Government Systems and the Transformation in a State

M Nefale University of Limpopo, South Africa **T Silima** University of Venda, South Africa

Abstract: The paper analyses the concepts of government systems transformation in a state. These concepts are change, development, modernisation, and globalisation. The paper focuses on factors for promoting change and those that are against it. It continues to analyse various fields of development, and development problems. As far as modernisation is concerned the paper explains the characteristics of modernisation, and the problems of this development theory. The paper will also discuss the importance of globalisation, its advantages and disadvantages. The researcher uses the qualitative and the deductive and inductive data analysis method. The paper will also come up with possible solutions and recommendations on change, development, modernisation and globalisation.

Keywords: Concept, Government, System, Transformation, State

1. Introduction

Transformation is a fundamental change of the structures, practices and power relationships in a society or a social institution (CEPTSA, 2006:44). The process of democratisation in South Africa brought high expectations for transformation. The relatively good starting conditions which are developmental status, infrastructure, and abundant natural resources promoted these expectations. In this regard South Africa was regarded as a potential growth engine in the region. These hopes were partly fulfilled even although South Africa has made progress toward democracy and a market economy in recent years (Deutsch, 2017:1).

The year 1986 is regarded as a turning point of the South African history. The transformation of this country began in 1990, when President FW De Klerk, announced about lifting the ban on black political organisations, and released Nelson Mandela from prison after 27 years. Between 1990 and 1994, the South African government gradually repealed apartheid laws. The negotiations aimed at establishing a new democratic government were held. The African National Congress was a party with majority members and supporters during that period, and people were focusing their hope on it. The selected concepts of systems transformation are change, development, modernisation and globalisation. These concepts are discussed below.

2. The State as a Political Entity

The criteria laid down for states in International Law (the law that is applied to relations between states) and Constitutional Law (the law according to which a state functions internally) are as follows:

2.1 Demarcated Territory

A requirement to determine whether a political entity is a state or not, is the requirement that a state should have a demarcated territory, this implies that a state's authorities have jurisdiction of a particular territory. Territory does not include only land, but also water masses, territorial waters and airspace over land and water (Roos, 2003). Rodee *et al.* (1983:29) says "territory is an obvious prerequisite of statehood".

2.2 Permanent Population

In the above-mentioned discussion of territory, mention was made of the fact that a state 's government has jurisdiction over a specific territory. Government makes authoritative decisions for an entire society. Thus a political unit is impossible without people. According to Thornhill *et al.* (2014:419) a state is composed of government, sovereignty, territory, and people. A permanent population is therefore a prerequisite for the existence of a state (Heywood, 2011). A region that does not have a permanent population cannot be a state. Antarctica is a good example here. However, there are no criteria that stipulate the nature, size, population density and composition of the population.

2.3 Government

The word government can be used to refer in a comprehensive sense to all public institutions involved in regulating the general welfare of people. It can denote the specific government-of-the day, and it can only function if it has adequate authority (Meyer, 1995:55). There should be authorities that rule and govern and thereby exercise control over the population of a particular region. The government can also act on behalf of the state in internal matters such as the prosecution of criminals. In addition, the government can also act externally on behalf of the state in the international community, by say, concluding treaties with other states. According to Heywood (2011) the core functions of government are to make law, to implement the law, and interpretation of the law.

When a particular government collapses, for example, after elections, during political unrest and civil war, this does not mean the state ceases to exist. Likewise, it is not a requirement. In spite of the fact that many people regarded the government in South Africa as illegitimate during the apartheid era, South Africa still continued to exist as a state. A government should have the ability to enforce its authoritative decisions either through physical force or through influence (Van der Waldt, 1997).

2.4 Sovereignty

The state has supreme authority domestically and independence internationally (Dunne, 1998:122). The government of a region or a state must also be sovereign. This means that the government may not fall under the control or partial control of any other power. Before Namibia became independent, it was not a state because it was under the control of the South African government. When independence is obtained, especially in colonial areas, sovereignty is granted to the authorities of these regions. According to Heywood (1997:143) sovereignty, in its simplest sense, is the principle of absolute and unlimited power. As a rule, the existence of a demarcated territory, permanent population, government and sovereignty are regarded as adequate for the existence of a state. However, the recognition of a state by the international community is becoming increasingly important (Johnson, 1997:61).

2.5 Recognition

There are two most important types of recognition applicable to a state, which are *de facto* and *de jure* recognition.

2.5.1 De Facto Recognition

De facto recognition of a state is granted to the government of a newly created state if it is independent and wielding effective power, it fails to offer sufficient guarantees in regard to its good will or ability to fulfill the obligations imposed by the status that have granted recognition (Jankovic, 1984:14-15). De facto recognition is provisional and can be withdraw if the recognizing state is of the opinion that the recognised state has not yet laid down requirements. A state recognised de also enjoys jurisdictional immunity in the courts of the recognizing state (Oppenheimer, 1962:156-157). De facto recognition is provisional and can be withdrawn by the recognising state if the conditions for recognition have not been fulfilled and also if it appears that the permanence of the newly created state fails to materialize.

2.5.2 De Jure Recognition

De jure recognition means that according to the recognizing state, the state or government fulfills the requirements laid down by international law for effective participation in the international community (Starke, 1977:162). De jure recognition is the final seal of recognition granted to a new state and it is the final act of recognition, great caution is exercised whilst granting. De jure recognition is granted on the basis of assessment of factual as well as legal functions, for example Beijing regime was recognised by the United States with effect from January 1979 (Hingorari, 1984:92-93). De jure recognition usually follows the period of de facto recognition and when the recognition state is satisfied that the conditions of stability and effectiveness have been met as well as convinced of the permanence of the situation, de jure recognition would be granted to the de facto recognised state.

3. Change or Innovation

Innovation is derived from Latin word "novare" meaning to make new things. Innovation is the introduction of new approaches, services, goods

and processes, or new actions. In the New Practical Standard Dictionary by Funk and Wagnalls, innovation is described as "... the making of a change in something established." Generally, the term innovation is reserved to denote a change, which requires a significant amount of imagination represents a relatively sharp break with established ways of doing things and thus essentially creates a new capability. Effective innovation results in the capability of doing something that could not be done before, or at least not so well, or so economically (Du Toit, 1998). A characteristic of the human society, and thus human beings, is innovation. The environment in which politicians and officials function is continuously changing (Wissink, 2006:6). All government functions and thus also the governing and administrative processes must continuously be adapted to changing circumstances. In contrast, the activities of political office-bearers (politicians) and officials are tied by a set of complicated legal rules, regulations and other prescriptions. Innovation of governing and administration arrangements comprises those actions, which alter the existing, binding measures to bring about change (Todaro & Smith, 2015).

3.1 Environmental Circumstances Which Necessitate Change/Innovation

People interact with other people to accomplish goals. People, their goals and actions are however time and place (environment) bound. The environment is seen as the total reality within which a human being finds him/herself (Van der Waldt, 1997) and (Hornby 2005:490). According to Sharkansky (1978:9) the environment is described as the sum total of the existing social, economic, and political circumstances, which cause problems for policy makers. When determining and providing services the human factor cannot be overlooked, because the goal of any government, and consequently officials, centres around promoting the general welfare of the inhabitants of a particular environment. Human beings exist in a particular setting at a given point in time. Humans, however, have different needs in terms of Abraham Maslow's theory, which are satisfied by different groups of people in different environment, i.e. political, economic, social, physical and religious environments (Van der Waldt, 1997:116-119).

The policy made by a government legislative body, i.e. the executive policy is always the starting point of the development of a municipal environment.

It stands to reason then that if the innovation of executive policy lags, the development will also lag behind and could in due course become a burden rather than an asset to society. Public policy serves as a guide to work and promote the well-being of the society (Hanekom & Thornhill, 1993). It should also be borne in mind that in any society there are numerous institutions and persons (individuals and groups) who strive to keep policy unchanged (maintain the status quo), accomplish a return to the past (the good old times), and accomplish change (bring about new environmental conditions). The governing and administrative processes are carried out to provide public services to the inhabitants of a specific geographical area (Van der Waldt, 1997:186). Services are, for example, rendered to meet the geographic (physical), economic, political, social and religious needs, interests and expectations of the inhabitants/society. The above human phenomenon is, however, unique and is experienced differently by individuals compared with people in groups in the same environment.

Various environmental factors can also influence the governing and administrative processes (Van der Waldt, 1997:158). These factors are population growth, scientific and technological development, changing opinions of inhabitants, changing needs for community services, the necessity for giving special cases particular attention, new perceptions regarding the role of government in keeping community life healthy, preservation and utilisation of resources. From the above it can be deduced that environmental factors influence human needs, behaviour and relationships and that these factors cannot be ignored when solutions are determined for the solving or prevention of community problems. To develop a specific environment is however subject to the influence of various environmental factors, which could counteract change.

3.2 Factors that are Against Change

Inertia: Generally speaking, all people tend to be reluctant to change the traditional ways of doing things.People are reluctant to let go of existing circumstance which may include material benefits (salaries and status symbols) and psychological benefits (power and prestige) (Hanekom, 1987).

The absence of reasons for the planned changes may cause resistance: Such resistance may result from poor communication on the part of public managers. More commonly, however, it may be attributed to the inability of workers to recognize the necessity of change. Communication is essential in any organisation, as it is a process of transmitting message from one person to the other (Erasmus, 2015:1).

Resistance to change may be caused by uncertainty about the reasons for and the effect of change in particular: In particular, when change is not discussed with the participants or employees they may lose confidence and trust and the attempt at change may fail. Trust is essential when dealing with changes such structural change (Todaro, 2009:838).

If the introduction of change is not timed appropriately: Participants or employees may be reluctant to co-operate. Time is the most precious commodity which should be used efficiently, and should not be wasted in terms of the principle of value for money (Cloete, 1995).

Change may require employees to abandon existing customs and practices: For example, if the decision has been made to make new parking arrangements, perhaps they have to get up earlier to get to work on time and other changes in their routines. This may cause resistance to change. Customs have to do with an action or way of behaving which is usual and traditional among the people in a particular group or community (Kleyn and Viljoen, 1998).

Structural inertia: Many institutions do not have adequate established organisational arrangements, and this hampers effective performance which is presently emphasised (Thornhill *et al.*, 2014:417). For example, outdated organisational structures, incomplete procedural guidelines, inadequate delegation of powers and over-centralisation of activities are typical obstacles that may impede change.

Outdated methods and procedures: Clinging to outdated methods and procedures is one of the most prominent administrative factors that can affect change negatively. In the public sector, operational methods and procedures are often established by a higher authority, but this is no excuse for public managers to ignore shortcomings and it is the responsibility of every employee to bring such shortcomings to the attention of a higher authority. This will ensure that better methods are found for performing tasks and change may be expedited (Cloete, 1995).

Obsolete technology: Using obsolete technology can be a major obstacle when it comes to change. Imagine the delay that would result without the use of modern-computer facilities in a large-scale project, such as general salary adjustments for public officials (Cloete & Thornhill, 2012).

Narrow view of change by management: Public institutions such as state departments are made up of several decisions and sections. It will be impossible to introduce any change that will not affect the activities of virtually all the divisions and sections. For example, if a decision is made to use computers in the workplace, it will have to be done throughout the institution and not just in one division or section, because it will affect all activities of the institution as a whole (Cronje *et al.*, 2006:263).

Inappropriate management style: When administrative change takes place in the public sector, the management style of the public managers will be a decisive factor in its success. For example, if a higher authority decides to introduce a personnel system which supports increased participation by staff at the lower levels of the hierarchy (operational workers), it will be inappropriate for public managers (especially at middle management level) to persist in an autocratic management style and therefore to oppose change. In such a case, a public manager who persists in an autocratic management style will be an obstacle in the way of change (Du Toit *et al.*, 1998).

4. Plan of Change for South Africa

The Plan of Change for South Africa is known as the Two-Stage Theory of Revolution. It indicates two objectives which are to be achieved by the South African Democratic Government after the end of apartheid government (Slovo, 1988). These objectives are the objectives of the New South Africa after liberation. These objectives are building a nation and building the economy.

4.1 Two Objectives of the Plan of Change for South Africa

4.1.1 Building a Nation

At its founding conference in 1912, the ANC issued a clarion call for African unity under the slogan, *We*

Are One People. As head of the liberation alliance, it is committed to working for the creation of one South Africa which, in the words of the Freedom Charter, 'belongs to all its inhabitants, black and white' (Slovo, 1988).

Nation-building is a process of national integration in deeply divided society through which different cultures and social groups are joined in a single territorial unit; the establishment of a national identity and loyalty to a state (CEPTSA, 2006:29). It is building a consciousness amongst people so that they should feel or regard themselves as a nation, e.g. South African Nation, American Nation. There is no nation if people in a particular geographical area are still divided and more conscious of being members of their own tribes, races, social groups, and linguistic groups.

According to Heywood (2011) nationalism is not an ideology at all, but a doctrine, in that it does not contain a developed set of interrelated ideas and values. An interesting character about nationalism is that as it cuts across all major ideologies at different times, nationalism has been progressive and reactionary, democratic and authoritarian, both left-wing and right-wing. A nation used to be defined as cultural entity, a collection of people bound together by shared values and traditions, e.g. a common language, religion and history, and usually occupying the same geographical area. To define a nation as a group of people bound together by a common culture and tradition raises some very difficult questions. Heywood (2011) raises the point that although certain cultural features are commonly associated with nationhood, like for instance, history, there is no blueprint or any objective criteria which can establish where and when a nation exists. Another crucial question is whether people residing in a certain area of a country possesses the right to political independence simply by virtue of calling itself a nation, or must some external standard be applied. It is true that a nation, unlike the state, does not have a tangible existence.

Despite the existence of cultural and racial diversity, South Africa is a nation in the making. It is in a process which is increasingly being advanced and nationhood will hopefully be achieved in the future. The concept of one united nation, embracing all ethnic communities, remains the virtually undisputed liberation objective, even today.

4.1.2 Building the Economy

According to the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (1994:34) the apartheid government cooperated with a handful of conglomerates to shape the economy to benefit a minority of whites at the expense of black people. This process had a profound effect on economic structure, reducing efficiency and flexibility as well as greatly aggravating inequality and unemployment. Profound socio-economic changes are required over an extensive period of to restructure the economy to meet the needs of the majority. Economic policy and the main economic actors in industry and agriculture systematically excluded and hindered black people. As a result, South Africa now has one of the most unequal patterns of distribution of income, wealth and opportunity in the world. The apartheid system forcibly denied blacks and women key positions in business and the public sector.

Effectiveness, efficiency and economy are important values to promote development and good administration (Thornhill *et al.*, 2014). A critical cause of inefficiency and inequality lies in the position of labour. Rigid hierarchies and oppressive labour relations ignored the skills latent in the experience industrial workforce. Apartheid laws denied workers their basic rights. High levels of unemployment and oppressive legislation made it difficult even for organised workers to maintain a living wage. The lack of skills forms a major obstacle to the development of a modern economy able to support a decent living standard for all South Africans, and all workers in general.

The economy needs to be reconstructed and restructured to meet the needs of the majority. According to the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:35) the central goal is to create a strong, dynamic and balanced economy directed towards achieving the following objectives:

- Eliminating poverty and the extreme inequalities generated by the system and ensure that every South African should have a decent living standard and economic security;
- Ensuring that no one should suffer discrimination in hiring, promotion or training on the basis of race or gender;
- Democratising the economy and empowering the historically oppressed through the

encouragement of broader participation in decisions about the economy in both the private and public sector.

- Creating productive employment opportunities at a living wage for all South Africans;
- Developing a prosperous and balanced regional economy in Southern Africa based on the principle of equity and mutual benefit, and
- Integrating into the world economy in a manner that sustains a viable and efficient domestic manufacturing capacity and increase the capacity to export manufactured goods.

4.2 Economic Ideologies in South Africa

The South African Liberation Theory was initially aimed at replacing capitalism with socialism. The downfall of socialism in Africa also gave South Africa a lesson that socialism alone cannot sustain the economy. This brought the idea of mixing capitalism and socialism to form the mixed economic system. There are different characteristics of socialism and capitalism.

4.2.1 Characteristics of Capitalism

Capitalism can be described as an economic system in which productive assets are predominantly privately owned and production is primarily for sale. Capitalism can also be described as a form of economic, industrial and social organisation of society involving ownership, control and directions of production by privately owned businesses. According to Roos (2000:7-8) the characteristics of capitalism are that government does not interfere with private economic and social activities and individuals. The government should concern itself with the maintenance of law and order.

4.2.2 Characteristics of Socialism

Socialism is an economic system which was aimed at replacing capitalism and regarded it as the root of all social evil, and intended to promote greater economic equality by promoting higher wages for the working class, and more stringent taxation for the upper class. According to Samuelson (1980:817) and Gildenhuys (2015:8), in socialism all factors of production except labour are owned and controlled by the government. This means that the government acts as the entrepreneur and owns resources. There is no private ownership. The government decides how the country's resources will be used to the advantage of all citizens.

5. Development

Development involves both being and doing. Conditions in communities such as deprivation, degradation and poverty all point to a state of underdevelopment. Therefore, much of development is planning and designing programmes that are aimed at alleviating these circumstances. According to Todaro (2004) development implies three core values, which are the ability to provide basic necessities (life sustenance), the ability to realise a sense of worth and self-respect (self-esteem) and the ability to have the freedom or emancipation from the captivity of the conditions of life, the dogmatic beliefs, and misery (freedom from servitude).

5.1 Development Explained

The process of development was originally conceived in terms of economic growth (Rostow, 1960). In reality, the environment, as a whole, needs to be changed if the general welfare of the people is to be promoted. Such change to the environment should meet the requirements of improvement or betterment of the well-being of the people. Purposeful change to the environment to make it a "better" place to live is known as development. According to Todaro (2004) development is aimed at:

- Eliminating poverty caused by lack of the means to provide for food, clothing, housing and other material needs;
- Equipping the people/citizens materially and spiritually so that each person is able to pursue a specific standard of living, enjoy a meaningful job opportunity, and live according to personal values;
- Eliminating social problems such as insufficient housing and a lack of insufficient services.

It has been indicated above that all communities live in a specific a unique environment. To increase the quality of life of the people of the people all the components ("sectors") of the environments need to be improved and raised to a favourable and acceptable level. Various preventative, curative and promotional actions will have to be taken, for example poverty could easily develop into a vicious circle; a lower financial income usually leads to a lower level of personal investment (savings), limited job opportunities, high unemployment rate and low productivity. Low productivity could in time cause low income, low personal savings and ultimately, poverty.

According to Todaro and Smith (2015) development is, however, not only aimed at economic advancement. It includes more that aspects of material welfare such as motor car, houses of good quality, good roads and highways or highly graded hotels. Development also includes the cultural and spiritual enrichment of people, for example through the provision of schools, churches, opera houses, universities and art galleries. It should, however, be noted that development has horizontal and vertical dimensions. Development entails for example not only:

- More land for agriculture, but also a higher production per hectare;
- More children in a school or even more schools, but also a higher level of education for each child;
- More teachers, but also better trained teachers;
- More roads, but also roads of a higher standard;
- More politicians and officials in government, but good governance in a state;
- More political parties in a state, but unity and cohesion prevailing in a state (Wissink, 2006:18).

Development is an attack on the chief evils of the world today (World Bank, 1990), and it should become part of a community life (Wissink, 2006:19). The inhabitants of a community should be educated to strive towards development. Development is for the above reasons a given function of any government. Depending upon the frame of reference, development can be promoted in the economic, social, political and physical environment. The results of such development can be measured quantitatively and qualitatively. It should be noted that "good life" should meet specific norms or standards. The norms with which the "good life" should comply is determined and set by the inhabitants of the relevant community. The human way of living and human actions contain aspects which are so closely linked to the total life of human beings that they result in each community being unique; and

this results in different descriptions or meanings being given to development.

5.2 Development Problems

According to Todaro (2004) development is defined as an approach which is some multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of absolute poverty. On the other hand, the World Bank (1990) defined development as an attack on the chief evils of the world today. These chief evils are development problems. Development initiatives are aimed at eradicating development problems. According to Wissink (2004:7) the development problems are lack of food, lack of clothing, poverty, unemployment, homeless people, lack of houses, illiteracy, low level of education, low level of education, lack of economic growth, crime, corruption, diseases, protests and strikes, lack of service delivery and others.

6. Modernisation

The end of World War II gave rise to the beginning of self-government in much of Asia and Africa. India, giant among nations in population and land area, was the first to gain independence. Due to the nature of Ghandi's message and his leadership of the world's largest non-violent movement, India's independence set in motion a general repudiation of colonial legitimacy. It was also a period characterised by unprecedented economic growth; probably the most pronounced booms in world history. During the 1950s and on through the 1960s, the economists tended to dominate the development debates and essentially determined their intellectual scope. Modernisation of technology resulted in a change from simple traditional technique to the application of sophisticated scientific knowledge. There was also the commercialisation of agriculture from subsistence farming to a cash crop production to wage labour. It was also characterised by industrialisation, bringing about a transition from the utilisation of human and capital power to the utilisation of machine power (Wissink, 2004:8-9).

6.1 Characteristics of Modernisation

According to Stuart Hall (Hall & Gay, 1996; also see O' Donnell, Mike, 1977:40), the six distinctive

characteristics of modern society (which also distinguish it from traditional society) are:

Religious characteristic: Religion is not highly regarded and there is a rise of a secular materialistic culture. Religion determines the relationship between God and an individual. (Kleyn & Viljoen, 1998:13).

Economic characteristic: In modernisation there is a replacement of feudal economy (getting services by the owner of land) by an economy in which money system provides the medium for exchange (in trade) based on large-scale production and consumption of commodities for the market, extensive ownership of private property, and accumulation of capital on a long- term basis. Economy is concerned with the utilisation of scarce resources in order to meet the unlimited needs of the society (Van der Waldt, 1997).

Political characteristic: The dominance of secular political authority over state and marginalisation of religious influence from state/political matters. Politics is concerned with the struggle for power and achieving goals through collective effort (Heywood, 2011).

Social characteristic: The decline of social order based on simple division of labour and the development of new division of labour based on specialisation, the emergence of new classes, and changed relations between men and women. A society is a group of people living together and being linked by common needs (Riker and Brisbane, 1997:500).

Cultural characteristic: The forming of new nations (communities-ethnic or national) having their own identities and traditions to suit their own purposes, e.g., rejection of aristocracy and monarchy by France, Britain accepting monarchy only as a symbol, Egypt rejecting monarchy and accepting democracy, and so on. Culture has to do with a set of learned and shared beliefs, customs, skills, habits, traditions, and knowledge common to members of a society Riker and Brisbane, 1997:496).

Intellectual characteristic: The rise of scientific, rationalist way of looking at the world. Thus, while the traditional society is characterised by ritual, custom, collectivity, community ownership, status quo and continuity and simple division of labour,

the modern society is characterised by rise of science, emphasis on reason and rationality, belief in progress, viewing government and the state as essential in bringing about progress, emphasis on economic development and complex division of labour, perceiving human-beings as capable of acquiring great control over nature and environment and seeing world in terms of dualisms or opposites. Intellectual is adjective concerned with using person's ability to think in a logical way and understand things (Hornby, 2005:776).

Post-modem society, or late modernity, concentrates on critical awareness and is concerned about the damaging effects of applied science on nature, environment and humanity. It points out risks and unintended negative consequences of the pursuit of progress. From nationalism (emphasised in modern society), it moves to the process of globalisation. Instead of giving importance to economic development (as in modern society), it gives importance to culture. Unlike modern society (which sees the world in terms of opposites or dualisms), post-modern society views unity, similarities and connections as important.

6.2 Problems of Modernisation

In this development paradigm, which is modernisation, there are demands that society must change in all ways at once (Wissink, 2004:8). But such a regular and coordinated pattern of growth cannot be planned and materialised. Some amount of social interest, hence, is bound to be there, for example, discrepancy between mass education and employment opportunities. Modernisation structural changes mostly remain uneven, for example, industries may be modernised but religious systems, family systems and others remain conservative. Modernisation of social and economic institutions may create conflicts with the traditional ways of life. Example, trained MBCHB doctors may pose a threat to the traditional medical practitioners (Lindhard et al., 1987:199).

There is also a problem because, most often, roles adopted by the people are modern, but their values continue to be traditional, for example, new Business firms and industrial establishments. The traditional leaders are also to perform some of the modern functions (Mafunisa *et al.*, 2016).

Cooperation becomes a problem in modern times. There is lack of cooperation among agencies which modernise and among those institutions and systems which are already modernised. It is essential that government politicians and officials work in espirit de corps, which simple means that they should work in the spirit of togetherness (Silima, 2017:13). Though modernisation raises the aspirations of people, the social system does not provide enough chances to materialise them. This creates frustration, disappointment and social unrest. People are involved in strikes because they want the government to provide better services for the improvement and promotion of the general welfare of the society. According to Thornhill *et al.* (2014:127), it is the role of the state to render services and to promote development.

7. Globalisation

Globalisation is the process by which the world is becoming increasingly interconnected or one global village as a result of massively increased trade and cultural exchange (Machala, 2009). Globalisation can also be defined as the process of treating matters and issues of crucial importance and concerns of all states of the world within a multinational context (CEPTTSA 2006:19). Globalisation is a complex web of interconnectedness through which life is increasingly shaped by decisions or events taken at a distance (Heywood, 1997:405-406). According to Beautement (2007:209) globalisation is the breakdown of barriers to the free movement of commodities and capital across national borders as well as the removal of obstacles to setting up production processes in any part of the world. Globalisation has resulted in increased international trade, a company operating in more than one country, greater dependence on the global economy, freer movement of capital, goods, and services, and recognition of companies in Less Developed Countries, companies such as McDonalds, Starbucks, and KFC.

7.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Globalisation

Agrawala (2009) came up with the advantages and disadvantages of globalisation: These advantages and disadvantages are indicated below.

7.1.1 Advantages of Globalisation

Countries are able to use resources that are more available to them to produce goods and services in an efficient manner. People get various products in their own countries, as there is market accessibility. The fact that goods or products are easily found, this also makes the prices to be low, and that companies are able to reach big markets. Globalisation also promotes good international relations amongst countries of the world. It is interesting because international relations concern the way states see and understand themselves in relations to the wider world outside their borders and the actions they perform on the basis of this understanding (Johnson, 1997:61). This process will make it simple for companies to invest in other countries.

7.1.2 Disadvantages of Globalisation

In globalisation, it can be found that developed countries are benefiting at the expense of the undeveloped and under-developed countries. This means that the third world countries can be adversely affected. When economic depression hits one country, it can become a spillover effect to other countries of the world. Globalisation can increase the spread of communicable diseases, e.g. bird flu. Competition can also become high amongst companies in the market. At the end of the day, it will be difficult for small companies to survive. The inability of the small companies to compete well in the international market is one of cause of lack of development (Wissink, 2006:39).

8. Recommendations

Transformation demands that there should be change, development, modernisation, and globalisation. Innovation can be the result of changing circumstances. By "circumstances" is meant the whole environment, as stipulated by place and time, in which the governmental actions take place. It should be noted that if the government and administrative arrangements become obsolete, the environment will enforce change and thus innovation. To reduce resistance to innovation/change there should be good communication, negotiation, participation and support.

Government and administration should be the cause of innovation, and development (not the result). In other words, the arrangements should change the environment. If a government authority neglects to adapt its governmental and administrative arrangements to changing circumstances or to satisfy new needs, such as institution may become obsolete and will either cease to exist or an additional institution will be established to render proposed new services.

Government authorities are created in accordance with the provisions of legislation. It can be said that the creation, change, development, abolition or amalgamation of government authorities (macro-organising) is, for final approval by the political superstructure. The existence of government institutions is thus directly influenced by the political environment. This does not, however, mean that the chief officials cannot make a contribution to the innovation and development. However, the last word throughout the public sector must always be with the political judgement. Modernisation and globalisation are phenomena which cannot be avoided if governments want to develop their activities and societies. Good governance and service delivery can be realised if governments are accountable and responsive politically, socially, economically, scientifically, internationally and otherwise.

9. Conclusion

The paper has been written at a time when South Africa and some African states are faced with the challenges of transformation, change, development, modernisation and globalisation. These are aspects which should be dealt with in an accountable, responsible, and just manner in order to promote sustainable development in South Africa, Africa, and the World. Sustainable development is desirable as it continues to the future, and it can also be known as "a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations".

References

- Agrawala, K. 2009. Advantages and disadvantages of globalisation. Internet Source. Posted 6 November 2009, 12:53 AM.
- ANC. 1994. White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme. Johannesburg: Umanyano.
- Beautement, V. 2007. Economics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- BBC. 2014. Globalisation. United Kingdom: British Broadcasting Corporation.
- CEPTSA. 2006. Multilingual Modern Political Dictionary. Johannesburg: Centre for Political and Related Terminology in Southern African Languages.
- Deutsch. 2017. Shaping Change: Strategies of Development and Transformation. South Africa: Bertelsmann Stiftung.

- Dunne, T. 1998. 1998. Liberalism. In Baylis, J. & Smith, S. The Globalisation of World Politics. An Introduction to International Relations. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.109-124.
- Du Toit, D.F.P. *et al.* 1998. Public Administration and Management for effective governance. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Elizabeth, A. & Martin, M.A. 1990. Concise Medical Dictionary. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gildenhuys, J.S.H. 2015. Public Financial Management. Pretoria: JL Van Schaik.
- Hanekom, S.X. & Thornhill, C. 1993. Public Administration and Management in a Contemporary Society: A South African Perspective. Pretoria: Sigma Press.
- Heywood, A. 1997. Politics. London: Macmillan.
- Heywood, A. 2011. Politics. London: Macmillan.
- Hingorari, R.C. 1984. Modern International Law. New York: Oceana Publications.
- Hornby, A.S. 2005. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jackson, R.J. 1997. A comparative introduction to Political Science. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Jankovic, B.M.1984. Public International Law.New York: Transnational Publishers.
- Kerzner, H. 2001. Project Management: A systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kleyn, D. & Viljoen, F. 1998. Beginner's Guide for Law Students. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Lindhard, N. 1987. Guidance in the classroom. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.
- Machala, P. 2009. The Political Theory of globalisation. Amherst: Amherst College.
- Mclver, R.M. 1976. The Modern State. London: Oxford University Press.
- Mafunisa, M.J. *et al.* 2016. Research on Approaches in the Capacity Building for Traditional Leadership: A Report submitted to the LGSETA by the Department of Public and Development Administration. Bedfordview, Johannesburg: Local Government SETA and University of Venda.
- Nayyar, D. 2017. Political Science Notes. Internet Source. Accessed 7 May 2017. http://www.politicalsciencenotes. com/globalisation.
- Oppenheim, L. 1967. International Law. London: Longman.
- Riker, A.P. & Brisbane, H.E. 1997. Married & Single Life. New York: Glencoe/McGraw-Hill.
- Roos, H.W. 2003. Introduction to Political Science: In PLS 100 Component 1 Study Manual 2. Pretoria: Vista University.
- Silima, T. 2017. Context of Management. Thohoyandou: University of Venda.
- Starke, J.C. 1977. An introduction to International Law. London: Butterworth.
- Thornhill, C. *et al.* 2014. Public Administration and Management in South Africa: A developmental Perspective. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

- Todaro, M.P. and Smith, S.C. 2009. Economic development. 10th ed. New York: Pearson.
- Todaro, M.P. and Smith, S.C. 2015. Economic development. 12th ed. New York: Pearson.
- Van der Waldt, G. 1997. Public Management: The grassroots. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Wissink, H.F. 2006. Implications of Development for Public Administration: In PBA5003 Study Guide. Pretoria: Vista University.
- Wissink, H.F. 2006. Introduction to Local Government: In PBA6004 Study Guide. Pretoria: Vista University.