localization

The situation in the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture is that a far greater degree of localization has been achieved than in other departments, but the lecturing staff in colleges of special subjects, education advisors, lecturers in the technikon are predominantly seconded officials.[1]

The ten-year period between 1976 and 1986 has been a period of slow but significant progress in the field of localization in the department of Education and Culture. In 1977 besides the change of nomenclature of positions an important development took place when one of the administrative control posts became vacant (see table 24). In 1978 it was localized (see table 25).

TABLE 24

Identification of seconded staff at head office - Department of Education and Culture -

1976

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
1	Director of Education and Culture
3	Professional assistants
1	Ass. Director (Administration)
2	Administrative Control Officers
2	Administration officers
9	

1. Control posts start from the middle level officer e.g. Admin Control Officer.

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TABLE 25

Seconded Staff in the Department of Education and Culture

1977

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
1	Secretary of Education and Culture (Change of nomenclature).
3	Professional Advisor (Change of nomenclature)
1	Ass. Director (Administration)
1	Administration Control Officer
2	Administration Officer
8	

TABLE 26

Seconded staff in the Department of Education and Culture, Ulundi

1978

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
1	Secretary of Education and Culture
3	Professional Advisors
1	Assistant Secretary (Administration)
1	Administration Control Officer
2	Administration Officer
8	

1. Information from Table 24 up to Table 32 adapted from the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture Annual Reports of 1977 up to 1989.

In 1979, a seconded post of an administrative officer was withdrawn as this incumbent was not replaced by a local, reducing seconded posts to 7 as indicated in table 26.

TABLE 26.1

Seconded Staff in the Department of Education and Culture

1979

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
1	Secretary for Education and Culture
3	Education Advisors
1	Assistant Secretary (Administration)
1	Administration Control Officer
1	Administration Officer
7	

In 1980 a major development in localization took place in the Department of Education and Culture (table 28) when a seconded secretary for Education and Culture was withdrawn and replaced with a local secretary.[1]   As a result of this development,

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[1]   D.L. Zama, became the first Black Control Officer.   He had been an Administrative Officer.

TABLE 27

Seconded Staff in the Department of Education and Culture

1980

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
3	Education Advisors
1	Assistant Secretary (Admin)
1	Administration Control Officer
1	Administration Officer
6	

the department obtained the service of an experienced local person who understood the problems of his people fully.[1]

Between 1981 (table 28) and 1982 (table 29) a slight change in the process of localization was effected at head office of the department as the six seconded posts decreased to five.

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1   J.E. Ndlovu; BA (Natal); B.Ed (UZ); Assistant Secretary of Education and Culture.

TABLE 28

Seconded officials in the Department of Education and Culture

1981

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
3	Education Advisors
1	Assistant Secretary (Administration)
1	Administration Control Officer
1	Administration Officer
6	

TABLE 29

Seconded officials in the department of Education and Culture

1982

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
3	Education Advisor
1	Assistant Secretary (Admin)
1	Administration Control Officer
5	

Between 1983 and 1985 (table 30) there were only 4 seconded
officials in the Department of Education and Culture. So, in 7
years the number of the seconded officials had dropped by 5
percent. This was quite a rapid change.

TABLE 30

Seconded officials in the Department of Education and Culture

1983 - 1985

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
3	Education Advisors
1	Assistant Secretary
4	

The two administrative posts were localized rapidly leaving only
4 seconded posts that were key positions in the administration of
the department in KwaZulu. Although the department was in the
hands of a local secretary, these four seconded posts were
crucial in decision-making especially in professional matters,
for example, inspecting colleges, and decision-making in
promotions at post-level 4, 5 and 6.[1] The local secretary is a
representative of the Zulu people in negotiations for better
allocation of resources with the central government whereas a
seconded official is a representative of the central government[2]
in the sense that he is allocated by it to the national state.

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1   Inspectorate, subject advisory service personnel, planners,
    principals of territorial schools, rectors and vice-rectors
    of colleges of education.

2   Refer to this chapter for research responses.

Between 1987 and 1989, (see table 32), however, a retrogression took place in the process of localization when the number of seconded officials rose from 4 to 6. As these officials control professional work, it is expected that it will not be possible to localize these posts as rapidly as it would have been, if they were administrative posts. Expertise and knowledge are required in order to replace highly educated seconded officials. As far as the seconded officials were concerned, this development constituted progress, although opposing the process of localization.

Moreover, if there is no concerted effort, plan or objective to attain the level of expertise demanded by the nature of the positions held by the seconded officials, it might be extremely difficult to localize them. The Department of Education and Culture needs to forecast on what the future needs of manpower will be in as far as localization is concerned.[1] Once this has been done, the up and coming officials can then aspire for these positions and set themselves goals to achieve them provided they are capable of coping with the duties attached to the higher post.[2]

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[1] Hilliard, V.G. Recruitment Selection, Placement and Merit-rating in the KwaZulu Public Service. Unpublished M.Admin Dissertation 1988. University of Venda. p. 5.

[2] The KwaZulu Public Service Act No 18 of 1975 contains terms and conditions of service in the public service.

TABLE 31

Seconded officials in the Department of Education and Culture

1986

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
2	Assistant Director (Change of name)
1	Professional Advisor
1	Assistant Secretary
4	

TABLE 32

Seconded officials of the Deaprtment of Education and Culture

1987-1989

NUMBER	TYPE OF POST
2	Assistant Directors
3	Subject Advisors (change of name)
1	Assistant Secretary
6	

Teaching Posts

Most of the teaching posts in schools, especially primary schools have never been held by seconded officials, and therefore have always been localized posts. In the post primary education post-secondary education and the technical education, however, some posts are still held by seconded officials. However, in terms of the Zulu-White teacher ratio; the Zulus far outnumber the-seconded officials in the department.

According to table 33 in 1980 for every seconded teacher or educator in KwaZulu, there were 259 Black teachers. In 1985 the ratio was 1:493,4 and in 1989 it was 1:499 indicating that the growth of the number of Black teachers in KwaZulu far outstrip that of the seconded officials.

As far as the KwaZulu primary schools are concerned, there is no seconded principal of school in primary schools. The largest number of seconded principals in KwaZulu is in technical institutions (see table 35), followed by industrial training centres, where they are 6 and 4 respectively without any Black principal in this category of specialization (see tables 35 and 37). The bulk of Zulu principals of schools at post-primary level are in the secondary education as indicated in table 35.

TABLE 33

NUMBER OF SECONDED TEACHERS AGAINST BLACK TEACHERS IN KWAZULU

1980 - 1989

YEAR	SECONDED TEACHERS	BLACK TEACHERS	TOTAL
1980	65	16 848	16 913
1981	73	18 332	18 405
1982	55	20 220	20 275
1983	56	22 033	22 089
1984	49	23 455	23 504
1985	50	24 669	24 719
1986	51	25 140	25 191
1987	75	27 106 ·	27 181
1988	75	28 485	28 560
1989	80	39 920	40 000

(Adapted from Central Statistics. Pretoria: Government Printer, 1988).

The seconded teachers are normally employed to teach Mathematics, Science, English, Economics, Afrikaans or Agricultural Science. Since these subjects are not readily available in the community high schools, it will take a considerable length of time to produce adequate local teachers of these subjects.

TABLE 34

NUMBER OF SECONDED PRINCIPALS AGAINST BLACK PRINCIPALS IN KWAZULU

1989

	1983		1984		1985		1986	
	BLACK	WHITE	BLACK	WHITE	BLACK	WHITE	BLACK	WHITE
Primary School	1 954	0	1 991	0	2 220	0	2 221	-
Secondary	462	3	466	3	503	4	505	4
Colleges of Ed.	6	3	6	3	7	3	7	3
Vocational/Technical	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
Technikon	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
Industrial	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
Special schools	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	2
TOTAL	2 422	19	2 463	19	2 730	20	2 737	16

(Adapted from Annual Reports, Policy Speeches, Department of Education and Culture, KwaZulu 1983 - 1989).

TABLE 35

Seconded Staff at Educational Institutions Under the Control of
KwaZulu

	1987		1988		1989	
	BLACK	WHITE SECONDED	BLACK	WHITE SECONDED	BLACK	WHITE SECONDED
Primary	2 225	0	2 227	0	2 316	0
Secondary	660	4	700	4	700	5
College	7	3	7	3	7	3
Vocational/Technical	0	6	0	6	0	6
Technikon	0	1	0	1	0	1
Industrial	0	4	0	4	0	4
Special	0	2	0	2	0	2
TOTAL	2 892	20	2 934	20	3 023	21

(Adapted from Annual Reports, Policy Speeches, Department of
Education and Culture, KwaZulu, 1983 - 1989).

TABLE 36.1

SECONDED STAFF AT SOME TERTIARY INSTITUTION UNDER THE CONTROL OF
KWAZULU

Colleges of Education: 1989

Eshowe

Total Number of Lecturers	Seconded	Black
47	26	21

The ratio of seconded principals of schools and Black principals
of schools in KwaZulu was 1:71 in 1983.   In 1985 it was 1:136,5
and currently it was 1:151.

The sector where it is difficult to effect localization in the
Department of Education and Culture, is in the tertiary or post-
secondary education.   Currently there are 146 seconded educators
against 59 KwaZulu educators in the four tertiary institutions,
which are controlled by seconded officials indicated in tables
36.1, 36.2, 36.3 and 36.4 below.   The Zulu lecturer-seconded
lecturer ratio is 1:2.4.

TABLE 36.2

Madadeni

Total Number of Lecturers	Seconded	Black
79	46	33

TABLE 36.3

Amanzimtoti 1989

Total Number of Lecturers	Seconded	Black
28	22	6

TABLE 36.4

Mangosuthu Technikon 1989
Seconded Staff Position

Total Number of Posts	Seconded	Black
56	52	4
TOTAL 146		59

TABLE 37

Seconded Staff at Industrial Centres and Technical Colleges 1989

	Total Number of Posts	Seconded	Black
Edendale Colege	26	19	7
Edendale Tech. H. School	22	17	5
Sub-Total	48	36	12

	Total Posts	Seconded	Black
Enyenyezi Training Centre	13	6	7
	=============================		
Ezakheni Training Centre	5	4	1
Ezakheni Staff Technical	17	11	6
Sub-Total	22	15	7
	=============================		
Madadeni Technical	12	9	3
Nongoma Technical	22	6	16
Ntuzuma Training Centre	26	8	18
Umlazi Technical	46	26	20
Sub-Total	106	49	57
TOTALS		98	76
		=================	
Grand-total from table 36 and table 37		244	125
		=================	

Table 37 indicates that the technical field of education is also difficult to localize as Black education is orientated towards the teaching of liberal arts rather than technical education. The Zulu teacher-seconded teacher ratio is 1:2.

The shortage of teachers with a specialization in technical education in KwaZulu has its origin, not only in the lack of teacher training facilities for that specialization, but also in the lack of a strong reservoir of vocationally, or career oriented and mathematically trained, matriculants or school leavers. Technical education is expensive to provide in that special instruments for drawing and workshops for practical or technical work are required before pupils are enrolled. Community schools cannot provide special classrooms and equipment for technical high school, but they can always successfully provide a classroom where other "soft options can be taken". With the help of the industry the department can provide education at an accelerated pace.[1]

Attitude of a Select Group of Top Management in the Department of Education and Culture on the Issue of Localization.

In view of the fact that it is possible to have a hundred percent localization at head office, given the small number of seconded officials that are still existing, it was necessary to find out what the attitude of a select group of top Black management was

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1   With the help of Richards Bay Minerals, a Technical High School has been built at Esikhawini. It opened its doors to 100 pupils in 1989. It is hoped that there will be technical Standard 10 results by 1994.

in this Department of Education and Culture.[1] As far as localization was concerned. A questionnaire was supplied to top officials of the Department of Education and Culture with a view to assessing their attitude towards localization, progress or failure in localization. Their responses were received through the post. Seventeen out of 34 responded.

TABLE 38

Profiles of Respondents

Ranks	Number	Percentage
Secretary of a department	1	6
Circuit Inspectors	2	12
Principals of Technical Colleges	1	6
Head of Departments of Colleges	5	29
Assistant Directors	1	6
Chief Inspectors	1	6
TOTAL	17	100

The above mentioned group is highly experienced and qualified. They have been in the service of the government or department for a considerable length of time and have received much training and education within the department.

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1   All circuit offices (25) of education in KwaZulu are each controlled by Zulu Inspectors of Education, clerical staff and about 100 pricipals of schools. A Regional Assistant Director of Education is each in charge of 6 circuits (Inspectors of Education). There are 4 such Assistant Directors.

TABLE 39

Age distribution

	Number	Percentage
30 - 30	1	5
41 - 50	4	21
51 - 60	13	77
61 - 65	1	5
TOTAL	19	100

The majority of the respondents is between the ages of 51 and 60. It can safely be assumed that these people are unlikely to change jobs and are therefore likely to want to shape the future of the civil service in KwaZulu by aspiring for decision-making positions and autonomy in daily operation.

TABLE 39.1

Highest academic qualifications

	Number	Percentage
Doctors's degree	1	5
Master's degree	4	21
Bachelor's degree	9	47
Diploma	3	16
Certificate	2	11
TOTAL	18	100

The majority of respondents are degreed people; which means top-management in the department consists of mostly personnel with university degrees and likely candidates for control posts since most of them are KwaZulu citizens.

TABLE 39.2

Professional qualifications	Number	Percent
Degree ·	6	34
Diploma	13	66

Sixty five percent of the select group of senior officers in the Department of Education and Culture regard the engagement of the seconded officials in the department as no longer necessary in the top management posts. This fact correlates positively with the assumptions made in items 2 and 4 and the observations made in item 3 of the questionnaire.

Positive and Negative answers to the question of prolonged services of seconded officials

TABLE 39.3

Positive N		Negative N	
6	35%	11	65%

Some of the reasons advanced are as follows: (quoted verbatim):

"The department has got suitably qualified and experienced officials to occupy the posts which are occupied by seconded officials".

"Non-citizens may be loyal only to external political ideologies and not to KwaZulu."

"The attitude of some seconded officials may not be conducive to progress or development".

"The seconded officials tend to perpetuate the system of "Bantu Education".

Those who are not in favour of localization also had reasons for their stand. Some of these reasons are as follows (quoted verbatim):

"The technical know-how of seconded officials is much needed".

"There is still a shortage of manpower in service subjects, management skills, and official languages".

"They have expertise and a sense of direction".

The thirty five percent of respondents against localization advancing the above reasons are connected with technical education or the handling of science subjects or are in charge of institutions handling knowledge in the fields of technology and science. In view of the foregoing chapter and the apparent lack of facilities and manpower in the technical direction of education, a considerable length of time will have to be spent educating the KwaZulu citizens about the necessity of technical education and science rather than the liberal arts bias.

Fifty nine percent of the respondents regard the progress with the process of localization as satisfactory. Forty one percent are not satisfied at all with the present of pace localization.

Sixty five percent of the respondents would like the civil service to be localized especially at head office of the Department of Education and Culture is being discussed.

TABLE 39.4

Progress with the Policy of Localization

Very Satisfactory		Fairly Satisfactory		Not Satisfactory at all	
N	%	N	%	N	%
0	0	10	59	7	41

The three equally important reasons for not being able to promote the policy of localization rapidly, accounting for 28 percent each of the respondents' answers, are seemingly beyond the control of the respondents themselves, as they imply the expansion of facilities, creation of more senior posts than the existing ones and courses for the up and coming bureaucrats.

TABLE 39.5

Reasons for unsatisfactory progress	N	%
Too few facilities for training	5	28
Insufficient funds	5	28
Lack of time for senior officials to give training	5	28
Other	3	16
TOTAL	18	100

The main reason for localization advanced by respondents above is that of satisfying Black aspirations (44 percent). This reason corroborates the responses of respondents to the question on whether or not the civil servants wish to take over in order to take decisions and control things.

TABLE 39.6

Reasons for localization or take over	N	%
To increase employment opportunities	4	22
To increase roles in decision-making	5	28
To satisfy Black aspirations	8	44
To demonstrate political authority	1	6
	18	100

TABLE 39.7

Strategies for promoting localization	N	%
In-service training	4	24
Training by seconded officials	2	12
Understudy system	5	29
Increase of formal education	5	29
Recruitment of specific persons for specific posts	1	6
	17	100

The respondents feel that education and training or understudy are very important in the facilitation of localization and are therefore the key to the possibility of Black take-over in future.

TABLE 39.8

On the question of whether or not there is "lowering of standards or inefficiency as a result of localization"

Positive and Negative responses:

Positive	Negative
%	%
11	89

Reasons for negative responses above

The following were the reasons for the respondents' negative response.

Capability of the locals

As far as the capability of the locals is concerned, it is necessary to indicate here that education has had an urban bias for a long time and that the capability of individuals referred to above is devoid of the technical as well as financial or accounting skills. Where these skills are not a pre-requisite any individual may be suitable provided he has acquired skills required for promotion.

Desire of progress by Blacks

It is normal for any group of people to desire that its members should progress and be in charge of the events, but there are constraints militating against that. These constraints may be capability to manage complex duties at executive level, like being an assistant secretary or deputy secretary. Those who are capable, however, are always given the chance to prove themselves through normal recruitment assessment and proper placement within the department.

High levels of experience gained by Blacks elsewhere

Any experience gained in a work situation elsewhere other than where you are especially in the civil service, is useful for a civil servant. It is normal therefore for the department to request anyone who is applying for a post to furnish evidence of his experience elsewhere before he is appointed in a senior position.

On the question of whether or not the process of localization necessarily means the lowering of standards, or cause the inefficiency of the system, 89 percent responded negatively - thus supporting localization whole-heartedly. The reason advanced for this stand was that if only suitably qualified Blacks were promoted and meritorious administrators and professionals among Blacks could advance to control posts, they are unlikely to fail and cause the whole system to collapse. Another reason is that, logically speaking, if Blacks desire progress and advancement they are likely to work at it and maintain it therefore ultimately prove highly efficient as a result.

I quote some responses verbatim:

"Appointment on merit cannot possibly lower standards in the government service. The best person for a job should be appointed".

"Localization cannot lower the level of efficiency if the officials involved are suitably qualified, experienced and dedicated".

"If people have the sense of pride, responsibility and drive, standards should not drop".

"Competent administrators will maintain high standards".

"If people are given training before they are appointed, standards will not drop".

Other problems of Localization

The problem of localization is fraught with problems.   Some of these are quoted verbatim from the respondent's answers:

a)   "It is a problem if the officers employed are not respected or accepted because they are known as children of local people".

b)   "Training programmes do not seem to be designed with the objective of equipping Blacks with the necessary skills to enable them to take over from their White counterparts".

c).   "The element of job reservation creeps into the government service.   The tendency to keep certain key administration and control posts for seconded officials persists behind scenes".

d)   "Lack of adequate funds".

e)   Political intentions in administrative actions cannot be eliminated easily.

f)   Localization may result in lower remuneration".

It would seem, however, the principal problems facing the process of localization are the lack of finance and the lack of access to educational institutions offering high level training or education in technology, science and management.   As far as the problem indicated in (a) is concerned, training is normally

given to such persons on assertiveness and self-confidence, seconded staff can further be used to train people who are affected by the point made in (b).

The problem posed in item (c) above might be true, but it can be overcome by the political head of department by instituting control measures and processes by which he shall be kept informed at all times about the progress made in the sphere of localization. Funds are a constraint in any developing civil service. The point made in (d) therefore needs to be addressed by inviting foreign aid without "strings attached" to assist in the process of empowering the people to localize positions which need financial sacrifices on the part of the state. Foreign aid can solve even the problem referred to in point (f) above. Since the central government insist that any external aid should enter national state through its channels, it is cumbersome and almost impossible to accept such help through central government red-tape.[1]

Some limitations to the policy of Localization

Essentially, localization means that if a local candidate for a position has suitable qualifications and adequate experience to undertake a position, even if other foreign candidates with better experience and qualifications exist, preference should be given to the former. However, there is a problem in exercising this discretion if the non-nationals are consulted. Butler, et. al has the following to say about the seconded officials in this connection:

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1   Butler, et.al, Ibid. p. 156.

> ... they (seconded officials) remain
> responsible for recruiting training and
> reporting on those who will replace
> them. Africans do not yet appoint
> persons to supernumerary positions,
> where Blacks are trained to work side by
> side with the Whites who are leaving.(1)

The same applies in the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture.

In addition elsewhere, in the text, Butler, et.al contend that Whites may be unwilling to devolve power to persons whose ideas, methods of doing things and goals are supposed to differ from theirs - although this may not always be true.[2]

An internal or "in-house" policy would be suitable for the process of the acceleration of localization in case there is insufficient progress. However, there is no such an internal policy and therefore the speed with which localization can be pursued is left to chance.

The significance of the political status of KwaZulu, that is a self-governing territory, has some limitations. Any legislation by the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly has to be approved by central government. In addition, foreign aid cannot be utilised without Treasury approval. These limitations prevent a national state from legislating on seconded officials and on obtaining foreign aid that may offset the cost of localization.[3]

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1   Butler, J. et.al., op.cit. p. 71.

2   Ibid. p. 48.

3   In-service training, expansion of education and training, creation of Black posts in the place of seconded posts.

The competing demands of the private sector, commerce and the upgrading of the teaching profession have attracted many would-be administrators and control officers. The young economy of KwaZulu cannot offer the same fringe benefits as given by the private sector.

There is also a complete lack of co-ordination and direction between education and man-power needs of KwaZulu. If a survey was done for manpower needs there would be a goal to train the inhabitants in the areas of knowledge where personnel was needed most; for example, technical expertise. Strategies would be developed to cope with the demands of localization in a systematic manner. The lack of technical expertise would disappear if a definite effort to create localization structures was made. In this connection Dr O.D. Dhlomo has the following to say:

> "In the meantime the task of Black Advancement should be pursued more creatively through a positive programme of bursary support for young Black post-graduate students. ... there are a number of bursary schemes for Black students to study abroad and these schemes should be utilised fully. Every opportunity should be taken to extend the scope of bursary services and each Black orientated university have a Bursaries Officer who travels around the interested businessmen and funding organisations in making additional support available (my own underlining).

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1. Dhlomo, O D. University Goals in Relation to Staffing and Administration. University of Zululand Symposium, 8/9/1981

In order to attend to the problem of lack of finance to expand facilities and employ adequate teachers, a massive programme of fund-raising should be mounted. Planning for education should be done jointly by educational planners and manpower planners as well. While access to education is urgent, quality is also important in the provision of teachers and facilitators. The improvement of the educational system and the teacher supply can ultimately contribute to the progress of localization in the public sector including the Department of Education and Culture itself.

Conclusion

Although it would seem that the education system of KwaZulu is not geared to localization, progress has been slowly but surely made with at least some sensitive and key posts like secretary, deputy secretary, (professional) deputy secretary (personnel) in the Department of Education and Culture.

Politically, it may be unacceptable to nationals when an African territory is seen to be represented by a seconded official at national level when matters pertaining to its future are being handled or decided upon when other countries or territories are represented by officials who have themselves experienced problems such as lack of facilities, overcrowding, poverty, wastage, illiteracy and other constraints of education in the third world. Even if KwaZulu is not independent, it has developed its own Public Service Commission, its own Government Service and its own Public Servants Association and other bodies or structures of organised professions as a self-governing territory. Their wishes (65 percent) are to get an opportunity to prove themselves as authorities and decision-makers, albeit within a national state of KwaZulu. The experience that can be obtained can always be used at a national or even international level.

CHAPTER VII

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

In this chapter a summary of the research will be made, conclusions will be drawn and recommendations on the whole question of localization will be made.

Summary

KwaZulu, as a national state, consists of about forty eight separate blocks of land scattered all over the province of Natal. The fragmented nature of the territory originated in the nineteenth century when White colonists settled in Natal. . As a result of the piecemeal allocation and reservation of land for Blacks in the province, plots of land for Blacks were made available and large tracts of land remained White properties. The process of consolidating this land is slow but continuous. The fragmented nature of the territory affects communication and co-ordination processes of the administrative operations.

It is, therefore, necessary that a high degree of esprit de corps among highly placed civil servants should exist throughout the territory across the departments of the KwaZulu government service. This attribute requires not only highly experienced civil servants, but also a high morale, dedication, empathy and a deep appreciation of the territorial problems regarding lack of infrastructure and communication in KwaZulu. Civil servants who are sufficiently socialised and adapted to the KwaZulu system of culture and situation are eminently suitable to occupy the highest administrative or executive positions in the civil

service.   A well-thought out programme or plan of localization
could be useful in identifying, recruiting and placing such civil
servants.   Any law or regulation preventing these processes from
happening on grounds of race, religion and sex is detrimental to
the full use of manpower resources.   The Chief Minister of
KwaZulu, Inkosi Buthelezi endorsed the multi-racial approach to
manpower utilization in KwaZulu as follows:

> "One shouldn't draw new maps, or buy out
> the Whites. White farmers are an asset
> and should be allowed to become Zulu
> citizens.   Natal is rich enough ...
> It is for its people, including Whites
> and Indians" (my own underlining).(1)

The laws and regulations restricting the citizenship of KwaZulu
to the Zulus as an ethnic group is, therefore, incongruous with
the above-mentioned statement and with reality and developments
in KwaZulu state administration.[2]

The African past experience of localization is such that a number
of lessons can be learnt by the national states in South Africa,
including KwaZulu.   If the localization programme is to take
place smoothly and properly, strategies of meeting the goals of
localization should not be tackled on an ad hoc basis.
Experience has shown that "crash courses" are a desperate remedy
for a desperate situation and are essential stopgap arrangements.

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1   Deacon, J.: KwaZulu - A Challenge. South African Panorama.
     October 1978, p. 33.

2   In terms of the National States Citizenship Act, 1970 non-
     Zulus cannot be citizens of KwaZulu.

A process of need assessment, investigation into the existing situation and a well-thought out plan of objectives, strategies and training for the programme of localization should be worked our prior to the implementation of such a policy. Problems of localization include the fear by both the nationals and seconded officials of the lowering of standards: inefficiency and the incompetency, down-grading of posts, centralization of power on certain authorities, the politicization of the civil service, lack of adequately trained persons in science, mathematics and technical professions.

In order that aspiring and serving civil servants should be aware of the above-mentioned issues, an effort should be made to educate them on these and the need to be committed to the civil service as a career. It would also help promote the policy of localization if an internal policy is laid down that in order for anyone to aspire to the rank of the secretary of a department he should prove to be familiar with the policy and the implementation strategies of localization.

Since merit assessment is a useful means by which civil servants can climb the ladder of the civil service, a way of supervising and encouraging it should be found. For example, all the names of those who are due to be assessed at the Public Service Commission level could be published in an official organ of the KwaZulu Education Department, Fundisa on an annual basis. Merit assessment is very important to those civil servants who can no longer afford it to take leave for full time study in tertiary institutions. This would encourage them greatly.

The educational programmes both at secondary school level and tertiary level should take into consideration the needs of manpower in general and of manpower in the civil service in

particular. Many African independent countries have had to follow the same path of re-examining the relevance of their existing education system and then coming up with recommendations based on innovative educational planning.

Strategies such as the accelerated upgrading of persons already in the employment, the improved use of available manpower, job analysis, re-organization of work ·schedules to facilitate training and economy are very popular with independent African countries which have adopted localization as a policy.[1] KwaZulu can also adopt some of the strategies mentioned above in case they are suitable.

Localization aims at having the civil service under the control of the nationals but this does not preclude the employment of foreign experts, technicians and professional specialists.[2] By

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1   Report of the Africanisation Commission, 1962, Dar-es-Salaam; Tanzania. Luke Commission Report 1972, Gaberone, Botswana. Training and Localization of Swaziland Civil service, (Udoji report) 1989, Mbabane, Swaziland. A report on a Survey of Requirements for Trained Manpower in Malawi (Brown report) 1966. Report· on the Survey Team on Technical Education and Training in Malawi (Blair report) 1969. Report of the Commission of enquiry into the structure conditions of service and remuneration of the Public Service of the Kingdom of Swaziland, (Wamalwa Report) 1976, Mbabane, Swaziland.

2   Tordoff, W. Government and Politics in Tanzania, Nairobi: E.A. Publishing House, 1967.·p. 196.

and large, the objective of localization is the transformation of a colonial civil service into a national one. In the case of KwaZulu it is the transformation of the "domestic colonialism" (apartheid) civil service into a national state civil service. The whole philosophy, attitude towards the civil service and the methods of doing things, for example protocol, become re-orientated as a result of localization. While the apartheid administrative procedures emphasized the legalistic approach and excessive maintenance of law and order, localized civil service aims at assuming greater national responsibilities in social and economic reforms.

The conclusions drawn and recommendations made in this chapter are based on the premise that the goal of development in general in a country presupposes among other things, full participation by its citizens in organs of government and thus participate in the determination of the future of their territory, It is also important to note that although there has never been any legal basis for the exclusion of the Blacks in the South African public service,[1] the Blacks have been always discriminated against in all government departments except the erstwhile departments of Bantu Administration and Development and of Bantu Education[2]

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1 The Public Service Act, 1957 provides for equal opportunities in the government service to all qualified applicants and employees, irrespective of race, creed, colour or sex and for the provision of full realization of equal employment opportunity through continuous staff development in each government department.

2 The nomenclature used has been changing from time to time in these departments e.g. in 1977 these became departments of Plural Relation's and that of Education and Training. Subsequently, the names changed to Development Aid and Education and Training Departments under a single Minister.

albeit at lower levels. Were it not for the existence of the
so-called national states, the Blacks would have been confined to
menial work, clerical work, field work, and production work even
in those departments dealing with their existence and their
future. Although there are shortages of staff in many central
government departments other than the Department of Education and
Training and of Development Aid, stop gap strategies have been
used rather than employ Black civil servants at managerial
level.[1]

According to Hugo these make-shift arrangements referred to above
in the foregoing paragraph are mechanization, raising the
retirement age from 60 to 65, enhancement of fringe benefits,
incentives and temporary employment of pensioners.[2] Hugo goes
on to mention the fact that the Commission for Administration
has designed a special project whereby more representative
utilization of all population groups in the public service will
be looked into with special reference to the management echelons
for selected candidates of all population groups with the purpose
of also making up circumstantially linked backlogs.[3]

It is, therefore, imperative that while even the central
government is working towards ending discriminatory employment
practices in the civil service, the national states like KwaZulu
should legitimize the public service by encouraging Black

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1   Hugo, P. Institutional legitimacy and equity: The case of
     Blacks in South African public service. Development
     Southern Africa. Vol. 6. No. 2. May 1989. p. 230.

2   Ibid, p. 231.

3   Ibid, p. 232.

advancement deliberately at managerial level rather than co-incidentally as people struggle along unassisted.

Black advancement

Despite modernizing attempts to use technological devices in administration, like computers and having strategies like privatization and rationalization, demands for Black skilled manpower in South Africa as a whole are insatiable let alone in KwaZulu. The population group that has hitherto largely supplied unskilled labour rather than skilled manpower, that is Blacks, will have to meet these demands on a continual basis.

Some posts in the public service of the Republic of South Africa would be more suitably filled by Blacks than by Whites where it was specifically meant for use largely by Blacks, for example, township management and Black municipal or local authorities in urban areas and peri-urban areas. The language proficiency cultural empathy and an understanding of the impact of apartheid in own life circumstances, are essential in the administration of Blacks in South Africa. The civil service serves to legitimize the government where it might be rejected by those it is meant to serve. It is equally important in the national states, like in KwaZulu, for the government services to be sensitive to the legitimization of the civil service by recognizing Black talent and developing it for senior management provided candidates are properly trained and educated.

Education and Training at Tertiary Level

The opportunity to receive education and training at tertiary level is a rare one in Black societies of South Africa. As indicated earlier, those who have received university degrees or

diplomas are regarded by parents as having escaped the ravages of oppression, discrimination, poverty and all sorts of social evil. Indeed those who have acquired such a privilege are regarded as capable of 'developing the people', and the country as well. Individualism, self-interest and self-centerdness is discouraged socially. There is some modicum of truth in such attitude towards education. An advantage of such an understanding of the value of education should be taken to re-orientate university education and differentiate curricula in other levels of education towards career education.

Professionally oriented and practical non-award-bearing courses should be introduced at the University of Zululand. Intensive management courses, medical and health-related courses, engineering, and agricultural courses should be offered by the same university. When such scarce professions have been catered for, the country can develop. According to Thompson development is a process of enabling people to accomplish things that they could not do before. In this sense human education and training at higher level is central to development.[1]

The establishment of an Institute of Public Service as aimed by the KwaZulu Public Service Commission will be a great relief to in-service training needs.[2]

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1   Thompson, A.R. Education and Development in Africa. London: MacMillan, 1983. p. 201.

2   KwaZulu Government Service: Public Service Commission Annual Report. 1988 p. 15.

Co-ordination of post-matriculation education

If the skilled manpower requirements by both the KwaZulu government service and the private sector as well, are to be met, in the nineties, the right number and the right occupations should be trained for respectively.[1] This could best be done if a Department of Manpower were created. The present man-power planning section of the KwaZulu Public Service Commission could form the nucleus of the Department of Manpower as is the case in Tanzania. This department could then monitor and co-ordinate all the efforts to train Blacks and supply them where they are required at all levels.

Revamping of Educational Planning

Since localization essentially means the transfer of power, it is necessary to revamp the planning of education in such a manner that the section of the population which is being empowered to run the affairs of the country is ready to do so by having all sorts of specialist in professional, executive and administrative sections of the civil-service trained and oriented for new roles.

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[1] Whereas there are 12 344 general assistants in KwaZulu (Labourers) there are 4 dentists, 2 engineers, 1 land surveyor, 4 computer operators, 1 dietician, 2 pharmacists, 2 specialists, 1 intern, 2 chief veterinarians.

It is important to realize that for localization purposes, the greatest need is not for liberal arts qualifications but for technical and professional qualifications many of which require at least Matriculation Mathematics and Physical Science.[1]   Our post-primary school education should be reformed and made to be biased towards Science and Mathematics.   At least all pupils should take Mathematics as a compulsory subject up to Standard 8.[2]

There are two popular approaches towards educational planning in developing countries, viz. the social demands approach and the manpower forecasting approach.   The social demands approach consists in the consideration of what society and communities require as education of their children irrespective of what the realities may be at a given time.   The man-power forecasting approach consists in the consideration of only the manpower requirements as can be forecasted for future in a given country.   In my view all these approaches can be used in KwaZulu.[3]

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1   Architecture, medicine, health and science occupations, technological occupations, engineering, computer, programming, research, laboratory work, technician.

2   The KwaZulu Education Enhancement Programme is the beginning of the process of addressing this problem or need whereby high schools offer Maths as a subject.

3   Thompson, op.cit, p. 201

When senior personnel are made to undergo some in-service education and training, a distinction should be made clearly between ordinary in-service education and training and that which is intended to enable or empower locals to assume new roles and new responsibilities at a higher level within the same office or on transfer elsewhere. This differentiation will facilitate the careful selection and planning of content, practicals, method of tuition and facilitators of an in-service course.

It could, further, be helpful if all details of in-service course were to be submitted to a Localization Committee for sanctioning and adjustment where necessary in case a course is intended to empower a target group for managerial functions.

Creation of Structures for Localization

In order for a policy to be implemented purposefully and vigorously, structures should be created; like the localization committee referred to above, and a Localization Officer. These structures could monitor and promote the development of localization in the territory at all costs.

A localization officer could be appointed to assist all the KwaZulu departments with the implementation of localization by providing guidelines, review progress being made, identify problem areas, liaise between departments if necessary, or between officials of the same department if there is a need; maintain clear procedures of complaint system to ensure that

allegations of overdue promotions, snubbing from and omissions from promotion prospects of Black officials are reported immediately.[1]

In order to strengthen the localization officer in his duty of overseeing the implementation programmes of localization, a localization committee could be appointed.[2] Its members could consist of Cabinet Ministers and Secretaries of Departments. According to Udoji, the functions of this committee could be:

a) to undertake a detailed and comprehensive investigation into all departments into all categories of the civil service, that are difficult to localize to ensure that an acceptable plan for eventual complete localization exists.

b) pay special attention to professional categories of the civil service, that are difficult to localize, to ensure that there are adequate training programmes for localization.

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1   In countries where Affirmative Action applies as a policy, this officer is called an Affirmative Action Officer. Adu advocated for a Director of Recruitment and Training and the Localization Committee of the Protectorate of Nyasaland in 1960 recommended the appointment of a Secretary for Recruitment and Training which was created in 1961.

2   As recommended by Udoji, J.O. Training and Localization of the Swaziland Civil Service. Mbabane, 1969. The KwaZulu Training Trust could be represented in this Committee.

c)   pay special attention to any unsatisfactory situation in departments where there might be total absence of local officials in the higher echelons of the civil service.

In order for the Committee to have legitimacy and more clout, representatives from recognized staff associations or the civil servants association could also be appointed to serve in the localization committee. It may further be useful to note strategies that have been used in post-colonial Africa.

Handling of Localization and Strategies in some Independent African Countries

In the former British colonies like Malawi and Tanzania, there was, according to Tordoff a "colonial approach" towards localization. An approach whereby the process of localization is related to school and university output and the length of time which it took an officer to prove himself within the service.[1]

Another approach was that of the "accelerated promotion". This approach meant that an African could take over an expatriate - held post after a much shorter apprenticeship than he would normally be required to serve. This approach was adopted in many young countries. It was subsequently linked with a method whereby promising African Officers were selected and trained

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1   Tordoff, op.cit. p. 196.

intensively to fill posts for which no local officers were immediately available.

A third approach was referred to as the "job analysis approach" whereby a detailed examination of the complements and qualifications of each post in the civil service was made with an aim of relating the organization of work and the qualifications required for a post to the African manpower available.[1]

A fourth approach was that of "job dilution".[2] This is a process whereby less experienced candidates are systematically and deliberately introduced into higher offices in order to gain practical experience with the actual work situation, possibly slightly simplified with a view to ultimate appointment in or transfer to higher posts.

Elsewhere in Africa, experience has shown that without the approach of 'job dilution', localization would not have taken place at all in the most senior posts of the civil service.[3]

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1   Tordoff, W. Ibid. p. 199.

2   Venter, M.A. Localization of the Civil Service in Malawi. M. Dissertation, UP. 1972. Pretoria. p. 106.

3   Ibid. p. 106

All these four approaches referred to above would be very useful in KwaZulu as it is possible to make somebody act for a lengthy period of time in a post for which he qualifies or will eventually qualify.

Essentially anti-discrimination measures to redress the deprivation of Blacks and the suffering experienced over the years during the height of apartheid era in South Africa are not enough. Many more advantages aimed at Black civil servants for the purposes of their advancement are necessary in order for Blacks to make up for the lost time. Hugo puts it as follows:

> "In making appointments, the basic skills required for a post and the level of training needed should be carefully respected while greater flexibility should be brought to bear regarding the question of length of service. Indeed where length of service is to be an important criterion for promotion, then Blacks would in many cases be ruled out of contention, and they would no doubt bitterby resent being discriminated against on the basis of criterion (length of service) which they had not been permitted to acquire because of a particular historical process that was discriminatory".(1)

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1   Hugo, op. cit. p. 21

Justification of Localization in KwaZulu

In as far as the misconception that KwaZulu exists as a result of apartheid is concerned, it will be remembered that the Zulu Kingdom existed long before the year 1948 when apartheid became an official policy of the South African Government in administering the country. At the moment the Joint Executive Authority requires the KwaZulu, like Natal provides competent senior civil servants in order to cope with its complex administrative problems. Whether the policy of apartheid is accepted or not accepted, the existing predominantly Black areas in Natal referred to as KwaZulu have always been existing even prior to White settlement and will continue to exist albeit under a different political dispensation. Even if KwaZulu does not opt for independence, yet it has powers to legislate in certain issues. Further, it has an executive body and is in charge of a territory in a self-governing capacity. It has its own Public Service Commission responsible for controlling the Public Servants in all the government service departments.

Localization does not only take place in an independent country. It can be pursued even by local governments, regional governments, federations and central governments. In the case of KwaZulu, it is a territorial government where the central government, as a matter of policy, allocates or seconds some of its own civil servants to train the indigenous staff until such time there are enough trained staff to replace seconded staff.[1]

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1   For a detailed description of the Zulu Kingdom prior to 1910, refer to the contributions of (1) Peter Colebrander, and (2) John Wright and Carolyn Hamilton under the chapter "African State Formation" in Duminy, A. and Guest, B. Natal and Zululand from Earliest Times to 1910: A New History. Pietermaritzburg: U.N. Press, Shuter & Shooter, 1989.

Affirmative Action Outside Africa

Nxumalo[1] defines affirmative action as (quoting Smelser) "an active assault on those practices and procedures which have heretofore operated to exclude disadvantaged groups and thereby to increase the proportions of those groups in the types of employment in which they have been underrepresented". Historically, this term was used to treat employees fairly without regard for race, creed, and sex where on hiring for the first time or on promotion in 1961.[2]

This strategy is normally resorted to when an improvement is required in the diversity of types of people working for an organization, or an improvement is required in giving equal opportunities to disadvantaged groups. Some people regard it as a reversed discrimination.[3] Some South African companies have been influenced by the American connection and have adopted it.

In view of the fact that education, training, confidence, assertiveness and race have always determined the eligibility of an individual to occupy a promotion position in the public service in South Africa, educational upliftment is the key to

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1   Nxumalo, O.E.H.M. Case Study of the Implementation of Affirmative Action in the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at Harvard University. Unpublished D.Ed thesis, Harvard, 1986. p. 33

2   Ibid. p. 26

3   Ibid. p. 16.

successful Black executive administrators and experts.
Structures to facilitate localization should be created and
strategies similar to the affirmative action could be employed.
Lessons can be learnt from the countries where this policy is
applied or followed. Adaptations to the KwaZulu situation can
be made.[1] The fact that these attempts have failed elsewhere,
should not dissuade KwaZulu from this strategy.

Historical Perspective of Poor White Advancement in South Africa

The South African public service has not been without
disadvantaged groups or sections of the population other than
Black in terms of affluence and advancement; these were referred
to as poor Whites. In order to redress the situation, the state
created the Department of Labour in 1924 specifically to
establish areas of employment where poor Whites could be
protected from Black competition in menial posts[2] hence job
reservation, group areas and hoardes of other discriminatory
laws.

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1   Countries where Affirmative Action is enforced for example
     Israel, India, and Japan, Malaysia.

2   The poor Whites were largely Afrikaners who were displaced
     from rural areas for example were marginal men who unlike
     their counterparts did not own land, and servants and
     therefore did not fit with the stereotype of white
     supremacy. For further details see: The Carnegie
     Commission Report. The Poor White Problem in South
     Africa. 1928 - 30.

According to Davenport[1] firms and parastatal organizations whose labour policies entailed specific and clear efforts to employ poor Whites even at the expense of Blacks who were socially under the same conditions or worse circumstances than poor Whites were created. This policy was referred to as the "civilized labour policy". As a result of this policy there were 4 705 poor White unskilled employees in the South African Railways and Harbours in 1921.[2] By 1928 there were 15 878 such White workers. In addition poor Whites got educated and trained to participate in a rapidly changing society. These advantages were not extended to Blacks instead colour-bar was entrenched in Acts like Mines and Works Act, Apprenticeship Act, 1924 and the Wage Act 1925. These prevented Africans among Whites from becoming artisans in the engineering, building and printing industries.[3] The general effect of this exclusion was lack of incentive for Africans and for employers to train and upgrade them (Africans). A programme of affirmative action for Africans should, therefore, be embarked upon.

The Responsibility of KwaZulu Supervisors and Heads of Sections to Train their Subordinates

Following a public positive statement or stand on localization by the Chief Minister of KwaZulu, His Excellency, the Honourable

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1   Davenport, T.R.H.: South Africa: A Mordern History. London: Oxford University Press, 1985. p. 365.

2   Van der Host, Shiela. The Effects of Industrialization on Race Relations in South Africa in Hunter, G. Industrialization and Race Relations. London: Oxford University Press, 1965. p. 119.

3   Tordoff, W. Government and Politics in Tanzania. Nairobi: East Africa Publishing House, 1967. p. 200.

Prince M G Buthelezi, the Secretaries of departments and the Heads of sections of departments should, in turn, formulate in collaboration with the KwaZulu Public Service Commission, clear strategies, written intentions and commitments to implement the policy enunciated. To reiterate, the Chief Minister, said:

> It is the policy of the KwaZulu government to localize posts in the civil service ... I appeal to you today, to help us do this localization at a faster rate than is happening at present.(1)

Earlier, he had indicated, in passing, and as a matter of course, in respect of the Black civil servants under his control that:

> "As a politician, I would like them to do the work which is presently done by Whites".(2)

The civil servants are implementors of policy, and as such should vigorously implement a policy which will not only help the whole organization, but will benefit the individuals and families of those who will assume new roles, positions and status as a result of localization.[3]

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1   Buthelezi, M.G. How can we become partners in the development of our people and in our liberation struggle. Speech at Ondini. 17 January 1976. p. 14.

2   Buthelezi, M.G.: University Training for Economic and Community Development. University of Zululand, Kwa-Dlangezwa 26 January 1976. p. 8.

3   Research has not proved any change of policy in KwaZulu since 1976.

Every senior official should seize every opportunity to help
publicize the policy of localization by communicating it down the
hierarchy, through in-house magazines[1] annual reports, pay
slips, refresher courses or orientation courses. The senior
officials themselves should be given in-service courses on
strategies to promote localization.

In countries where affirmative action policies are applied, firm
action is normally taken against those employees who, through
malicious non-compliance or other means, become impediments to
the implementation of the policy. In the KwaZulu situation a
power coercive strategy such as the one described above, would
not be suitable. Instead, a normative re-educative strategy
would be suitable - a strategy whereby norms, beliefs, habits and
values are appealed to for the better; in this case the
sensitivity to localization.[2] The conciliation body created by
the KwaZulu government service in the 1977 could be a forerunner
of the localization committee recommended earlier in this
chapter, in cases where differences arise as a result of
officials implementing the policy of localization.[3]

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1   KwaZulu now publishes prestigious journals: Fundisa, Clarion
     call (Inhlabamkhosi), Umxoxi (The Chronicle).

2   Chin, R. & Benne, K.D. General Strategies for Effecting
     Change in Human Systems. In Bennis W.E., Benne, K.D., Chin,
     R. and Corey, K.E. (eds.) The Planning of Change. New York:
     Holt, Rinehart & Winston. 1976.

3   Buthelezi, op.cit. p. 14, 1977.

Incumbents of supervisory, managerial and executive positions in the KwaZulu Government service should be made accountable for their performance in the field of on-the-job-training and in-service training of their subordinates? Progress and development made in this direction would then form part of the normal staff evaluation (Z 250) report leading to a merit assessment as usual with a view to ultimate promotion or some other recognition of the endeavours of a supervisor. Instead of the 5 topics for evaluation a sixth one would be added as follows:

> Insight
> Organization
> Human relations
> Productivity
> Responsibility
> Localization

A system. of rewards for and sanctions against compliance with policy and non-compliance respectively would go a long way in encouraging the policy of localization. For example a senior official who has constantly produced well-trained candidates for localised senior positions could also get a promotion.

Mentorship[1] or Sponsoring

Mentorship is normally enhancing the potential of the individuals who are being trained. Sometimes this is referred to man-to-man training.[2] Among other things, the White official pays special

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1   When a seconded official in a senior position exists for the purpose of training and development he is a mentor and a local who has to learn the job from the mentor is referred to as a protigé.

2   Buthelezi, M.G. Address by Chief Executive Councillor to the Staff of Finance. Branch of the Authority Affairs and Finance, Shepstone House, Pitermaritzburg. 25 November 1974.

and particular attention to staff under his control to ensure that the daily task is fully understood and expertly performed by the Zulu staff members. The subordinates to a seconded official need to apply themselves diligently in observation, participation, doing things, tackling problems, carrying out duties and instructions and making sacrifices. In the private sector, this strategy is referred to as sponsoring. It would mean, essentially that the mentor has a vested interest in the progress and advancement of his subordinate.

In order to routinize the system referred to above, Hugo suggests the following steps by a mentor:

a)   setting an objective for development of the employee

b)   gaining the person's acceptance of an commitment to the objective being aimed at

c)   setting milestones by which progress can be measured

d)   working out a plan to ensure that the person obtains the kind of experience necessary

e)   arranging for the person to meet the network of individuals on whose co-operation completion of a task might be dependent

f)   arranging for special training for any specific skills which might be necessary

g)   acting in general as a counsellor to the person to help him to avoid some of the potholes which exist in any organization.[1]

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1   Hugo, P. op.cit. p. 241.

Need for Attitudinal Change Towards Localization

Localization is a policy which is necessarily charged with political overtones especially in a country which is experiencing changes in race relations and experiencing an onslaught on racism as a policy. Moreover, change in itself is "practically synonymous with conflict since it means that the arrangements and the sub-systems which have been worked out no longer hold".[1] However, if top management is conscientious about, the facilitation of localization the following conditions should exist in the government service:

a) a high degree of understanding of the content and policy of localization and a clarity of purpose and intentions by all concerned

b) the extent to which the senior and junior members possess abilities to influence decisions pertaining to localization

c) the availability of suitable candidates and their track record

d) the compatibility of arrangements and strategies to localize

e) the willingness of staff to spend energy and time (effort) required for implementation of policy.[2]

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1   Griffiths, D.E. Administrative theory and change in organization. In Miles, M.B. Innovation in Education. New York: The Teacher's College Press, Columbia University. 1971 p. 435.

2   Gross, N. et.al. Implementing Organizational Innovations. New York: Harper & Row. 1971, p. 202.

The senior management or officers charged with the implementation of the process of localization should:

a)   anticipate problems and set forces to overcome them, develop overall strategies and implement them;

b)   keep close contact with the process at all levels;

c)   assess special types of problems that can be expected;

d)   develop mechanism for feedback and leadership within the civil service.

These strategies would make those who are skeptical about the whole concept of localization change their minds and eventually have positive attitude towards Black management.

Support Programmes for Localization

Since localization is an attempt to develop the country by transforming the civil service, through the process of absorbing new indigenous talents at all echelons who espouse more positive attitudes and actions regarding the country, efforts should be made to organise briefing sessions, seminars, workshops, meetings and conferences on the question of localization. These could be departments, sectional, or interdepartmental. In organizing and arranging these programmes the co-operation and the leadership of all the professioanl associations or staff associations in KwaZulu should be involved.[1]   These associations could monitor

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1   Some of these are KwaZulu Staff Association (KWASA), the African Teachers' Association (NATU), KwaZulu Nurses Association, United Workers Union of South Africa (UWUSA).

even the recruitment procedures so that they are radically changed from what they are at the moment to facilitate the lateral entries of more broadly oriented new blood at managerial level.

Over and above the professional organizations, the use of consultants, evaluation teams, citizens committees and ad hoc committees can be used to strengthen and support the structures charged with the implementation of the policy of localization.

Summary of Recommendations

1. Localization should be handled in the same manner as it has been handled elsewhere in Africa with a few adjustments here and there; minding the fact that KwaZulu is not independent but does not need to wait for independence to apply the policy of localization.

2. Those who are in charge as seconded-officials should be accountable to the department for whatever happens to would-be managers, and their efforts should be rewarded.

3. Affirmative action may be a useful strategy if adapted to the South African needs and procedures.

4. Education should be re-planned in order to enable it to produce the required number of mathematicians and natural scientists. Those who are already working could be given short work-oriented courses whereas young adults who can register for medicine, engineering and management courses could register at the University of Zululand eventually.

5. Education should be co-ordinated at post-secondary level.

6. A localization officer and a localization committee should be appointed.

7. There is a need for an attitudinal change on the part of the civil servants.

8. Support programmes for the localization policy should be organised.

9. A department of Manpower should be established.

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G.   INTERVIEWEES

1.   Mr. S.E. Armstrong, Secretary, KwaZulu Chief Minister's Department, 1/7/89.

2.   Mr J.B. Cele, Assistant Secretary, KwaZulu Public Service Commission, 1/7/89.

3.   Mr C.W. Mncwango, Chairman of the KwaZulu Public Service Commission, 1/11/85.

4.   Mr A.S. Nkabinde, Senior Administration Clerk, Esikhawini College of Education, 1/7/90.

5.   Mr I.N. Nkosi, Assistant Secretary (Administration) of Finance, KwaZulu, 4/5/90.

6.   Mrs P.M. Nkosi, Senior Administration Clerk, Esikhawini College of Education, 1/7/90.

7.   Mr D.S.V. Ntshangase, Deputy Secretary, Department of Justice, KwaZulu, 1/7/89.

8.   Mr Oltmann, Secreatry of Justice, KwaZulu, 1/11/85.

9.   Mr B.S. Zondi, Secretary, KwaZulu Public Service Commission, 1/7/89.

ANNEXURE 1

PUBLIC SERVICE SURVEY

To be completed and returned to: S Z Mbokazi
                                    Esikhawini College of Education
                                    Private Bag X8520
                                    ESIKHAWINI
                                    3887

                                    Tel: 63041/2/3

1. Year of birth: ....

2. Nationality: ....

2.1 If citizen of KwaZulu state country you were born in: ....

2.2 If born in KwaZulu state in what district ....

     Village ....

3. Year of entry and progression in the Public Service:

    Clerical ....-..

    Administrative ....

    Technical ....

    Professional ....

3.1 Present post held ....

     Department ....

4. Education Training   Year of Completion   Institution   Course

    Primary   ....

    Secondary   ....

    Technical   ....

    University   ....

    Professional   ....

    Post-graduate   ....

    Other than above   ....

4.1 If you have had any post-secondary training - how relevant do you consider this for your present post? Tick.

Relevant
Not very relevant
Of little use

5. Have you received any in-service training after joining the Public Service? Tick.

YES   NO

5.1 How relevant do you consider this in-service training to be for your present post? Tick.

Relevant
Not very relevant
Of little use

6. Have you received any other training after joining the Public Service? Tick.

YES   NO

6.1 If "Yes" state:

Course	Institution	Duration (Month)	Year
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....
....	....	....	....

6.5 How relevant do you consider this training to be for your present post?   Tick.

Relevant
Not very relevant
Of little use

6.6 Do you think that you need training to improve your performance in your present post?

Yes ....   Type: ....

7.   Have you served in more than one Department since joining the service?

YES   NO

7.1 If "Yes" state Department and length of service.

Department ⁻   Length of Service

.... 1-2 years   3-4 years   5-6 years   More
.... 1-2 years   3-4 years   5-6 years   More
.... 1-2 years   5-6 years   5-6 years   More

7.2 How do you consider frequent changes of Departments to affect you?

Unsettling
Does not make any difference
Stimulating

8. As a civil servant how would you rate the progress with the policy of localization?

    Very satisfactory
    Fairly satisfactory
    Not satisfactory at all

8.1 If you consider the progress with the policy of localization "Not satisfactory at all" state the reason you consider most important.

    Too little training facilities available
    Educational output of secondary schools too low
    Insufficient government funds to speed up the policy
    Lack of understanding of the policy of localization
    Lack of opportunity and time for the higher grades to
    train junior personnel
    Other reason

9. How do you rate the Civil Service as a career?

    Very satisfactory
    Fairly satisfactory
    Not satisfactory at all

9.1 If you consider the Civil Service as a career "Not . satisfactory at all" what would you consider the most important reason?

    Salary too low for responsibilities carried
    Not enough opportunities for promotion
    Very little scope

10. For what reasons would you say Blacks should take over from seconded officials in KwaZulu?

To save government spending on inducements.

To increase employment opportunities for Blacks

To demonstrate political control

To satisfy Black aspirations and ambitions

Other reasons to be stated

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-COPERATION

ANNEXTURE 2

KWAZULU DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

PUBLIC SERVICE SURVEY IN LOCALIZATION

Please complete and return to: S Z Mbokazi
                                   P O Box 136
                                   KwaDlangezwa
                                   3886

1.   Personal: (Rank) ....

1.1   Age ....

1.2   Sex ....

1.3   Highest Educational Qualification ....

1.4   Professional Qualification ....

2.   Attitudes or Perception on Localization

2.1   Do you regard the prolonged service of seconded officials as
        desirable in your Department (Education & Culture)

        [   ] YES   [   ] NO

2.2   Give reasons for your response in 2.1

2.2.1   ....
2.2.2   ....
2.2.3   ....
2.2.4   ....
2.2.5   ....

2.3   How would you rate the progress with the policy of localization?

| | Very satisfactory | | Fairly satisfactory

| | Not satisfactory at all

2.4   If you consider the progress with the policy of localization "not satisfactory at all" state the reason you consider most important.

Too little training facilities available

Insufficient money/funds to speed up the policy

Lack of opportunity and time for senior officers to train junior staff

Educational system not producing enough

Lack of understanding of and sympathy for localization policy

Other reasons

2.5   For what reasons would you say Blacks should take over from Seconded Officials?

To increase employment opportunities

To increase roles in decision-making and give meaning to authority

To satisfy Black aspirations and ambitions

To demonstrate political authority and control

3.   ·   Problems of Localization

3.1   How do think the shotage of skilled manpower/suitable candidates can be overcome:

        | in-service training
        | training by seconded officials
        | understudy system
        | increase formal education opportunity
        | recruit specific persons for specific posts
        | advertise internationally

3.2   Do you think that localization necessarily lowers the level of efficiency or standards?

        [   ] YES   [   ] NO

3.3   Give reasons for your answer:

3.3.1   ....
3.3.2   ....
3.3.3   ....
3.3.4   ....
3.3.5   ....

4.   Mention some other problems which are related to localization.

4.1   ....
4.2   ....
        ....
        ....
        ....
        ....
        ....

Ikhomishani Yezomsebenzi Yezisebenzi
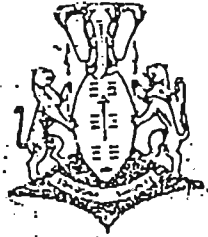
Public Service Commission

REGERINGSDIENSKOMMISSIE

Locingo : aphic Address : afiese Adres :	IKOMISHANI	Isikhwama Seposi : Private Bag Privaatsak	: : . :	X11 Ulundi	Ucingo : Telephone : Telefoon : 9211x

12 OCT 1983

Mr. S. Z. Mbokazi
College of Education
Private Bag X520
ESIKHAWINI
3887

Dear Sir

RESEARCH ON LOCALISATION OF THE KWAZULU GOVENMENT SERVICE

The Public Service Commission has no objection to Civil Servants
answering your questionaire and returning same to you.

Yours faithfully

SECRETARY : PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION
/mpv

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA REPUBLIEK VAN SUID-AFRIKA

SUPERVISOR'S REPORT—VERSLAG VAN TOESIGHOUER

Name/Naam		
Department/Departement		

Division—Afdeling

(a) _____	(c) _____	
(b) _____	(d) _____	

Rank—Rang	From/Vanaf	In the grade from In die graad vanaf
(a)		
(b)		

Reporting Officer/Verslaggewende Beampte

	From/Vanaf		From/Vanaf
(a) _____		(c) _____	
(b) _____		(d) _____	

INSTRUCTIONS IN REGARD TO THE COMPLETION AND FILING OF FORMS Z. 250 AND Z. 250 (a)
VOORSKRIFTE VIR DIE INVUL EN LIASSERING VAN VORMS Z. 250 EN Z. 250 (a)

INSTRUCTIONS

1. A summary of findings at inspections or routine investigations, and report on an officer's performance, conduct and behaviour as observed in the course of the discharge of his duties, should be recorded on form Z. 250 (a)—in duplicate in the case of sub-offices. The completed forms must be kept by the reporting officers in this cover until they are to be dealt with in accordance with instructions.

2. The report should state—

(a) whether the incumbent's work is up to date and, if not, what reason(s) is (are) advanced for such a state of affairs;

(b) whether his work is being carried out satisfactorily (or better or weaker) and in accordance with accepted principles;

(c) whether the manuals, registers and returns entrusted to the incumbent of the post are being properly maintained and whether the returns are submitted in accordance with the prescribed procedure;

(d) whether the incumbent reveals any tendencies which have a detrimental effect on his work; and

(e) whether the incumbent displays any aptitudes in particular fields.

3. The report should furthermore include the following—

(a) guidance, where necessary, in connection with the work;

(b) complimentary remarks, where deserved, but not to such an excessive extent that their value is diminished;

(c) a brief report on particulars attributes in such a manner that, inter alia, all the qualities appearing in the prescribed staff report form are covered in a twelve-month period.

4. The supervising officer's remarks must in every instance be brought to the notice of the officer concerned, who should initial them. The form should thereupon be submitted to the head of the office or section for perusal and initialling of the entries. In the case of an adverse remark, the supervising officer must comply with the provisions of Public Service Regulation A 18 and the Staff Code.

5. After the expiration of the period determined by the head of the department, the original report must be forwarded to the head office (or staff section if the officer is employed in the head office) for filing in the officer's personal file, and the duplicate must be placed in his local file.

VOORSKRIFTE

1. Opsomming van bevindings by inspeksies of roetineondersoeke, en verslag oor 'n beampte se werkverrigting, optrede en gedrag soos waargeneem in die loop van sy pligte, moet op vorm Z. 250 (a) aangeteken word—in tweevoud in die geval van subkantore. Die ingevulde vorms moet deur die toesighoudende beampte in hierdie omslag bewaar word totdat daarmee volgens voorskrif gehandel word.

2. Die verslag moet meld—

(a) of die posbekleër se werk op datum is en, indien nie, watter rede(s) vir so 'n toedrag van sake aangevoer word;

(b) of sy werk op bevredigende wyse (of beter of swakker) en in ooreenstemming met aanvaarde beginsels verrig word;

(c) of die handleidings, registers en state wat aan die bekleër van die pos toevertrou is, behoorlik bygehou en die state ooreenkomstig die voorgeskrewe prosedure ingedien word;

(d) of die bekleër enige neigings openbaar wat 'n nadelige uitwerking op sy werk het; en

(e) of die bekleër enige aanleg in bepaalde rigtings aan die dag lê.

3. Die verslag moet verder die volgende bevat—

(a) leiding, waar nodig, in verband met die werk;

(b) aanprysende opmerkings, waar dit verdien word, maar daar moet gewaak word dat dit nie in so 'n mate geskied dat afbreuk aan die waarde daarvan gedoen word nie; en

(c) 'n kort relaas oor bepaalde hoedanighede, op so 'n wyse dat onder andere al die eienskappe wat in die voorgeskrewe personeelverslagvorm voorkom, oor 'n tydperk van twaalf maande gedek word.

4. Die toesighoudende beampte se opmerkings moet in elke geval onder die betrokke beampte se aandag gebring word, en laasgenoemde moet dan die opmerkings parafeer. Daarna moet die vorm na die kantoor- of afdelingshoof vir insae deurgestuur word, en hy moet ook die inskrywings parafeer. In die geval van 'n ongunstige opmerking moet die bepalings van Staatsdiens Regulasie A 18 en die voorskrifte van die Personeelkode nagekom word.

5. Na verloop van die tydperk deur die hoof van die departement bepaal, moet die oorspronklike verslag aan die hoofkantoor (of personeelafdeling indien die beampte in die hoofkantoor werksaam is) gestuur word vir liassering in die beampte se persoonlike lêer, en die duplikaat in sy plaaslike lêer geplaas word.

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

RESPONSIBILITY

Conduct and behaviour calculated to protect and promote the prestige and interests of the State, particular note to be taken of an officer's -

(a) sense of duty, inter alia as regards his diligence, awareness of time, obedience to and prompt execution of instructions, full utilisation of the services of subordinates;

(b) interest in official matters (this also extending beyond his own official duties);

(c) attentiveness, thoroughness and considerateness;

(d) loyalty and the pride taken in his word;

(e) constructive action, of his own accord, in the interests of the State;

(f) ability and willingness to accept responsibility;

(g) display of the realisation of the importance of self-development and of keeping abreast of developments in his own sphere;

(h) voluntary overtime not necessitated by such personal characteristics as over-meticulousness or slow rate of working.

Name:

Rank: Department:

GRADING

	Exceptional	Considerably better than average	Better than average	Average	Below average	Weak
Reporting Officer						
Merit Committee						

The reporting officer and the regional merit committee must give hereunder (and on the reverse, if necessary) brief but full motivation, with reference to specific examples of the officer's work performance and/or conduct, for the above grading.

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

INSIGHT

Vision and clear thinking, coupled with a balanced, considered approach to matters, and an officer's ability to make use of his knowledge, qualifications, experience, common sense and aptitudes in connection with his work, so as, *inter alia* -

(a) to analyse and understand matters/situations and to reason them out to a logical conclusion;

(b) to find solutions to problems, follow or establish new lines of thought, and propose or bring about improvements.

Name:

Rank: Department:

GRADING

	Exceptional	Considerably better than Average	Better than Average	Average	Below Average	Weak
Reporting Officer						
Merit committee						

The reporting officer and the regional merit committee must give hereunder (and on the reverse, if necessary) brief but full motivation, with reference to specific examples of the officer's work performance and/or conduct, for the above grading.

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

HUMAN RELATIONS

The ability of an officer to establish and maintain the best co-operation with fellow-officers and the public at all levels. This appears largely from his leadership, self-reliance, tact, impartiality, firmness coupled with goodwill, and the ability to engender loyalty, to stimulate enthusiasm for the work and to foster a team spirit. Where an officer has had the opportunity to control staff, his guidance and instruction of subordinates should also be taken into account.

Name:

Rank: Department:

GRADING

	Exceptional	Considerably better than average	Better than average	Average	Below average	Weak
Reporting Officer						
Merit committee						

Reasons for the above grading based on sustained observation/inspection and with reference to specific instances, if any.

KW. ZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

ORGANISATION

The ability to plan and ar.....,,. the systematic execution of work so as to obtain the maximum production with the minimum expenditure of energy and time. This involves the proper allocation of functions/duties to divisions, branches, sections, ranks and units, as well as the proper delegation of authority and the co-ordination of activities. It is necessary to be able to take stock of developments and from time to time effect changes which will ensure the efficient functioning of the organisation as a whole.

Name:

Rank: Department:

GRADING

	Exceptional	Considerably better than average	Better than average	Average	Below average	Weak
Reporting Officer						
Merit committee						

The reporting officer and the regional merit committee must give hereunder (an on the reverse if necessary), brief but full motivation, with reference to specific examples of the officer's work performance and/or conduct, for the above grading.

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

PRODUCTIVITY

The amount of work performed by an officer (within a specified period), with due regard to its complexity and quality. Factors which contribute to greater productivity are correctness, a knowledge of what has to be done and how it should be done, and the speed, perseverance, drive, purposefulness and conciseness wich an officer displays in the performance of his duties. Overtime work and work of unsatisfactory quality are not taken into account in the assessment of this characteristic.

Name:	
Rank:	Department:

GRADING

	Exceptional	Considerably better than average	Better than average	Average	Below average	Weak
Reporting Officer						
Merit Committee						

Reasons for the above grading based on sustained observation/inspection and with reference to specific instances, if any.

REPORTING OFFICER
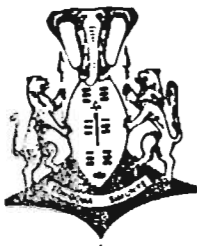
KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICE

SUMMARISED DESCRIPTION

Name:	
Rank:	Department:

Summarised description of candidate's performance, conduct and behaviour, abilities and possibi=
lities - see relevant paragraphs of the manual.

MERIT COMMITTEE

Regional Merit Committee

. . . .

LEADER   DATE

CENTRAL MERIT COMMITTEE

. . . .

    Chairman   Date

S T A F F   R E P O R T

The instructions contained in the manual must be strictly observed.

1.   PERSONAL PARTICULARS

(a)	Surname
(b)	First names
(c)	Department/Administration
(d)	Division (Office)
(e)	Centre
(f)	Rank
(g)	Date of entry into grade – Actual Nominal:
(h)	Age
(i)	Marital status and size of family: (State number of dependants)
(j)	Salary R p.a. Salary scale
	Date attained Incremental date

2.   EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

(a)	Highest school examination passed	
(b)	Post-school qualifications	Major subjects

3. LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

(a) OFFICIAL LANGUAGES					(b) OTHER LANGUAGES	
Test symbols		Afrikaans	English		Language	Efficiency as stated by the officer
Departmental assessment of functional proficiency. *(Indicate assessment by means of a cross in the appropriate space).*						
		Good	Fair	Weak		
Afrikaans	Written					
	Oral					
English	Written					
	Oral					

(c)   CERTIFICATE REGARDING LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

I declare that I have no reason to doubt the reliability of the assessment/ result, as furnished.

....
             SIGNATURE   RANK   DATE
Secretary, Deputy Secretary or Under-Secretary or equal rank, as the case may be

4. TRANSFERABILITY

(a)	Has the officer a preference for any particular centre(s)? .... If so, state the centre(s) ....
(b)	Is there any particular centre(s) where for any reason he does not wish to be stationed? .... If so, state centre(s) ....

5. GENERAL INFORMATION

(a)	Is the officer correctly placed in his present post/field of work? .... If not, where, in your opinion, can his services be utilised to the greatest advantage? ....
(b)	State of health/physical appearance. (State defects, if any.) ....

> N.B. *Any adverse remark under (c) must be dealt with in accordance with the Public Service Regulations and other instructions.*
>
> (c) Are there any shortcomings/weaknesses which may influence his promotion/ transfer (e.g. in regard to the use of liquor, punctuality, dress, personality, etc.)
>
> ....
>
> ....
>
> ....
>
> ....
>
> ....

6. MERIT ASSESSMENT

> (1) A denotes the reporting officer.
> B refers to the regional merit committee.
> (2) The reporting officer should use blue or black ink. The regional merit committee's assessment must be shown in red ink.
> (3) Any adverse assessment must be dealt with in accordance with the provisions of the Public Service Regulations and other instructions.

Qualities		Exceptional	Considerably better than ave.	Better than average	Average	Below Average	Weak	Marks awarded by Merit Committee
(a) Reponsibility	A							
	B							
(b) Insight	A							
	B							
(c) Human relations	A							
	B							
(d) Organisation	A							
	B							
(e) Productivity	A							
	B							
						TOTAL		

CLASSIFICATION (AS DETERMINED BY THE CENTRAL MERIT COMMITTEE)

7. REMARKS (Reporting Officer)

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│ I certifify that I have assessed the officer's merit in accordance with the │
│ provisions of the manual.                                             │
│                                                                       │
│ ........................    ..............................   ................  │
│         SIGNATURE                      RANK                   DATE     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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8. REMARKS OF THE HEAD OF THE OFFICE OR DIVISION (where he did not himself
    act as reporting officer)

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│ ........................    ..............................   ................  │
│         SIGNATURE                      RANK                   DATE     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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9. REMARKS (if any) BY THE HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT
    (regarding *inter alia*, the officer's potentiality and the
    findings of the central merit committee.

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│ ........................    ..............................   ................  │
│         SIGNATURE                      RANK                   DATE     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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.4 Number of employees on the establishment of the Department of Education and Culture 1984

NUMBER

Secretary	1
Director: Education Services	1
Director: Education Auxiliary Services	1
Assistant Secretary: Administration (Post Seconded)	1
Assistant Secretary Registar: Mangosuthu Technikon	1
Chief Inspectors	5
Education Advisers (Post Seconded)	3
Chief Public Relations Officer	1
Public Relations Officer	–
Chief Education Planner	1
Education Planners	3
Inspector of Education	25
Inspector of Schools	62
Chief School Psychologist	1
Senior School Psychologist	8
Subject Adviser for Mathematics and Science	1
Subject Adviser for Culture	1
Subject Adviser for Agriculture	1
Subject Adviser for Music	1
Subject Adviser for Arts and Crafts	1
Subject Adviser for Religious Education	1
Subject Adviser for Homecraft	3
Subject Adviser for Library Services	1
Librarians	2
Assistant Librarian	1
Inspector of Adult Education	1
Chief Language Services	1
Senior Language Officer	1
Language Officer	1
Senior Administration Officers	4
Administration Officers	10
Senior Administration Clerks	21
Administration Clerks	208
Assistant Administration Clerks	86
Typists	29
House Father/Mother Grade I	15
House Father/Mother Grade II	42
House Father/Mother Grade III	16
Messengers	4
Nurses	2
Physiotherapist	1
Labourers TW II	–
Labourers TW III	2
Labourers TW IV	176
Driver (TW I)	1
Drivers (TW II)	11
Factotum (TW II)	4
Night Watchmen TW IV	57
Cooks	7
Kitchen Assistants	12
Boiler Attendant	20
Chief Technicians	–
Principal Foreman	–
Lithographic Operator	–
Shoemaker	–
Technician	1
Total	859